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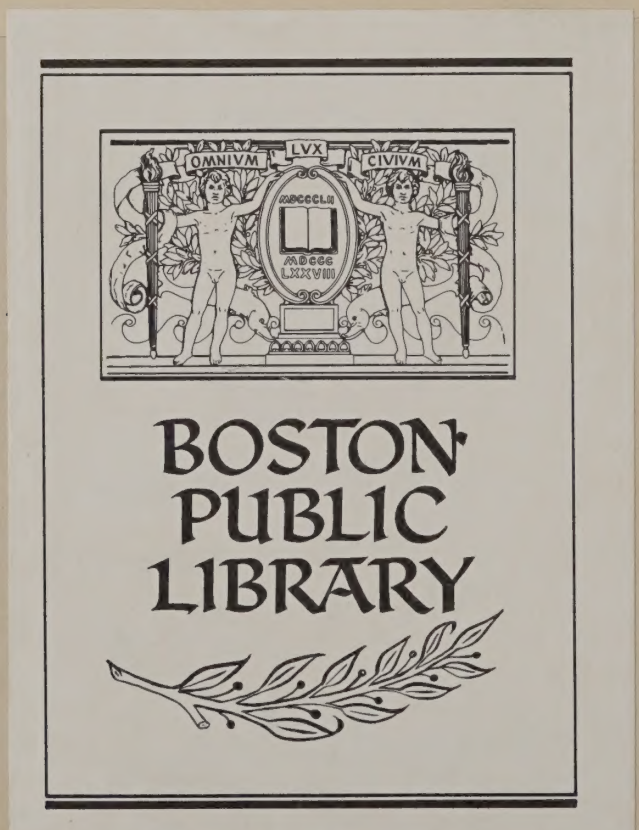

The Nation:

A WEEKLY JOURNAL

DEVOTED TO

POLITICS, LITERATURE, SCIENCE, AND ART.

VOLUME XVII.

FROM JULY 1 TO DECEMBER 31, 1873.

NEW YORK:

E. L. GODKIN & CO., PUBLISHERS.

1873.

Periodical
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 3, 1873.

The Week.

THE General Term of the Supreme Court of this District has just decided, Judge Barbour dissenting, in the suit of Mrs. Putnam for damages for the murder of her husband in a street-car, that a common carrier is bound "not only to guard each passenger from violence and the assaults of its own agents and employees, but from the assaults and violence of other passengers carried in the same conveyance, and from other causes of discomfort or injury which could have been reasonably anticipated or prevented." Judge Barbour concurs in this as regards steam railroads and steamboats, but dissents as to street-cars, on the ground that a passenger may make his escape from these latter vehicles. Now, it is not for us to say whether the decision of the majority of the court is good law—the Court of Appeals will decide that; but no reasonable man can doubt that it ought to be good law, and that until it is good law the public will, in the present state of corporation morals, have no proper guarantee for the proper selection and good behavior of car conductors and drivers, on whose temper, courage, and general efficiency the comfort and safety of so many women, children, and delicate persons are every day dependent. But we ought to call the attention of reformers interested in this subject to the fact that recent decisions of the Court of Appeals of this State tend to establish a law that the conductor of a horse-car is not "the driver of a carriage" under the statute; and, moreover, that if he commits any act of violence or outrage on a passenger, as long as it is plainly not committed in the discharge of his duty, and as long as he cannot suppose that it is, the company is not liable at common law for his acts. This, of course, if sound, removes at once one of the strongest motives for the employment of respectable, careful, and good-tempered men. If a conductor thrashes a passenger for reproving him, for instance, the company is not responsible, because no conductor thrashes passengers, or supposes himself empowered to do so, in the ordinary course of his duty. The remedy, we need hardly say, is not to change the law, but to elect judges, Illinois fashion, to decide all car cases against the companies.

The death of Mr. W. W. Whiting may have some modifying influence upon Massachusetts politics; if not, the facts in that matter may be said to stand as follows at the present writing: Senator Boutwell and Secretary Richardson are reported as asserting, on their return from Cambridge and Boston the other day, that Butler would assuredly get the regular nomination. This is held to prove that at least he will have control of the Federal patronage, which, it is added, will be his main reliance. It is asserted that the appointment of Sanger as District-Attorney in Boston was, after all, not a personal triumph of Sanger's, as some anti-Butlerites have said, but really a triumph for the Butlerites and Boutwellites, Boutwell having earnestly begged that Sanger should have his reward, the President being at the moment in the mind to yield to Mr. Hoar's advice and give the office to Judge Devens, an old companion in arms. But Boutwell's urgency broke up this plan. On the whole, then, says a correspondent who ought to be well informed, "my impression is that Butler has now as good a chance to be nominated as Governor Washburn or any other man has, but that this chance will diminish with each succeeding week. Still, there is great apathy among the leading Republicans in all parts of the State. . . . And they may let the nomination go by default."

On the anti-Butler side of the account, certain other considerations are put forward. Nearly all the Boston press—all of it that is of much account—and nine-tenths of the country press, are already outspoken in opposition to Butler. The *Advertiser* speaks of receiving "assurances from all parts of the State that its name must be kept exalted and pure." For this and other reasons it expresses a confidence equal to the *Journal's* that Butler is certainly doomed to disappointment, and that the political prospect is perfectly satisfactory. The various Republican State Conventions recently held have, with one accord, denounced the Salary Bill, which Butler and his yoke-fellow, Senator Carpenter, uphold and applaud, and in particular the Maine Convention (understood to be speaking for the adroit Mr. Blaine) has very pointedly declared that the bill must be repealed. Thus, then, whether the Worcester Convention, nominating Butler, approves or condemns the bill, Butler is hurt by its action. Furthermore, Butler has within the past few days been publicly upbraided in a United States Court, by a well-known Republican, as having been thievish while in command at the South. Altogether, the contemplation of these pros and cons is rather a melancholy task, and is not made less so that the two parties of reform—the temperance men and the labor reformers—are understood to be quite as fond of Butler as of any other candidate. Outside of the State the Democratic press appears to think that Butler is a candidate about good enough for his party, and that it is a piece of impudence for the Republicans now to undertake to condemn the back-pay bill which they themselves passed. There is, indeed, a certain amount of what may be called dilatory prudence in it; but these Democratic journals say nothing of the relative honesty of the Democratic and Republican members in that transaction.

It will be recollected that the question of the reading of the Bible in the public schools came up some three or four years ago in Cincinnati, and made a great stir, the population of the city being, we think, not very unevenly divided in opinion. The action of the Board of Education was to issue two rules, of which the first declared that "the true object and intent of the rule is to enable the children of all sects and opinions in matters of faith and practice to enjoy alike the benefits of the school fund"; and the mandatory part of the rule was to the effect that "religious instruction and the reading of religious books, including the Holy Scriptures, are prohibited in the schools of Cincinnati." The second obnoxious rule repealed so much of another rule as directed that the opening exercise in all the intermediate and district schools should be the reading of a portion of the Bible. These rules were naturally displeasing to many persons, and legal steps were taken to overthrow the action of the Board. The Superior Court of Cincinnati being applied to, made perpetual an order enjoining the Board and restraining it from carrying the rules into effect. Ever since then this decree of injunction has been before the Supreme Court of the State, and that Court has now removed the injunction, and the Board's order stands. It is not true, however, that the whole question known as "the Bible in the Cincinnati schools" was before the Supreme Bench. How far it was before them their decision makes plain: The reading of the Bible in the schools is one of two things—a mere exercise in reading from a text-book, as from McGuffey's 'Readers,' or else it is a religious exercise, a mode or form of worship. Now, if it be the first, the Board's authority is paramount, and not to be controlled by any court; if exercised rashly or otherwise badly, the people have the remedy in their own hands, and can elect a new Board. If, however, the Board orders the reading as a religious exercise, and some taxpayer objects on the ground that one of his rights are invaded, why, then the question will be before the judicial tribunals for decision. We may well believe that it will be no easy one to decide. Meantime, for the benefit of the sticklers on either side, we may point out that Protestants can no more make a history or a philosophy, or perhaps a reading-book, for a certain large section of their fellow-citizens, than they can translate the

Bible for them after a satisfactory fashion, or so read it as to please them. The matter is a deep one, which merely issuing school rules is not going to settle finally, and all parties may as well consider carefully what ground they will take, and why.

The law of libel in Pennsylvania is such as to imbue the mind of the Philadelphia journalist with caution, it being very like the law that found so much favor in the eyes of Mr. Oakey Hall a year or so ago, and it has been reserved for a New York paper, the *Times*, to print some exposures of the Philadelphia Rings. This class of exposures have lost most of their power to startle the American mind, inured as it is to rings; but these exposures, notwithstanding, are not less than horrible. As a brief indication of the whole state of things in the second city of the Union, we may say that public opinion and the popular will have now almost nothing at all to do with the selection of officers in Philadelphia, and that the Philadelphia leaders pretty much rule not only the city but the whole State. "We don't care a damn who is elected; we are going to count our man in," are words actually used last year by one of these men when he was told that Hartranft would be beaten, and no one doubts that the counters lived up to the spirit and letter of the words when the October count was made. "We did do the thing pretty rough last October," was the remark made the other day to the *Times* correspondent by one of the Ring officials, himself, it is freely charged, holding office through fraud. How they have been able to tie the city hand and foot in this manner was that, by their influence at Harrisburg, they passed through the Legislature a special election law for the government of elections in Philadelphia. In the rest of the State, the judges of election are chosen under the system of minority representation; by the special law, the judges of election in Philadelphia were to be the city aldermen.

A Philadelphia alderman may be described as an excessively noisome politician, whose sole function, outside of practical politics in his ward, is that of a justice of the peace. He is not at all a legislator, as a New York or Boston alderman is. His legal fees as justice amount to little; he can only desire his office for the sake of its illegal fees and its political influence over "roosters," "strikers," and other politicians of similar grade; and he is in practice apt to be a ruffian, capable of any and all sorts of violence and cheating. This he performs by using every art of Tammany, from bloodshed and illegal arrest on election day to ballot-box stuffing and ballot-burning and falsifying the count of votes in all ways conceivable. Among the results of his rule and that of his employers have been the "magnificent majorities" which Philadelphia has rolled up whenever they were required, and as high up as they were required to be rolled; the enormous increase of the city's expenses and debts, so that while our New York Ring's plunder was estimated as equal to a mortgage of 7.02 per centum on the total value of the real estate of the city, the like mortgage in Philadelphia's case is 10.06 per cent.; the deep corruption of the various branches of the municipal and State governments; the prostitution of the Federal patronage; even such degradation as that of the pardoning power when Marcer, City Treasurer, prosecuted into the penitentiary by the Citizens' Reform Association, was promptly pardoned out. The Rings' latest victory was the easy nomination of their candidates last week—a nomination equivalent, doubtless, to an election, if, as they say, they are ready to give 60,000 majority against the constitutional convention's work in case it should prove unsatisfactory.

We cannot say that as yet we see much that is encouraging in the proceedings of the Farmers. They have held several conventions, and succeeded in electing a judge pledged in advance to decide railroad cases against the law, though there seems to be some doubt whether his election is not entirely satisfactory to at least one of the principal railroads within the jurisdiction of his court. They have secured the passage of a freight law, without knowing at all whether it will be advantageous or injurious to them, and they have given but few signs as yet that they have any idea of the connection between free trade and transportation. Moreover, all their proceedings have been founded upon a belief in a sheer fallacy, that equal charges must be fair charges. The farmer's argument that, if a railroad company charges a dollar for carrying a package a given distance, and a dollar and a quarter for carrying the same package to a different point half as far away, it thereby commits an injustice, is sheer absurdity. It would seem to be obvious, if it were not so evident that it is by no means obvious, that rates of freight do not depend on distance, but on the amount of business done in proportion to the expense of carriage. Between competing points and to and from large cities, the large business makes the rates low; between other points, the light business makes them high. To take distance as an invariable standard is to mistake the character of the whole question. The transportation tax can only be levied by experts, and as yet the farmers have not only not summoned experts to assist them, but spend their time passing resolutions and electing candidates in a blind, passionate sort of way, as if they considered that the matter was beyond the pale of rational argument altogether.

A correspondent writes to us to say that we are making grave mistakes about the farmers, and do not seem to be "working any nearer the truth with the lapse of time." The indiscreet proceedings of some of the agitators ought not, he says, to be cast in the teeth of the good farmers. The bad farmers, it seems, control the organizations which wish to "reverse the Supreme Court"; the good farmers all naturally enough belong to good associations. Of course, we may make mistakes, writing at this distance from the field, but to the Eastern spectator it looks very much as if the difficulty with the good farmers was that they themselves are being "run" just now by the bad farmers. A league has also been formed in Kansas, which is said to have ramifications in Nebraska, Iowa, and Missouri, and to be "making headway" in Texas, Illinois, Indiana, and Ohio. This, too, is a secret body, and has for its primary object "the repudiation of the railroad bonds issued by various county, town, and municipal governments throughout the Northwestern States, and the seizure and common division of lands that have been granted away to corporations by the United States Congress." A membership of 260,000 is "claimed," and the temper of these 260,000 is said to be as revolutionary as their plan of action is comprehensive. One of them is reported to have used this language: "We have arms; we will have justice—peaceably if we can, but we will have it by force of arms if we must." This "League of Justice," as it is called, is in reality probably confined to Kansas, where there has been for some years trouble between one of the railroads and a number of squatters. The dispute is one as to title, and no doubt the squatters would be glad enough to organize a new party on the merits. The membership of 260,000 and the rest of the story seem as yet open to considerable doubt.

College commencements being at full flood just now, the newspapers contain a great deal of educational suggestion of which most that is valuable is embodied in speeches by the chosen orators before societies and the elder alumni at dinners, and a little is to be found in the editorial performances of gentlemen and ladies in the newspapers. To these latter might be commended a very just remark by ex-President Woolsey of Yale. Of a college course he said—and he had in mind the American college, as we have all known it for the last quarter of a century—the valuable fruits are three: character, culture, and knowledge, of which character is best worth having, culture second in rank, and knowledge third. And by separating culture from knowledge, and giving it a higher place, he meant, it would seem, that though the young bachelors have in fulness of defect the little Latin and less Greek which every July so much amuses the young editors and editresses, they nevertheless in acquiring and forgetting this lore have made an acquisition of a value hardly to be overestimated. In this there is no doubt a vast deal of generally unsuspected truth. At Harvard, before the Phi Beta

Kappa Association, Mr. Charles Francis Adams made an address, all of which was very good reading, but of which the portion chief in interest was his plea for increased facilities in our colleges for the study of oratory, and his estimate of the value of an independent press and of the service which private scholars and thinkers may render the public in its columns. To ex-President Woolsey's writings on the *Alabama* dispute reference was happily made as examples of the kind of work the educated man and the press together should oftener do for the good of the country. An almost chivalrous view of the citizen's duty to the common weal, Mr. Adams set forth with dignity and force. In handling his other subject, that of the teaching of oratory, Mr. Adams was equally decided, beset as it is with difficulties. At Yale, again, Mr. Evarts expressed what we suppose is a pretty widespread feeling, in deploring the existence of so many secret societies, which we apprehend do as much with their wire-pulling and log-rolling to prepare the young men for the corruptions of our politics as ever the brilliant debating did to prepare them for causing the halls of Congress to ring with eloquence. Mr. Evarts hoped better things from the revival of the old open societies—and certainly where they found an Evarts to work upon these probably were a means of good. What they have made in their time of a certain other sort of young men, more numerous, is another matter.

The news from Spain is so full of changes of all sorts that it is hardly worth following. Since the resignation of Figueras, cabinet has succeeded cabinet with great rapidity, the Cortes apparently having confidence in nobody but Pi y Margall, who is always the head of each new combination. Here is the history of the last four weeks. The Cortes which established the "Republic," and was largely composed of experienced and well-known men, resigns, leaving a Permanent Commission to look after the Ministry. There is a "crisis," and the Ministry dissolves the Commission by force of arms, and the Commissioners fly. A new Constituent Cortes assembles, composed of new or obscure men, ignorant of all business. Figueras and Castelar resign, and Pi y Margall is requested to form a Ministry, and does so; the Cortes violently disapproves of his list; he resigns; associated with Castelar and Figueras, he tries again, and again fails; Señor Orense, the President of the Cortes, becomes frightened by the Intransigentes and resigns, and Figueras is asked to form a Ministry, and tries, but is pronounced a dangerous and reactionary man by the Intransigentes, and, finding the Radical mob collecting in great force in the streets, flies, and is next heard of at the French frontier. The Republicans try to get up a new combination under Salmeron, but are scared out of it; the Intransigentes surround the Cortes in arms and arrest General Socias, the Captain-General of Madrid, as a traitor; he clears himself, and they let him loose; Pi y Margall tries again, and gets up a Ministry half Intransigente and half all-sorts, and demands extraordinary powers; the Cortes approves of his Ministry, but says he may form another if he pleases; under this gentle hint, the ministers again resign; Castelar begins to draft a constitution, and Pi y Margall asks for time to form another Ministry, and, being desirous of making a sure thing of it this time, announces that the programme of the new cabinet will be "Liberty, Order, and Justice"; he gets time and forms one, but the Minister of Marine resigns the first day, and the remainder of the list is not confirmed; the Intransigentes threaten to take up arms if the new Ministry does not suit them, and the Cortes has to be guarded by volunteers.

In the meantime, the troops make it lively for the citizens. The inhabitants of Barcelona appear to be engaged in daily conflicts with the garrison of that place. The people of Malaga, on the other hand, have "risen" and killed their mayor, and at the last news the Seville Radicals had barricaded the streets of that city, with the apparent intention of fighting somebody. In the meantime, mutinies occur in various directions. Many of the Spanish generals seem to pass their time flying from their own troops in company with a faithful few. The smallest thing develops a military revolt. The Carlists, too, gain ground; they are increasing in numbers and resources, and are supplying themselves with artillery. They have inflicted at least one telling defeat on General Nouvilas in Navarre, and as they are the only men now in Spain who have leaders whom they trust and obey, and who know exactly what they want, the impression gains ground in Paris and London that we shall see Don Carlos on the throne of Spain by the end of the year. The performances of Pi y Margall of course is throwing the weight of property into the Carlist scale, and giving the Spanish creditors abroad an interest in pushing the Pretender. The last of Pi y Margall's finance ministers, Carvajal, is said to be a Madrid oculist of no great eminence in his own profession. Of the state of the finances nothing, or next to nothing, is known. Nearly all the men of wealth and prominence are now over the frontier in France, waiting to see what will turn up. It seems strange that the new name—"Federal Republic"—does not produce better results.

The French have hardly yet got over the "incident" of the circular to the prefects about the press. M. Beulé, the Minister of the Interior, it appears, knew nothing about it until it had been despatched; it was the composition of M. Pascal, his assistant, who was promptly sacrificed, and sent in his resignation while the debate was going on. It was sent in cipher, but, as eighty prefects received it, why it was expected to be kept a secret is hard to understand. It was, from the liberal and constitutional point of view, a tolerably atrocious document, being neither more nor less than a plan for bribing all the provincial editors; but we doubt if the Right was very much shocked by it, or the Left either. Indeed, we believe the Left would, in power, be harder on the press than the Right. The brief periods of their reign in French history have usually been marked by more arbitrary violence than any other. There were some amusing illustrations of this while Gambetta was reading the document and commenting on it in his best rhetorical manner. Talking of what a dreadful thing it was to suppress the *Corsaire*, a Radical journal, as General L'Admirault has just done, "without bringing the editor or director before a judicial authority," he was suddenly confronted by M. de Cumont—an editor whose paper, the *Journal de l'Ouest*, he had himself suppressed by decree—who jumped up and called out: "That's what you did for me, M. Gambetta!" To this the ex-Dictator could only reply, that he would discuss M. de Cumont's case another time. But there is probably nothing in the whole history of hypocrisy more barefaced than a French Radical's lamentations over disregard of the forms of law. The lamentations are always good, and generally timely, but he is not the man to make them. The Assembly has granted its permission for the prosecution of M. Ranc, the only leading Communist who has thus far escaped. He had some agreement with M. Thiers, the nature of which was never fully understood, by which he has been hitherto held harmless. M. Courbet is also to be held liable pecuniarily for the overthrow of the Vendôme Column, which is not a bad form of retribution. The Ministry has no doubt been damaged by the press circular, but the Assembly passed to "the order of the day, pure and simple" (laid the matter on the table), and it has blown over for the present.

The fall of Khiva has been at last officially announced. The column from Tjakishlar, from which so much was expected, proved a complete failure, having been overpowered by the heat of the desert, and compelled to retrace its steps after having traversed only a third of the distance, and was even obliged to take refuge at Krasnovodsk, north of its starting-point. The main success appears to have been achieved by the column under General Kauffman, which crossed the river at Shurrakan, captured Hasarasp, forty miles from Khiva, pushing the forces of the Khan northward, where they were met and defeated by the Orenburg column under Colonel Lomakine, after which there was nothing for it but flight or surrender. The Khan is said to have made his escape.

THE SPANISH PROBLEM.

THE news from Spain, which we have imperfectly summed up in another column, becomes more and more interesting, from the close resemblance of many of the leading features of the crisis to those of the first French Revolution. In both cases we have a people who for centuries have regulated their lives by loyalty to the king and church, released completely from allegiance to both, and left to discover, as best they may, some other object of homage or basis of polity. In France, the process of liberation, though long preparing, was attended with great violence, mainly owing to a kind of delirium produced in the popular mind by extravagant expectations as to the results of the change. The experience of eighty years of revolutions, in all parts of the world, combined with greater sobriety of temperament, prevents the Spaniards from going into any of the ecstasies which attended the overthrow of the French monarchy, besides which, the nation has been relieved of its old bonds, little by little, by a long series of convulsions. Kings, nobles, and priests have passed half a century in losing their hold on the popular respect and affection, and the army has taken just as long to secure the control of the government. So that, when at last all attempt to preserve either the monarchy or the state church is given up, and the nation is fairly launched on the ocean of experiment, even without military restraint, the process is a much less frightful one than that which France witnessed between 1789 and 1795.

Nevertheless, we have many of the most striking traits of the French crisis. The great nobles and generals and leading politicians all connived at the overthrow of the monarchy, in the person of Amadeus, and all doubtless believed firmly that they would be able, if they were obliged to establish a republic, to establish one of which they would have the direction. The Cortes which proclaimed it indeed contained a large proportion of whatever political talent and experience Spain possessed. But the Republic was hardly set up when the revolutionary sieve began to work in the old French fashion. The Commission which the Cortes appointed to superintend the Ministry during the recess was soon dissolved by violence, and the members forced to fly for their lives at the dictation of an armed mob, and the Ministry left to reign supreme. When the new or Constituent Cortes was elected, it contained hardly any of the old members, and was composed in the main of obscure men, the notables of the Radical clubs or the more violent and outspoken local demagogues. For them even the compliant and hopeful Castelar and Figueras were too easy-going, so they were driven out of office, and a new idol set up in their stead in the person of Pi y Margall; but after three or four attempts he found himself unable to form a cabinet to please his masters, as the Red element—or, in other words, the more ignorant and violent—insisted on a larger share in the administration than even he could face. At the present writing, the news is that the next stage has been entered on, by the attempt of the armed clubs to withdraw the formation of the cabinet from the control of the legislature altogether, and assume it themselves, rifle in hand. Of a piece with this is the news that Figueras also has been obliged to fly as over-moderate, and every student of French history will find many of his recollections freshened by learning that Castelar, the eloquent orator and friend of humanity, with large expressive eyes, is busy in his modest apartment, amid all this tumult, in drafting a constitution. He is working at it as diligently as if it were a magazine article, and indeed we need have no hesitation in predicting for it a sale of several editions. It is noteworthy, too, that each successive attempt of Pi y Margall's to frame an administration results in the appearance on the surface of men less known to fame, until at last the most disordered national finances in Europe are put in charge of a Madrid oculist. The picture is completed, and most of its lessons enforced, by the collection on the French frontier as *émigrés* of nearly all the leading men of Spain—soldiers, politicians, financiers, and nobles—where they are hatching plots, some in the interest of Don Carlos and some of a military dictatorship under Serrano; and, to crown all, the army is gradually breaking up into disorderly and dangerous mobs, against which the citizens have to defend themselves sword in hand. The proceedings of the Cortes, too, consist mainly of the proposal of schemes of reform of the most sweeping character, in which not only the national traditions, but vested interests of all kinds, are treated as nullities, and yet through which there runs that vein of lofty humanitarian indifference to material surroundings which gave a certain sublimity to the maddest freaks of the French Terrorists.

If, however, we attempt to predict the future course of the Spanish Revolution by reference to that of France, we find that the element which undoubtedly saved France from prolonged anarchy, and preserved her nationality in full vigor, and enabled her eighty years later to astonish the world by the splendid display of recuperative power which we are to-day witnessing, is wanting in the Spanish problem. Order was evoked out of chaos in France, the altar of duty and self-sacrifice again set up, the habit of co-operation restored, and the sense of national pride roused and cherished, by the attack of the Allies. The threat of foreign invasion for the purpose of undoing all that had been done, touched the popular heart, and made the reorganization of the army, the revival of discipline, and the establishment of the conscription possible. Military success did the rest. The gigantic wars of the Empire, following on the heroic wars of the Republic, during which the French standards entered every Christian capital on the European Continent, made the humblest peasant proud of being a Frenchman and eager to share in the national efforts. It made military obedience and military valor substitutes for the old loyalty and religion, and they, if not the highest form of moral stimulus, at least took men out of their petty personal concerns, raised their eyes beyond the boundaries of their farm or shop, and supplied them with an ideal of life in which death at the call of others played a prominent and glorious part. This was undoubtedly a barbarous mode of resuscitation, but it sufficed. It saved French society, reorganized it, and gave it something in the nature of a soul, and gave France an army of which that last and worst thing has never yet been said—that it would not obey its officers.

All this is so far lacking in Spain. Europe looks coldly and jeeringly on at Spanish troubles, and no more thinks of meddling in them than of paying her national debt. The Carlists, who are now slowly winning their way to the capital, are Spaniards, and apparently the most enthusiastic, believing, and energetic Spaniards to be found, and there seems to be no such zeal for the Republic as to make their presence or their success unendurable to the mass of the people; if there were, they must have been driven from Spanish soil months ago. From what quarter Spanish deliverance is to come it is therefore hard to see; most probably, from the frantic eagerness for quiet and security which a prolonged experience of disorder is sure to breed at last in every civilized people which has ever tasted these blessings. The various experiments of the Irreconcilables must work themselves out before long, and then, if Don Carlos has not already seized the crown, some means will be found, under the guidance of the social instinct, if of nothing else, of arming the government, whatever it may be, with the power of giving its commands the force of laws, and of fulfilling the first of its duties. But, then, this view does not carry us very far into the future.

THE PROPER STUDY OF MANKIND.

AS is natural and proper, we engage every year at this period in vigorous discussion of the subject of collegiate education. Some hundreds of speeches are delivered, and some hundreds of articles written about it, apropos of several dozen of college commencements. There is, of course, the usual amount of doubting on the part of "practical men" as to whether a young man gains anything by going to college. Look at Jones, they say, the successful broker, and Smith, the great railroad operator, and Brown, the distinguished politician—none of them ever went to college, and yet see how happy and successful they are. For a long while "the practi-

cal men" had the collegians ranged against them in a solid body. But of late years they have been reinforced by men who set a high value on education, and especially on college education, who do think that four or five years may be better spent in a university than in an office or store, but who maintain that the kind of education universities impart is not the right kind; that, in short, it is by far too literary, and ought to be wholly or mainly scientific; that time spent in learning what dead men have said is well-nigh wasted; and that what we need to study is nature—her laws and processes. Astronomy, geology, chemistry, botany, physiology, biology, should occupy a young man's mind in his early years. It is from studies of this kind that he will really learn to observe, to reason, and to be happy by adapting himself to his surroundings. Literature he had better let alone. The only solid thing in the whole range of human perception is natural science, the only thing that does not deceive and lead astray. It teaches us to prolong life, to avoid disease, to multiply the sources of human comfort and safety. The reply of the collegians to these assaults has been becoming yearly more feeble. Some of them still maintain as stoutly as ever that the study of literature is as good a means of mental discipline as any other, but the main body have been resigning themselves year by year, some sadly, some hopefully, to the infusion of a larger and larger proportion of science into college training; and the spectacle of their retreat is at this moment filling thousands of minds all over the country with a vague expectation of wonderful changes in human society, as the result of the irruption of large bodies of young men and women into laboratories and museums.

Now, we are not going at this time of day to question the claims of scientific men on the gratitude of mankind. We all know what they have done for the world within the last two centuries. It is useless, too, to deny the value of scientific education as a means of cultivating the observing and reasoning faculties. There has been a great deal said on these points by ardent votaries of nature, and most of it is true, but there is much of it that needs limitation and qualification; and we are reminded by some of the suggestions in Mr. Adams's speech the other day at Harvard of the great one-sidedness into which many of us have been led in our theories of education, by the passionate propagandism in which some of the followers of Huxley and Tyndall have of late years indulged. It is assumed in nearly all that many of them say about education, that it is with nature only that man has to struggle in the pursuit of happiness, and that if he can only discover what to eat, drink, and avoid, how mines may best be worked, and crops raised, and distance traversed, and storms foreseen, and the state of the markets transmitted, he will have solved the problem of living. This view has naturally been a very taking one, and has during the last thirty years made a strong impression on the popular mind, so well has it fallen in with the prevailing tastes and tendencies. It furnished to a commercial age exactly what it needed to give it peace of mind and self-respect, by making it appear that the development of material resources was man's great work on earth and the one for which his youth should be passed in preparing.

It now begins to be discovered, however, that no matter how successful we may be in wresting her secrets from nature, or how familiar we make ourselves with her processes, or however conscientiously we may adapt our lives to her requirements, the best scientific education after all only half fits us for the battle of life, and for the simple reason that the battle has to be fought not only with hard, inexorable physical surroundings, but with very troublesome and mysterious social surroundings. In other words, in making a career we have to deal with our brother man as well as with earth and air and water. Let us mine never so successfully, we have to settle with the crowd at the mouth of the shaft before we can carry home our earnings. Let us manufacture never so deftly, we have to establish a rule of distribution before our science or our dexterity does us any good. Let us build railroads as we may, we have to come to an agreement as to who shall work them, and what he shall receive, before they profit us. Heat and light and electricity and steam are great monarchs, but they cannot raise us out of grovelling barbarism, unless we can come to some understanding with our neighbors as to the ends and modes of living. The study of man, therefore, is really the most important of all studies, and must always continue to be so. Nothing can take its place in any curriculum. People must learn how to live in society before they can get any lasting benefit from science, and before they can have and retain anything worth the name of art; and this they cannot do without observing human nature as it is, and without making themselves acquainted with the past experience of the race.

Now the past experience of the race is found in literature, and languages, and laws, and monuments, or, in other words, in things of which our physicists are apt to make light, but to the diligent study of which, nevertheless, physicists are largely indebted for their existence and their influence; and it can hardly be denied that what we are suffering from in this country just now is rather too little study of man's doings and too great study of nature's. For want of even a passable acquaintance with human experience, our legislation is a mass of folly and blunderings. History and political economy and jurisprudence are neither more nor less than a catalogue of the results of experiments in living made by many generations of men, which the art of writing has preserved for our benefit; but to two-thirds of our legislators they are sealed books. People would laugh mightily if Mr. Boutwell were to say he cared nothing about Euclid and the 'Principia' and would not read them, and could get up a geometry and astronomy of his own; but how many laugh when he says there is no science of finance or political economy, or, in other words, that the attempts made by a hundred generations to hit upon the best methods of producing and exchanging and managing corporate revenues, contain neither warning nor instruction for the inhabitants of the town of Groton?

The fact is that scientific education, as the phrase is usually employed, has been rather overdone than neglected; we do not mean in colleges simply, but in society at large. We have been devoting ourselves too much to the extraction of comfort from natural laws to the neglect of our social relations, and the consequence has been a decline in the art of government, which begins already to inflict paralysis on our material industry. Scientists are very valuable, but they are neither jurists nor administrators, and jurists and administrators are not made by laboratories or museums, but by the diligent study of man, both past and present. Far from occupying themselves too much with what "dead men" have said and done, colleges do not, in our opinion, occupy themselves nearly enough. If they do not manage to put our young men more thoroughly in possession of the efforts, failures, and successes of our forefathers, in *all* fields of human activity, we shall find our scientific achievements at the present day taking more and more of the character of Dead-Sea fruit, and shall ourselves more and more sink into the position of well-fed operatives, superintended and paid by luxurious sharpers. It is well to know how the orbit of the planets was discovered, how the binomial theorem was worked out, and how the constitution of the sun was revealed; but all this is useless, or will prove so before long, unless we know also by what struggles and devices and labors we, "the heirs of all the ages," have come to be what we are; by what arts nations have been built up and maintained; by what passions, and hopes, and fears, and aspirations, and temptations the generations that have gone before us have been sustained or harassed in their brief march through the sunlight.

It has to be remembered, too, that there is growing up about scientific education a considerable amount of the cant by which classical education was once surrounded. It is not possible to give to the great mass of boys who go to college anything that can be called a knowledge of science. A smattering of the rudiments is all that the great majority can bring away with them, under any system of teaching. In days when the greatest philosophers confess their inability to explore even one small field in the great domain of nature, there is something almost ludicrous in the pictures which are

occasionally drawn of the advantages which would result to the world if boys and girls would only work in a laboratory, or geologize, or botanize between the ages of eighteen and twenty-two. The fruitful toilers in scientific fields must always be exceedingly few in number, and the great mass of men, college-bred as well as others, must always be content to take on trust what these few tell them. The very most that schools and universities can hope to do for the main body of their pupils is to familiarize them with scientific modes of reasoning, and this work is being already done by popular literature almost as efficiently as any college can do it. In short, one has only to look around at the condition of the modern world, at Spain, France, England, and our own country, and to consider the nature of the problems that press on us for solution, to be satisfied that the most thoroughly *practical* education at this moment, that for which society calls most loudly, is one which will best fit young men to aid in the adjustment of human relations, and in preventing the social machinery from shaking itself to pieces. Savages have corn, and wine, and oil, and iron; the use of civilization is to enable us to eat and drink in peace and thankfulness.

ENGLAND.

London, June 13, 1873.

THE subject which ostensibly excites the greatest interest at the present moment is our expected visit from the Shah of Persia. I sincerely hope that our distinguished visitor does not read English, and that his interpreters make a careful selection of newspaper articles for his edification, otherwise I fear that he will come to the conclusion that the British public regards him from a distinctly comic point of view. He is, of course, to be received with all due ceremonies, and we are to show him our very prettiest toys, but somehow we cannot quite suppress our sense of the ludicrous. We are doubtless very wrong, but we cannot help it. The gorgeous costume of an Eastern monarch is in every way more becoming than the black hats and frock-coats of European usage; but nobody could walk down the Strand in such a costume without exciting the jeers of the street-boys, and there is something of the street-boy even in respectable journalists. It should be rather piteous and pathetic than absurd to watch the representative of an ancient civilization, bewildered, like an owl in daylight, by the clamors of our restless and ungracious crowds. Unluckily, few people have much delicacy of feeling. They twitch the poor old monarch by the beard (metaphorically speaking, of course), slap him on the back, and tell him with sufficient plainness that he is a useless and ridiculous old object, whose best chance for continued existence is to become our humble servant and imitator. Perhaps, as a matter of taste, one would wish that such poetical figures might always be surrounded by an atmosphere of appropriate associations; they look better in the twilight of the East than in the broad commonplace glare of Berlin and London, and, in short, commit as great a fault as a ghost who should show himself in the muddy streets instead of confining himself to his haunted mansion. Meanwhile, writers of leading articles are studying their encyclopædias, and filling themselves with an appropriate armory of allusions from the 'Arabian Nights,' and we hope that they will indulge as little as possible the insulting curiosity of the coarser kind.

The Shah, however, and his experiences here may be left to the imagination of your readers. If they wish for full particulars, couched in glowing language, they may turn to the *Daily Telegraph*, which will doubtless adorn its pages with gems of rhetoric calculated to harmonize with the Shah's diamond-covered coats. I turn to a more commonplace subject. The Parliamentary session is dragging itself along with less than the ordinary excitement. This Parliament, in fact, is running to seed, and showing the decrepitude which heralds a speedy dissolution. And yet one can hardly regret the circumstance. If Mr. Gladstone had succeeded in passing his bill for the Irish University, we should have had a much more amusing series of incidents. There would have been vehement protests on all sides and appeals to popular indignation, and the House of Lords would have once more undergone the process of being bullied into submission. All that trouble has been saved, at the price, it is true, of leaving a very awkward question still unsettled. But then, we have really some compensation in the fact that we seem to have a chance of passing at least one useful bit of legislation. Owing to the absence of other excitement, the Judicature Bill seems to be making fair headway, and to be destined to pass without serious mutilation. English law is a subject upon which it is so difficult for a layman to speak without falling into some grotesque blunder that it seldom attracts much popular interest. By an unlucky combination of circumstances, the evil tends to propagate itself. We know in a general way that some reform is much needed; that some kind of simplification might be effected if our leaders would only make up their minds to set honestly to work; and that an immense saving of money, labor, and time might be effected. But then, if the complexity of our system is a reason for demanding reform, it supplies also a reason for warning off all popular reformers. One must possess so much technical knowledge before one can speak with authority upon the subject, that agitators prefer to take to some easier and more telling subject of popular declamation. It sometimes seems as if we should have to wait until enough grievances had been accumulated to produce not a reform but a summary revolution. As, however, for the moment the more exciting topics have passed out of discussion, some attention has really been devoted to passing a measure which will effect a considerable improvement, and, it is hoped, lead the way to more. The consolidation of the various courts, the abolition of the chief part of the appellate jurisdiction of the House of Lords, the introduction of a uniform system of procedure, are considerable steps, which will help towards the amalgamation of law and equity, and ultimately, it may be hoped, to a coherent system of codification. A great deal of jealousy has, of course, been excited upon particular questions, and long controversies have been carried on between common-law and chancery barristers. Still, if we cannot quite say that the unanimity of the lawyers is wonderful, it is more than we had any right to expect; and the fag end of the session will be turned to good account by the passage of a measure of reform far wider and more complete than any which has been proposed for many years. I am indeed quite incompetent to express any judgment as to the details of the measure under discussion, and I profess only to repeat what seems to be the general opinion on the subject. Whether the bill be or be not satisfactory, one is at least glad to see Parliament occasionally occupied upon a serious measure of reform which is not dictated to it by the pressure of speeches from the hustings.

It is not very likely that this comparative freedom from legislation of the sensational kind will long be preserved. More exciting matters are in the background. The old educational quarrel, for example, has by no means finally died out, and Mr. Forster made a statement last night which was far from satisfying his opponent. The conflict of opinion grows more irreconcilable, if not actually warmer. The school-boards created by Mr. Forster's act have built schools enough to supply a large proportion of the existing deficiency, if only the children could be coerced or persuaded to enter them. Unluckily, this is just where the difficulty occurs. Many of the school-boards have made laws for the attendance of the children, and more or less effect has been produced. But, then, if poor children are forced into school, their fees must be paid for them; as they cannot be forced into a school where an obnoxious religion is taught, their parents must be allowed to choose for them, and thus denominational schools will in one form or other receive assistance from the rates. This is the result which the Dissenters and Secularists cannot digest. The Church of England having long had possession of the ground, most children would naturally go to Church of England schools, and thus, undoubtedly, the Church would support its school system by the help of the state. How far this is any great grievance, or a grievance for which it is worth while seriously to obstruct the working of the act, is a point upon which there is an interminable controversy; and each party accuses the other of intolerance and indifference to our educational necessities. Mr. Forster is doomed to attempt the thankless task of satisfying both parties; and, as it seems practically impossible to devise any system which shall hold the balance perfectly even between the rival sects, and as they cry out indignantly at the slightest real or supposed tendency of the balance in either direction, the chances of his giving universal satisfaction are very small. At present, the League, which represents the Dissenters, is in a very discontented state, and the small bid which he made for their support last night seems doomed to a contemptuous rejection.

The danger, however, of alienating the Dissenters and the Secularists, though it may be serious enough in regard to the interests of the ministry, is comparatively insignificant. People are slightly tired of these educational squabbles for the moment, and are inclined to think that reformers might spend their energies in a more practical direction than in wrangling over the precise set of dogmas to be taught to children who, for the most part, are and will probably remain indifferent to all dogmas whatever. The more threatening difficulty is that connected with the labor question. The performance of the Chipping-Norton magistrates has excited a great amount of bitterness. The punishment inflicted was not very severe, but the circumstances were unfortunately picturesque. There is something unpleasant in the spectacle of a couple of clergymen sending a lot of ignorant women to prison, not for actual violence, but for protesting against the supplanting of their husbands by other laborers. A country squire might be pardoned for an over-zealous vin-

dication of the rights of his class; but the clergy are in theory at least the protectors of the poor, and should be the last to give a harsh interpretation even to necessary laws. A good deal of indignation has therefore naturally been expended upon the magistrates, and upon clerical magistrates in general. There is, however, a still stronger feeling behind. The more vehement Radicals declare that the clergy have indeed acted badly enough in this case, but that they have only done what judges of greater name and of more legal training have done before. According to such agitators, the Chipping-Norton magistrates are being unfairly made into scapegoats for the sins of their superiors. The attempt to rouse indignation aginst a clerical magistracy is an attempt to turn a righteous indignation upon a false scent. The true grievance is not that clergymen should have inflicted a trivial though an unjust punishment in a particular case, but that the law should allow such punishment to be inflicted in any case. The injury done to the women in Chipping-Norton was trifling compared to the injury inflicted upon the gas-stokers, on whom Mr. Justice Brett imposed a sentence of twelve months' imprisonment. It is therefore demanded that the law which enables laborers to be imprisoned for a breach of contract should be summarily repealed. Mr. Frederick Harrison, who is the ablest spokesman of the agitators, maintains that the existing law is grievously unjust in its operations. A working-man who refuses to fulfil his contract is summarily imprisoned; a master would, in the same case, escape with a fine. The answer, of course, is easily given. The law, it is replied, is really impartial, and workmen are more frequently punished than masters simply because they more frequently break the law. It would be equally plausible to say that a law against petty larceny was unfair because it generally affects poor men instead of men with plenty of money in their pockets. Imprisonment is often the only punishment which can be inflicted upon a man who lives from hand to mouth, and is therefore fitly employed against a poor man when it would be unduly severe against a rich man. Whatever the justice of such arguments and of the controversy as to the working of the law of conspiracy, it is plain that such questions occupy a much larger space in the mind of the working-man than purely political debates in which he has no immediate concern. There is a natural feeling that very little has been done by the Liberal Government for the benefit of the working-classes whose votes brought them into power. The disestablishment of the Irish Church, the alteration of the land-laws, and the abolition of purchase may have been very good things in themselves, but they have only the most indirect influence upon the comfort of the English laborer. Consequently, a great many of the laboring class are beginning to ask whether a Whig is a much better ruler than a Tory; and whether they should not force upon the next Parliament a very different order of questions from those with which its predecessor has been occupied. The working-man, in fact, holds that, though he has a vote, he has as yet had very little influence upon legislation, and that a more thoroughgoing change is required than has yet been effected. The consequences of such a feeling generally diffused through the large centres of population are difficult to calculate. This only may be said, that, considering how many bitter struggles between laborers and capitalists are spreading over the country, we may not improbably be on the eve of social agitations of a serious character. The immediate effect in the political world is a sense of general uncertainty. Though Mr. Gladstone has never shown greater ability than in the present session, his hold on the country has certainly not gained in strength, and Liberal agents speak with ominous forebodings of a probable loss of seats at the next elections sufficient effectually to turn the tables. After the long possession of power by their party, a short stay on the Opposition benches might possibly convert the present leaders to views more in harmony with the extreme wing of their nominal supporters. But it is useless to speculate on these remoter problems.

Notes.

DR. KONER'S annual list of geographical publications, of all kinds, from November, 1871, to December, 1872, appears in No. 42 of the Journal of the Berlin Geographical Society (New York: L. W. Schmidt). It occupies nearly 100 pages. Petermann's *Mittheilungen* for May 26 gives a railroad and steamboat map of the German Empire and adjacent countries.

—A number of guide-books appropriate to the season lie upon our table. Mr. Henry Morford's 'Short-Trip Guide to Europe' (New York: Sheldon & Co.) offers, in a very frank and even blunt way, and with a wholesome disregard of the susceptibilities of a certain class of American tourists, much sound advice. The edition for 1873 has been revised chiefly with reference to the Vienna Exposition, but we cannot say that it has been particularly well done. The editor shared the common hope, rather than belief, when he wrote (p. 212 *b*): "There is no doubt that in the ability and energy of Gen. Thos. B. Van Buren, the U. S. Commissioner-General to the Exposition, all American interests entrusted to his hands will find the best attention." A pretty full list of the American exhibitors is given, and a political and commercial map of Europe accompanies the volume. For Vienna, and for much of the route thither, Mr. C. W. De Bernardy's 'Hand-book to Vienna and the Exposition' (Philadelphia: Porter & Coates) will prove more useful than the foregoing. It gives railway distances and fares, names the best hotels, and the *personnel* of the American consulate in each place. The annexed plan of Vienna seems to have been rendered indistinct by reduction from the original. 'The Atlantic Coast Guide' (New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.) professes to be a companion for the tourist between Newfoundland and Cape May. From Newport, south, however, it is quite perfunctory, the editor being at his best in the more northern waters, of which he speaks from personal experience. The chapter on the Isles of Shoals compares very favorably with Mr. J. Scribner Jenness's 'Historical Sketch' of the same islands (New York: Hurd & Houghton) in its gleanings from the old records of this interesting group. It is the most elaborate in the book, that on Grand Menan being next in fulness of treatment. Mr. John B. Bachelder's 'Gettysburg: What to see and how to see it' (New York: Lee, Shepard & Dillingham), we judge answers well the needs of the visitor to that epochal battle-field; but the gain in clearness would have been very great if the mostly worthless and meaningless "illustrations" had given place to a few diagrams explaining the features of each of the three days' fighting. Mr. John E. Lester's 'The Atlantic to the Pacific' (Boston: Shepard & Gill) is composed of letters to a Providence newspaper, and is a very dry and unimaginative account of the trip to and from the Pacific Coast. However, a "dry" light is sometimes best for seeing things as they are, and this may so far compensate for the lack of Mr. Nordhoff's rosy enthusiasm. After all, we doubt if the book has a sufficient *raison d'être*. We may include in the category of guide-books Dr. Geo. E. Walton's 'Mineral Springs of the United States and Canada' (New York: D. Appleton & Co.) and Dr. J. J. Moorman's 'Mineral Springs of North America' (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.), especially the former, which indicates routes and hotels. The comparative medical value of these works we will not undertake to determine. Both are well provided with maps, Dr. Moorman's also with lithographic views of several resorts. The latter uses a geographical, Dr. Walton a therapeutic, classification; and Dr. Moorman is most at home when treating of the Virginia springs, to which more than half his book is devoted.

—The third volume of the Ninth Census deals with the statistics of agriculture, manufactures, mining, and fisheries, and also exhibits tables of wealth, taxation, and public indebtedness, and of occupations. The several prefaces to these topics are distinguished by nothing more than the perfect frankness with which the Superintendent points out the defects of the enumeration, and condemns the law to which most of them are attributable. Thus, in his remarks on the tables of Manufacturing Industry, he declares that "the census returns of capital invested in manufactures are entirely untrustworthy and delusive"; and further, "It is a pity, and may almost be said to be a shame, that statistical information, in many respects of high authority and accuracy, should be discredited by association with statements so flagrantly false, even to the least critical eye." This is refreshing talk from a Government official, and it is to be hoped that our Congressmen may have the benefit of it. But over against the chances of their seeking out in these quarto volumes and studying General Walker's clear, concise, and pithy résumés, there is the chance of none of them being alive or still Congressmen seven years hence, and the likelihood that after vain efforts to get an improved census act we shall fall back upon the imperfect and mischievous statute of 1850. The suggestion has recently been made for England, that a census bureau should be created with a permanent organization, and the reasons in favor of this are so obvious and so obviously applicable to our own case as well as to England's, that we wish active steps might be taken to bring it about. We need not have more frequent censuses, though we might have them if we chose; but our preparation for them would be vastly improved, and the necessary legislation easily obtained. The agricultural statistics in the third volume are illustrated by five shaded and colored charts—of wheat, corn, cotton, hay, and dairy products; and by a large geological map of the United States, folded separately. Minnesota, Iowa, and California are the great wheat-growing States; New York and Vermont lead in dairy products; cotton creeps up into Southeastern Missouri, "Egypt," and Southwestern Missouri, and where its dominion ends that of hay begins.

—In practising the profession of journalism, we have often found it agreeable to cease for a moment from exposing the ignorance and vice of our

fellow-journalists, to turn away also from reading in the columns which those gentlemen control how big a thief and liar conducts this journal, and to direct the eye of the mind on the fair picture of what journalism is going to be by-and-by. Sometimes the limners are "professionals" and perfectly well-known offenders, and sometimes they are laymen; but that makes no difference in the character of the picture. In all cases, the editorial fraternity of the next generation is going to be a wonder. The ransomed saint, when his spirit takes its flight, will not be any nicer nor any wiser than the coming newspaper editor. A Dr. Jackson is the latest of these artists whom we have happened upon. He appears to be a New Yorker, and addresses his work to the editors of the Yonkers *Gazette*, the Le Roy *Gazette*, and the Dansville *Advertiser*. The Doctor says that he who seeks to fill the editorial chair must be a person "who cherishes with great enthusiasm a love for whatever is noble and true." His editorial business, in which he will delight, will be to disseminate "whatever is original in thought, artistic in feeling, catholic in sentiment, powerful in truth, rich in beauty, or divine in genius," and to preach "the elevation of the masses and the good of humanity." Every year he will "pass into higher ranges of knowledge and truth, and occupy advanced positions." And to do this he will not only set forth the true and noble in his newspaper; he will represent them in his daily life But can he do so "while as yet he lives on a plane of habit or of mere physical gratification?" We have found it a rule often holding good, that after we have heard a medical gentleman say as much as we have quoted from Doctor Jackson concerning "the plane of habit" and "the true and the noble," and kindred matters, it is as well to ask him whether he does not wish us to leave off eating meat. We then, without further occupying his valuable time, can let him know what is our practice upon that point, and what it will probably continue to be. Doctor Jackson, observing that "men of thought need mental sublimation," would not allow of our eating "the flesh of animals" except "in emergent circumstances"; the coming editor will feed on "grains in their various preparations, fruits, and the better and more nutritious classes of vegetables." What he will drink is not stated; but not any tea, coffee, light or heavy wines, distilled or fermented liquors. Sun-baths will be good for him, but "he should not go into the woods unless he wishes to pass into revery." If he is a woman, he will not show that "incapacity for extended motherhood" which is now notorious among the female editors and correspondents of the American press; and his children will not exemplify that change "in form of build" in the direction of hydrocephalic indigestion which the Doctor sees in many of "the descendants of the oldest families in our country."

—Mr. Oscar T. Martin, of Springfield, Ohio, "formerly editor of the *Advertiser* of that place," takes, it seems, a different view of the noble profession of journalism from that expressed by the Rev. Robert Collyer and Dr. Jackson. Mr. Collyer recently delivered a sermon on this subject, in which he described the journalist as one who holds the people of America and other countries in the hollow of his hand and moulds them to his will. He sits above, at the centre of thought and intelligence, a sort of *Deus ex typis*; far beneath, busy man, in his constitutional conventions, his legislatures, his halls of Congress, his Boards of Trade, his corporations, his theatres, his music-halls, and his beer-gardens, works out slowly but surely the editorial will. Mr. Martin, however, does not consider this a correct picture, for at a recent journalistic convention held at Columbus he said:

"There is not an editor here or elsewhere who is not writhing in chains, who does not daily choke back sentiments of an honest heart from fear or favor. This is a bitter truth, but none the less truth. The offal that is thrown to you, in the shape of county printing, buys your silence, just as the midnight burglar buys the silence of the faithful watch-dog with meat that is thrown to it. Neither can bark; their mouths are full. You ride free to this convention over the railroad of a corporation notorious for its bad management. A 'complimentary' to the theatre is the paltry price paid for an unfaithful and untrue critique of the performance; and you sell yourself, body and soul, for an infinitesimally less sum than Judas received for the betrayal of his Master. The corrupt award of public contracts, for which the exorbitant bid of a favorite, on slim security, is preferred to the conscientious bid of a master workman, is not exposed by the journal that advertises the bids. The fraud and corruption of your municipal bodies is not unmasked, because you are a member of the ring. You quake with holy horror at the only symptom of virtue manifested by our legislators, in reforming our postal relations, whereby your privileges may be abridged, and break out in bad eruption of double-leaded indignation, with frowning black head-lines, over the salary steal of your poverty-stricken Congressmen. On the title-page of your paper you fly such flaunting lies as 'The freedom of the press is the safeguard of the nation,' 'Truth crushed to earth,' etc., and you prostitute the patriot's motto, 'Give me liberty or give me death.' You are bound hand and foot. The remorseless clamps of clique, party, and corporation hold you fast."

The only notice we have seen taken of this outspoken address is in the columns of a brother journalist of this city, who says that there is one editor in Ohio "justly known as the truly good man," to whom this criticism does not apply. "He never withholds the truth from his readers, and never himself tells anything but the truth, although we grieve to say he sometimes allows the thundering lies which his wicked partners habitually compose to go forth under the sanction of his honored name."

—The Committee appointed by the Bar Association of this city to examine the New York system of law reporting has made an interesting report. There are no less than 348 volumes of reports of cases in this unhappy State (about one-sixth of those of the whole country), and of these 348, a large part, owing to "multiplication of reports of the same case," "indiscriminate publication of whatever is presented," "prolixity," and "reckless reporting," are very worthless. The Committee, noticing one of the well-worn commonplaces of Judge Story, to the effect that even in 1821 "the danger seemed to be, not that we shall want able reports, but that we shall be overwhelmed by their number and variety," says that,

"If anything could draw the spirit of the great commentator back to the earth, it might well be a wish to retract his opinion as to the ability of the reporters; and if anything were needed to keep it away, the 2,000 volumes of our decisions might have this effect."

As an illustration of the "multiplication of reports of the same case," the Committee shows that in the volumes of 'Howard's Practice Reports,' from vols. 35 to 43, there are

1	case	which is reported	7	times	in the various reports.
2	cases	are	6	"	" "
7	"	"	5	"	" "
33	"	"	4	"	" "
73	"	"	3	"	" "
109	"	"	2	"	" "

The Committee also says that two-thirds of the cases reported are "worthless," it being the custom of most of the reporters to publish opinions of inferior courts, not only after they have been affirmed by superior courts, in which case they are of little or no value, but also after the judgment has been reversed below. Besides this, we may mention one of their idiosyncrasies which has come under our own notice—a passion for reporting cases involving long and very complicated statements of fact, but containing no new principle of law whatever—the facts generally so complicated that they never can occur a second time, and the law so simple that there was no time within the memory of man when it was not established. Besides this, there is the prolixity of many of the opinions and the interminable delay of the publication of the reports. As an illustration of the character of some of the reports, the Committee refers to the head-note in the People *v.* Parkes, 15 How. Pr. R. 557, which begins, "This little case shows what a justice of the peace can do when he tries," and the disquisition on cider in the foot-note to 19 How. Pr. R. 266. There is also to be found in 20 How. Pr. R. 96, "a letter from a former judge of the Common Pleas to Mr. Howard, acknowledging writing an opinion in the case of Fox *v.* Lewis, but denying that in any sense it resembles the one attributed to him in 19 How. Pr. R. 561. In 16 How. Pr. R. 288 there is a similar letter from a judge of the Supreme Court."

—To explain the causes of this condition of things, the Committee points to the system of reporting now in force—if it can be called a system. There are seven reporters at work in New York, the interest of almost all of whom it is to turn out as many volumes of reports per annum as possible. Some of them are authorized by law; others are volunteers. The result is the existing chaos. The Committee examines the new English system of law reporting—which we have recently discussed—and they lean strongly to the adoption of some such system, though they prefer for the present to circulate their report and receive suggestions on the subject. There is no doubt to our minds that the whole matter of reporting ought to be in the hands of the Bar. The system of State reporting has proved a complete failure, the work, as the Committee truly says, not being of a kind to be well done either by an elective officer, nor by one who, if appointed, goes out of office with changing administrations. On the other hand, the courts ought not to have the appointment, because this makes the reporter necessarily dependent upon the judges whose opinions it is his duty to report without fear or favor. Neither of these objections applies to the superintendence of the work by the Bar, and we trust that the adoption of this method will be recommended by the Bar Association without unnecessary delay. In the only country in which it has been adopted it has proved a great success, while the methods of judicial appointment, and State appointment, and volunteer reporting have all been tried, either in the United States or England, with bad results. The Bar Association have voted to adopt the report and circulate 2,500 copies; the Committee are at a future meeting to report a scheme for the amendment of the present system.

—Urbano Rattazzi, the veteran Italian statesman who passed away on the 5th of June, was buried on the 11th with great circumstance in the

Piedmontese city of Alessandria, his birthplace (1810). Though intensely disliked of late years by the Moderate party in Italy, and though his career as premier is associated with some of the gloomiest events in his country's history—Novara, Aspromonte, Mentana—no one could accuse him of a lack of patriotism, nor deny his great services in promoting the resurrection of Italy. Perhaps his earliest efforts in this direction, when he had Cavour for a colleague and chief, and when his restraining influence was exerted with good effect, were his most useful. As a "precursor" he appeared to better advantage than as a Radical executive, without the well-settled principles and the resolution necessary to the delicate task of government. His admirers say of him, as has been said of Victor Emanuel, of Cavour, of Garibaldi, of Mazzini, that he "made" Italian unity (*ha fatto l'unità d'Italia*). His opponents reply with an anecdote of Manzoni. Mazzini paid him a visit in 1860, and remarked for their common gratulation on the fact that the two had so long (*durante un pezzo*) been the only persons (*noi due soli*) who believed in this unity, and that now they could say that they were right. The poet, in reply, cited the habit of a chilly friend who, at the first frost in September, used to declare it was going to snow; this he would repeat through each succeeding month, till along in January or February sure enough down would come a heavy snow, and the prophet would exclaim: I told you it was going to! In other words, unity was as inevitable as the return of the seasons. Rattazzi in one respect was without a rival, He was a consummate parliamentarian, and leaves no one behind him to take his place. But then, neither does he leave a coherent and vigorous party, the Opposition being much in the condition of the Democratic party ever since the death say of Stephen A. Douglas.

BARON STOCKMAR.*

CHRISTIAN FRIEDRICH STOCKMAR was born at Coburg, in 1787, of a respectable middle-class family; his patent of nobility was the gift of his friend, King Leopold. He studied the profession of medicine, and was appointed physician-in-ordinary to Prince Leopold of Coburg, afterwards husband of Princess Charlotte of England, and later King of the Belgians. Manifesting a high capacity for politics, he soon gave up his profession, and passed his life as confidential friend and agent, first of King Leopold, afterwards of his nephew, Prince Albert. He seldom held any distinct office or appointment, whether diplomatic or otherwise, but occupied a position somewhat similar to that which used to be known in this country by the disparaging term "kitchen cabinet"—a position which is capable of being abused, but which an able, upright man like Stockmar can make the instrument of valuable services. The peculiar relations of both his patrons to the English royal family gave him almost the character of an English diplomatist, and give his memoirs an especial interest to the English public. English politics, properly speaking, are hardly touched in them; but we meet the English view of Continental politics, and are constantly brought in contact with English statesmen. These volumes contain, therefore, a commentary on most of the important questions of European politics, from Stockmar's active entrance into political life, about 1830, to his death in 1863. During this period he was always behind the scenes of diplomacy, and often an active agent in it; and he was a person of such integrity of character and clear-sighted sagacity that his observations, here recorded, are always instructive, and, if we are not mistaken, contain in more than one instance really new and important information.

The several questions which came into prominence during his time are, as is natural, treated with quite a different degree of fulness, according to Stockmar's greater or less participation in them. The first volume may be said to be devoted to the Belgian question; that is, nearly half the volume is concerned with this, the rest consisting of chapters upon several subjects of general interest, such as happened to fall within the writer's observation down to the year 1838. One of these chapters, upon Leopold's candidature for the throne of Greece, will be read with special interest and instruction. The precise reason why this negotiation fell through has been little understood. It appears that the young prince, afterwards so distinguished for practical sagacity, well-balanced judgment, and even astuteness, allowed himself to be carried away in the beginning of his career by the philhellenic enthusiasm of the day, and to enter with too great eagerness into conditional engagements from which it was afterwards necessary for him to retreat. No doubt his ill success in this enterprise helped to school him to the practical ability that he afterwards displayed; for the time, however, it placed him in a false position, and gave him a bad name in the European courts. No doubt, also, the reputation of his failure followed him in his next enterprise, and rendered his position in Belgium less easy. But he had now learned from experience, and met with remarkable success in his new and difficult task—in establishing his new kingdom on a sound basis, and guiding it through all the complicated perils of the years that followed.

The attempts at reorganizing Germany after the revolution of 1848 occupy nearly as large a proportion of the second volume as the Belgian affairs do of the first. In these attempts Stockmar himself took an active part—almost the only portion of his career in which he exchanged his advisory and confidential position for one of public responsibility. He declined the position of Minister of Foreign Affairs in the new Empire on the ground of his health, but was a member of the Frankfort Diet, and aided in the movement to the extent of his powers. The account here given of the long consultations and negotiations, which at last resulted in nothing, is interesting, but need not now occupy our attention in detail. Like most sagacious statesmen, Stockmar was convinced that the true policy of Germany was that which has been since adopted—a union under the hegemony of Prussia; the principal practical difficulty residing in the question, What would become of Austria? Here again he was right in his judgment that Austria would withdraw from Germany, although he had some expectation of eventually securing the German provinces of Austria. His views of the historical relation of Austria to the German problem are stated in a letter written in 1849:

"By the territorial arrangement of Germany on which Napoleon built his Rhine Confederation, it was really torn more asunder than had ever been the case before. He divided Germany into three parts, Prussia, Austria, and the Rhineland, as effectually as Poland had been divided. After the fall of Napoleon, the Austrian-Metternich policy took his place. This policy was an attempt to govern Germany again, as before, merely as a means to an end.

"For this end Austria had to acquire a complete supremacy. The natural opponent to this supremacy was Prussia, which was, after the peace, stronger in German elements than Austria. The more Metternich succeeded in upholding the territorial scaffolding of the Rhine Confederation, the more allies he had against Prussia, and the easier it became for him—first, to assume the same position with the princes of the Rhine Confederation which Napoleon had once held, and, secondly, to neutralize the influence of Prussia in the rest of Germany. In this way, Napoleon's position as protector of the Rhine Confederation was perfectly assumed by Metternich; and, with regard to Germany, his position was even stronger than Napoleon's had ever been, from the circumstance that he succeeded in inducing two kings of Prussia to place themselves for thirty-three years in the leading-strings of the Austrian policy. Metternich certainly did not use this supremacy for foreign wars of conquest, as did Napoleon, but for a moral warfare against the influence of Prussia, against the spread of revolutionary doctrines, against constitutional government and Protestantism, and in favor of the Jesuits and absolutism. This policy, just as faulty as had been the former policy of Austria, was certain first to entangle again, and then to ruin, the affairs of Germany. The flood of Democracy which spread over Germany in 1848 is pre-eminently the result of the policy of Austria from 1814 to 1847" (vol. ii., p. 231).

As to the manner in which Prussia was to assume the hegemony of Germany, Stockmar's views were at least striking and original. His plan was that the Prussian territories should form what he called the "immediate imperial territories," having no national existence except as *Germany*, and "ruled without a special Prussian parliament, without a special Prussian administration, by the Prussian king [king no longer], as actual hereditary German Emperor, by means of the German Imperial Parliament and the administrative organization of the German Empire" (p. 246)—very much as the District of Columbia is governed by Congress, only that, of course, these Prussian provinces must have been represented in the Imperial Parliament. The other states, on the other hand, except so far as they should choose to become *immediate* by surrendering their individual sovereignty, would be *mediate*, being governed by the Imperial Parliament just as our States are governed by Congress, and in other respects retaining their local autonomy. A weak feature of this plan, and which would probably have been fatal, as the editor points out (p. 249), is that it calls upon Prussia completely to sink its individuality in the sovereignty of the nation, in consideration of the national advantage and the honor of serving as the central point of the new nation—an abnegation which could certainly not be expected of it.

A very interesting chapter in the second volume gives an account of the affair of the Spanish marriages, which made so much noise at the time, and which Stockmar considers to have been a chief cause of the overthrow of Louis Philippe, as it certainly deserved to be. It would require too long an extract to show fully his grounds for this belief, but it is to Guizot personally that he attributes the bad faith of the French Government at this time; adding that, in his belief, "but for Guizot's arrogance, pride, carelessness, and want of knowledge of men and things, Louis Philippe would have died on the throne, and his grandson would now be king" (p. 229). In his masterly discussion of the policy of the Guizot ministry, he says: "Without their guilt we should have seen, even under the rule of this mistaken sovereign, that an honest constitutional discharge of their duty on the part

* 'Memoirs of Baron Stockmar. By his son, Baron E. von Stockmar. Translated from the German by G. A. M. Edited by F. Max Müller.' In two volumes. London: Longmans, Green & Co; Boston and New York: Lee & Shepard. 1873. 12mo.

of the ministers would have converted the fiction of the infallibility of the sovereign into a reality, so that his mistakes and self-will alone could not have effected his own ruin and, at the same time, that of the state. The English kings of the House of Brunswick, and more especially George IV., applied in the same manner all their energies to ruin themselves and the monarchy, but in vain" (p. 218).

We have mentioned those chapters of the book which are of most importance in the study of the political history of the times. The Belgian affairs and the abortive German Empire were questions in relation to which Baron Stockmar had the closest personal knowledge and interest; the Spanish marriages, the Eastern question, and French relations, also receive light from these memoirs; the Schleswig-Holstein question is only slightly touched, neither do we find much instruction upon the internal affairs whether of Germany, Belgium, or England. His activity was essentially diplomatic. The English court, however, was Stockmar's chief residence for many years; Prince Albert was his pupil in politics, and Queen Victoria was strongly attached to him. The chapters which treat of his relations to the English royal family are probably those of most interest to the generality of readers. In this family he appears to have enjoyed the greatest intimacy until the end of his life.

It will be interesting to see the opinion formed by so keen an observer of some of the leading English statesmen. Of Wellington he says:

"The natural sobriety of his temperament, founded upon an inborn want of sensibility, was unable to withstand the intoxicating influence of the flattery by which he was surrounded. The knowledge of himself became visibly more and more obscured. The restlessness of his activity, and his natural lust for power, became daily more ungovernable. Blinded by the language of his admirers, and too much elated to estimate correctly his own powers, he impatiently and of his own accord abandoned the proud position of the victorious general, to exchange it for the most painful position which a human being can occupy, viz., the management of the affairs of a great nation with insufficient mental gifts and inadequate knowledge. . . . It required the full force and obstinacy of this strange self-deception in Wellington, it required the full measure of his activity and iron persistency, in order at last by a perpetual reiteration of errors and mistakes to create in the people the firm conviction that the Duke of Wellington was one of the least adroit and most mischievous ministers that England ever had" (vol. i., p. 129).

Of Peel:

"His most peculiar and important faculty seemed to me to consist rather in a quick and sure understanding of all the relations of men generally, but especially of their business relations. As understood by him, all high impressions found, as by themselves, their right place, and acquired in the shortest time so true a coherence that the whole and its parts could be surveyed with the greatest clearness. . . . Peel's mind and character rested on moral foundations which I have not once seen shaken, either in his private or his public life. From these foundations rose that never-failing spring of fairness, honesty, kindness, moderation, and regard for others which Peel showed to all men, and under all circumstances" (vol. ii., p. 420).

On the whole, he did not have a very high respect either for English statesmen, as he knew them, or for parliamentary government. "One great scarcity is felt at present in England," he writes, "viz., that of able statesmen. Through it the evil from which we suffer since the Reform Bill, is always becoming greater: I mean the growing omnipotence of the House of Commons, and its interference with things belonging to the executive" (vol. ii., p. 448). And again: "I do not despair, but it is enough to make one low-spirited and afraid, when one considers to what ministers, and to what an absurd, usurping House of Commons, the fate of England is at present entrusted. England will not perish, but it has already lost much of its former position in the world, and the loss may be increased in the next few years" (p. 546). This dislike of parliamentary government is, however, by no means due to a liking for absolutism, but to a feeling that it has destroyed the true constitutional balance—"the line which separates a republic from a constitutional monarchy is not sufficiently appreciated." "This English mania of making all political wisdom to consist in the art of satisfying Parliament, and of tickling it by means of clever speeches, makes me sick." Perhaps there is something in this criticism which we Americans can lay to heart.

LOSSING'S LIFE OF SCHUYLER.*

WE regret that Mr. Lossing has called this work the 'Life and Times of Philip Schuyler.' It is a grave error both of taste and of judgment; for General Schuyler, though an eminent man, does not hold that prominent position as the originator and controller of great events which makes the story of a life the history of an age. During the old French war, he rendered obscure though useful services in the commissariat and at the head of a company. In forcing a full narrative of that war into the 'Life of Schuyler,' the biographer loses sight of his hero for pages together in order to make room for the thrice-told tales of the death of Lord Howe, the defeat of Dieskau, the disaster of Fort William Henry, and the triumph of Wolf on the Plains of Abraham. This is much to be regretted, for the life of Schuyler, even when strictly confined to its subject, supplies abundant materials for an instructive biography; but it would not have filled half its present space.

General Schuyler holds an important place in the civil history of New York, a still more important one in its military history, and a very interesting one in its social history. We meet him as a leader in the Colonial Assembly, as a subordinate in the old French war, as a commander in the war of Independence, and as a member, both in right of birth and of marriage, of that colonial aristocracy so well described by Mrs. Grant of Laggan. We catch pleasant glimpses of him, also, in those memoirs of the Baroness de Riedesel, which have so softened the historic truth as to have almost made us forget that her husband was a mercenary, defending an alien cause for gold and rank. In all of these characters, Philip Schuyler appears to great advantage, enjoying in each the respect and confidence of those whose good opinion was most to be desired. We do not think that Mr. Lossing has made as much as he ought to have done of these phases in the life of his hero. They supply the materials for a good deal of spirited narrative and fine historical painting. His personal appearance was striking. His eye and mouth were full of character. His manners were simple and dignified, and had that graceful ease which early familiarity with society and consciousness of position give. In later life, his natural amiability is said to have been sometimes affected by the gout—an hereditary disease, which he bore with heroic fortitude under circumstances which would have broken a common spirit. It is seldom that physical infirmities can be dwelt on at length without awakening a suspicion of mental weakness; but Schuyler bore gout and rheumatism and fever so bravely under the most trying conditions that you instinctively say, This is the stuff whereof heroes are made.

Yet his fate has been a hard one. He was one of those who fall short of their mark, not through shortcomings of their own, but through strange combinations of adverse circumstance. He labored hard for success, but only to see his laurels transferred to an undeserving brow. His early promise was brilliant. A knowledge of Indian life and character was an important element in the education of the young men of those days. He made himself familiar with them, and rendered important services as Indian commissioner. The old French war was a school for him, and, though he does not appear in its history, gave him a practical knowledge of the duties and mechanism of the staff which made things possible for him which would otherwise have lain entirely beyond his reach. When the war of Independence broke out, all eyes were turned to him as peculiarly fitted for the command of the Northern department. Here began a career which promised great glory. The tragedy of Quebec added a new name to the two great names which give such interest to the banks of the St. Lawrence. While Montgomery lived, there was perfect harmony between him and Schuyler, and their letters show how fully each trusted the other. But here began also those difficulties with the New England troops which, in the campaign of 1777, led to an act of great injustice. Little did Schuyler foresee the trials and mortifications that he was preparing for himself when he entered so warmly into the question of the New Hampshire grants. He had studied New England character in the wrong school, and brought some of the antipathies of his Dutch blood to the study. He had aristocratic habits and aristocratic tastes, and was a stern disciplinarian and a rigid enforcer of the distinctions of rank. Graydon has preserved an anecdote of him which shows how he looked down upon Yankee colonels and captains. A New England captain came to Schuyler's quarters on business while the general and his family were at table. "He came in," says Graydon, who despised Yankees, and was a thorough aristocrat himself, "with that abject servility of manner which belongs to persons of the meanest rank. He was neither asked to sit nor take a glass of wine, and, after announcing his wants, was dismissed with that peevishness of tone we apply to a low and vexatious intruder." Schuyler forgot that this "low and vexatious intruder" held a commission from the same authority with himself, was engaged in the same cause, and came to him upon business that arose from their official relations. He probably forgot the "intruder" in the next five minutes, but the despised man did not forget him. It was not, therefore, without blame on his part that the New England troops disliked him. When they accused him of arrogance towards them, they were not altogether wrong; when they denied him their confidence, they followed a common though not a noble instinct; but when they called his judgment and military talents in question, they erred gravely; and when they suggested that he wanted courage, they were guilty of gross slander.

* 'The Life and Times of Major-General Philip Schuyler. By Benson J. Lossing, LL.D.' New York: Sheldon & Co. 2 vols. crown 8vo.

Mr. Bancroft has revived these slanders, and Mr. Lossing has refuted them with a just appreciation of what belongs to history and what to the chronicle of scandals.

Mr. Lossing has not altogether escaped the *lues Boswelliana*. We know of no authority for attributing Hamilton's early perception of the defects of the Confederation to Schuyler. Mr. Lossing indeed writes:

"This was a movement towards nationality which Schuyler hailed with joy; yet it was much short of what he wished in its scope and tendency. He earnestly desired a national convention, to decide upon some positive measures for that kind of centralization seen in our National Constitution which should make the Congress the supreme head of the Republic. So earnest were his convictions and so urgent were his arguments that he inspired the active mind of his son-in-law, Alexander Hamilton, with that ardor for such centralization which ever afterwards distinguished him."

This is a strong statement, and Mr. Lossing must not accuse us of undue scepticism if we ask for his proofs. It has always been regarded as one of the marvels of Hamilton's mind that he came into public life at nineteen with convictions already formed and a judgment already ripened. We know of nothing to justify a change of opinion. With all his shortcomings, however, Mr. Lossing has made a valuable contribution to American history, and done much for a juster appreciation of one of its eminent men.

TUKE'S INFLUENCE OF THE MIND ON THE BODY.*

IN this very curious and interesting book, the author collects from all the sources open to him authentic illustrations of the influence of the mind on the body, and attempts, by arranging these "on a definite physiological basis," to show the extent of this influence in causing disease, its use and importance to physicians as a practical remedy, "and to elucidate by the whole enquiry the nature and action of what is called the imagination." He says, in somewhat turgid English:

"I want medical men who are in active practice to utilize this force, to yoke it to the car of the son of Apollo, and, rescuing it from the eccentric orbits of quackery, force it to tread with measured step the orderly paths of legitimate medicine."

Dr. Tuke's eminent rank in his profession dissipates the suspicion of charlatanry which might well arise from the publication of any book upon the subjects here treated of, considering the libraries of volumes signifying nothing which do duty as the literature of mesmerism, animal magnetism, and modern spiritualism. Whether or not the author accomplishes the very difficult task he has set himself, it may be admitted that he has done the best possible for his subject, and we cannot but admire the catholic professional spirit which is ready to accept assistance from any quarter—a spirit only too unusual in a profession where bigotry and prejudice against new lights are sometimes in an inverse ratio to the scientific knowledge of its members, and the certainty of the principles upon which their system is founded. "Medicine," says Dr. Tuke, quoting with approval from Dr. Rush, "has its Pharisees as well as religion; but the spirit of this sect is as unfriendly to the advancement of medicine as it is to Christian charity."

It is impossible to give anything but the barest analysis of the very complex plan of Dr. Tuke's work. The author, ignoring for the purposes of his book the metaphysician's subtle definitions of the word imagination, means by it, "as regards the present enquiry, that a man imagines certain (bodily) phenomena to have occurred which have not; or it is meant that certain bodily phenomena which really have occurred are due to no other cause than that he imagined they would," and he adopts as his "fundamental principle" the words of Hunter: "I am confident that I can fix my attention to any part until I have a sensation in that part." He assumes that the mind acts on the body "through its threefold states of intellect, emotion, and volition," and arranges his "illustrations," four hundred and thirty in number, so as to show the influence of each of these elements upon, first, sensation; second, the voluntary muscles; third, the involuntary muscles; fourth, the organic functions. These illustrations are drawn from a variety of sources—medical works, the columns of newspapers, and the professional observations of the writer or his correspondents; and, whether of any further value or not, have at least the merit of interest. Space will not admit of extended quotations, but we may mention that, in Dr. Tuke's opinion, which seems authorized by his cited cases, it may well be that

> "Deadly fear can time outgo
> And blanch at once the hair,"

and that Byron was quite justified in speaking of men whose hair grew white in a single night. Of interest also, as illustrating a curious tendency among physicians to forget the end and aim of their calling, is the fact that many English surgeons of eminence stoutly opposed the use of sulphuric ether as an anæsthetic, not on the ground that it was ineffectual to prevent pain, or unsafe, but because, as Magendie, the French Academician, declared, "it was trivial to suffer, and an invention to annul pain under the knife was only of mediocre interest to surgery."

Dr. Tuke is hardly successful in his attempt to prove that the mental states, especially the emotions, act specifically upon different organs, and that the methods and consequences of such action can be arranged in a scientific form. The author himself, in summing up the results of his investigation, after stating the admitted fact that a specific relation does exist between certain emotions (as grief), and certain glands of the body (as the lachrymal system), admits that he cannot safely go much further. He says, somewhat obscurely:

"Probably we cannot go much beyond these general principles, which, combined with the law that any emotion which, either by its character or its suddenness, depresses the activity of the controlling power of the cerebrum, allows of the irregular or excessive action of the encephalic, spinal, or sympathetic nerve-centres, will generally serve to explain the changes induced in the body by varying mental states."

In his chapter entitled "The Practical Application of the Influence of the Mind on the Body to Medical Practice," the writer gives many instances of the admitted influence of hope, fear, and other emotions, in effecting the cure or hastening the progress of disease, but he does not seem to have elicited anything very new or very valuable. In fact, his only practical conclusion on this branch of his subject seems to be that the physician should acknowledge the possible power of the imagination in effecting cures, and use it as a help in his art, and may, in so doing, properly invoke the aid of the mysterious force called mesmerism, which the author does not attribute to the agency of animal magnetism, so called, but the results of which he seems to regard as due to the active will of the mesmerizer acting upon the passive imagination of his patient.

While Dr. Tuke adopts for the title of his work "terms which accord with popular usage," he does this "only for the sake of clearness," and under a kind of protest, saying, as he does, that "it is more than probable that no amount of scientific knowledge will ever displace the time-honored phrases of 'mind' and 'body.'" But the author himself does not accept these words in their popular meaning, as denoting independent existences as separable from each other as the elements of rock and iron in metallic ore. On the contrary, he recognizes the existence of an "inseparable *nexus* existing between the two, arising out of the fact that the organ of mind is but the outgrowth and ultimate development of the tissues and organs of which the body itself is composed; that it not only unites them in one common bond, but is, in truth, a microcosm of the whole." Here we suppose he occupies common ground with the best scientific thinkers, but beyond the admitted truth thus expressed, the bases of mental science are wholly speculative, and therefore just as many systems of metaphysics and theories of mental and bodily relation are possible as there are intelligent minds in existence, each being at liberty to assume whatever premises it needs to work out the conclusions which it begins by taking for granted. It is for this reason, as it seems to us, and not from any lack of learning or industry, that Doctor Tuke has failed to add much to the sum of exact knowledge, or to build up his facts and phenomena in a homogeneous scientific form.

The style of this book cannot be commended as a model either of clearness or elegance. In many of the longer paragraphs, subjects and predicates flounder about in hopeless confusion, and, failing to find their right places, only serve to obscure the writer's meaning. We have already given one specimen of Doctor Tuke's fine writing, but what shall be said of the taste which puts the simple fact that an old man compelled his wife to emigrate with him to America in this wise: "He insisted that his wife, toothless for years, and her hair as white as the snow on Mont Blanc, should accompany them to the land where God's creatures were permitted to inhale the pure old invigorating atmosphere of freedom"? In a word, the book adds one to the many existing specimens of a style that may be called Medical-English—sometimes stilted, and too often disfigured by attempted witticisms and trite quotations from the poets—a style that may pass without comment in the medical lecture room where it had its origin, but which is utterly unworthy of use in a sober scientific treatise.

HILLEBRAND'S FRENCH OF TO-DAY.*

THOSE who want to understand the present condition of France and the French people will do well to read this book. Professor Hillebrand has undertaken to give his countrymen, an accurate, unbiassed view of the society and politics of the nation they conquered. In doing this he does not hesitate

* 'Illustrations of the Influence of the Mind on the Body in Health and Disease. Designed to Elucidate the Action of the Imagination. By Daniel Hack Tuke, M.D., M.R.C.P., etc., etc.' Philadelphia: Henry C. Lea. 1873.

* 'Frankreich und die Franzosen in der zweiten Hälfte des XIX. Jahrhunderts. Von Karl Hillebrand.' Berlin: Robert Oppenheim; New York: L. W. Schmidt. 1873.

to make comparisons that tell against Germany, and the preface begins with some remarks upon German arrogance which are as severe as any that follow upon French vanity. The author is entitled to be heard with respect. Driven from Baden in early life by political trouble, he was hospitably received in France, and spent there the twenty years from 1850 to 1870 to which his book refers. A keen and educated observer, in a situation which would naturally tend to make him impartial, he has studied and reasoned upon French character and institutions with the interest, and without the prejudices, of a citizen.

In this work he takes up successively French society, French education, life in the provinces and in Paris, literature and politics. Superficial writing on these subjects is common enough, but the thorough acquaintance with them here manifested is extremely rare, and the treatment of each topic does no less credit to the soundness of Professor Hillebrand's judgment than to the sharpness of his insight. The sketches of French social life will be especially pleasant to those who are somewhat familiar with it, and who can appreciate the fidelity as well as the caustic frankness of the touches. Naturally, some things creep in that are to be found in all writers on French character from Cæsar down, and there is once in a while too much repetition. But it is not often that the author is either trite or tedious; and, considering the subject, it was very easy to be both. He does full justice to the prudence and practical wisdom of the people, to the perfect organization and charm of their social life, to their skill as administrators of justice and of affairs. Their deep regard for family ties is fully admitted. Some passages will suggest a comparison of the widely different effects upon social life produced by the French marriage relation, based on the understanding and upon practical wisdom, and the marriage of the Anglo-Saxon and German races, resting for the most part upon personal attraction. The far-reaching influence of the respective systems upon society deserves more study than it has yet received. That there is throughout the book a vein of deep dissatisfaction with the national training and life, will not surprise those who have lived longest abroad. "Their virtues," he says, "make daily life agreeable and easy, cheerful and convenient. They are satisfactory for ninety-nine days of life, so long as it rolls on in its accustomed track; but they are unsatisfying on the hundredth day, when that happens which cannot be foreseen, and the storm bursts over their artificial building. . . . 'Scratch the Russian, and you will find a Tartar,' is a French witty saying. With more justice might we add, 'Scratch a Frenchman, and you will find an Irishman.'"—The comparison that follows is not without force.

French education is a subject of which Americans generally know very little, and on which the author is especially at home. While professor in the University at Douay, he was called upon by the Government to prepare a report on the improvement of French instruction, and in 1868 he published a work in Paris on the reform of higher education. He gives interesting details about the present system, and conveys a good idea of the "université," that highly artificial machine, which in its principle, and in its close relations to the state, perhaps resembles China more than its author, the first Emperor, imagined. Both teachers and students are viewed from the standpoint of a professor, and sometimes assailed for faults which are more or less universal. But he complains of the instruction that seeks knowledge, not for itself, but for immediate practical use, in words which will recall Professor Tyndall's parting lecture in this country; and he criticises deservedly the lack of mental training, the attention paid to committing to memory, their chemistry and physics taught without experiment, and their geography, which is simply an acquaintance with the departments of France.

The most thoughtful and able portion of the book is its sketch of the present condition of French political life. The broadly differing views of the various classes of the people, and the difficulties which any government must encounter, are little appreciated, particularly by the daily journalists who instruct us in foreign affairs. With a great capital which is always in opposition, which unites the best intellect and the most dangerous ignorance of the country, where the lower classes hate all restraint, and the educated are devoid of the very idea of political responsibility; with a provincial middle-class that is selfish, timid, and hesitating, and a peasantry absolutely barbarous, the task of government cannot well be harder. Perhaps an additional reason for the instability of French administrations is that they are all so much alike. The word "republic" carries with it in American minds a host of assumptions which often mislead us. If President Grant appointed and removed at pleasure every Governor and State official; if teachers and judges looked to a Secretary for advancement; if our domestic relations were regulated by Congress, and even the police and the sale of cigars placed under the control of a Washington bureau, we might understand how little a republic may differ from a monarchy or an empire. The superscription on the franc changes, but the same system and institutions remain. The permanence of the latter is well illustrated in a remark which the author, in speaking of the multiplicity of French judges, quotes from a speech of Baron Jouvenel: "I know," said he, "that we live in a country where it is more difficult to suppress a court than to overturn a throne."

Professor Hillebrand's sketch of Napoleon III., and of the constitutional history of the Second Empire, is the first fair, accurate, and intelligent account we have seen of the Emperor's character, his policy, and the attitude of the nation towards it. He adjusts the responsibility for the Empire and its terrible downfall as we think history will adjust it, and, while condemning the Emperor, he is obliged to condemn equally the French people. There is much on this subject that is worth quoting, and the portraits of Napoleon and of Thiers are particularly deserving of thorough study, but want of space forbids us to do more than commend the book itself to the attention of our readers.

THE DOMINANT LANGUAGE OF THE TWENTIETH CENTURY.*

PRESIDENT GRANT'S creed, "I rather believe that the Great Maker is preparing the world to become one nation, speaking one language," is professed, so far as regards language, and within certain limits, by others who are far from expecting, or even desiring, the civil commonwealths of the future to coincide with the commonwealth of letters. For instance, Alphonse de Candolle, the author of the interesting essays one of which we are now considering, is a Swiss, of a city which prides itself upon the purity of its French, but is none the more willing on that account to be absorbed into *la grande nation*, even if that tongue were to become dominant in the twentieth century, as assuredly it will not. The French language, in our author's view, has had its day; and the masterful speech of the coming century is to be English.

The essay in which the reasons for this opinion are set forth is by no means one of the most considerable in this volume, but it is worth a moment's attention. As a naturalist, De Candolle does not fail to observe that Latin is hardly longer to be styled the universal language of science, any more than of the church. It holds its place in descriptive natural history alone, and there we may hope it will continue. But this is Linnæan Latin, which is as much unlike classical Latin as the "French of Stratford-atte-Bow" is unlike French of Paris. It is a technical language, in which the terms are all clearly defined, the vocabulary limited, and the use precise. By it the characters of genera and species can be expressed more succinctly and clearly than they possibly can be in any living modern language, except by a transference of the terms themselves, for which, indeed, the English language offers great facilities. But, in other departments of science, and in natural history as well, apart from purely descriptive matter, as in the presentation and discussion of physiological, anatomical, and morphological investigations, the inconvenience of Latin is more and more evident, and modern languages—the vernacular of each writer—are now very generally employed. The great advantage of a common or even a prevalent language is thereby lost, and the inconvenience is becoming grave enough now that French is less important in science than German and English. That French should have taken the place of Latin throughout Europe as the means of intercommunication was natural. An Englishman and a German half learned French in learning Latin; a Spaniard and an Italian had three-quarters of it already. Moreover, its clearness and precision well adapted it to scientific uses. But, as De Candolle remarks, the scientific centre of gravity is moving northward in Europe, and the Scandinavian, and even Russian, as well as the English and German scientists are speaking "every man in his own tongue," to the growing embarrassment of his fellows of other countries. Very few people can be expected to read more than one modern language besides his vernacular; but in these days he needs to be a polyglot. Our author is persuaded that the naturalist of the future will be less embarrassed; that, after the example of the Greek language in the Roman Empire, and of French in modern times, some one language is almost certain to dominate. He indicates two essential conditions which the coming language must fulfil: first, it must have enough both of German and of Latin words or forms to commend it both to the Teutonic and the Latin races; secondly, it must be spoken by a considerable majority of civilized people. Grammatical simplicity, clearness, and especially brevity are also important. The English language alone fulfils these conditions, or will fulfil them fifty or a hundred

* 'Histoire des Sciences et des Savants, depuis deux siècles, suivie d'autres études sur des sujets scientifiques, en particulier sur la Selection dans l'espèce humaine.' Genève: H. Georg; New York: F. W. Christern. 1873. 482 pp. 8vo.

years hence. It is half German and half Latin. It holds a position among the principal languages now used in scientific intercourse very like that which was held by French between Latin and several modern languages. The discovery of America doubled its use, and the movement of populations in both hemispheres fixes its destiny. It is now spoken in Great Britain by 31 millions, in North America by 46, in Australia and New Zealand by 2 millions—in all, 77 millions of people. German is spoken at the present time by 62 millions, French by 40½ millions. Then De Candolle estimates that, as the population of England doubles in fifty years, and that of the United States, Australia, etc., in half that time, the probable number of English-speaking people in the year 1970 will be 860 millions, when, at their present rate of increase, German will be spoken by 124 millions and French by 69½ millions. Moreover, English is much more spoken in Africa and in Southern Asia than all other European languages put together. The language of more than three-quarters of Christendom, and of the most active and the most reading people, will necessarily be the one into which all valuable works in other tongues will be translated, that in which they will have many times more readers than in their originals. Already, as our author remarks, German works are largely read by French-speaking people in English translations. As this goes on, English must become the dominant, if not the universal, language so far as science and literature are concerned.

In the prevalence of a language, perhaps the character and situation of a people are more important than the character of the language. Otherwise, the Italian instead of the French language should have prevailed during the last two centuries. It is as clear, more harmonious and elegant, nearer the Latin, and with an earlier and very remarkable literature. The geographical position of France and the number and activity of its people turned the scale. De Candolle assigns another reason: the words in French are shorter, and the verbs less complicated. For similar reasons, the German language, with its three arbitrary genders, its fashion of cutting words in two, and dispersing the fragments, and reserving the most important to the close, could under no circumstances well prevail in these busy modern days—will hardly hold its own without modifications. Grammatical simplicity and, above all, directness and brevity are essential requisites; and in these the English language most conforms to modern tendencies and habits. As compared with Italian, French, and especially with German, it offers the shortest road from one point to another. De Candolle illustrates by several anecdotes and personal experiences the fact that when the two languages, French and German, are spoken in a family, the former gains the day; that English wins over both; and he deduces the general rule that in the conflict of two languages, other things being equal, the briefer and simpler prevails. He naturally finds that English has one great fault, "an absolutely irregular orthography, so absurd that it takes a child a year longer to learn to read than any other European language"; and in pronunciation, the vowels are not well articulated. The orthography, he thinks, may slowly be amended.

The article closes with a homily upon the great responsibility with which the Anglo-American races are charged, the importance of preserving the actual unity of the language, which may be in some danger of breaking up into English, American, and Australian, although certain causes which contributed to the breaking up of the Latin tongue will fortunately not apply to the English populations. And he appeals to the Americans as having the greatest interest in the stability of the language which is to dominate, since it is to have its largest development upon this continent.

Monographs, Personal and Social. By Lord Houghton. (New York: Holt & Williams.)—The desultory sketches here gathered into a volume are all, whether they are of perfectly well-known persons or of persons almost perfectly unknown, based upon Lord Houghton's own acquaintance with the men and women sketched. Thus the book is very fresh; and reading it is like listening to the talk of a clever and cultivated man about some of the noted and noteworthy people he has met in his time. That any part of it is weighty; or that the various parts of it are of equal interest; or that some parts of it may not be of but very little interest to some intelligent audiences, is not pretended. Probably, for example, it must be with a certain remoteness of interest that the New Yorker at Long Branch reads about the Misses Berry—ladies who died the other day, indeed, but who were beauties when George the Second was king, who were correspondents of Madame du Deffaud, and who, out of respect for the beloved memory of a certain friend of theirs, "never, after his death, would wear rouge." The same, too, may be said of the sketch of Cardinal Wiseman, of whom Lord Houghton talks pleasantly, but in such a way that a knowledge of twenty-year-old English politics is requisite to interline what he says, and make it completely intelligible.

The "Heine" and the "Landor" will be read on this side of the water with avidity, those being favorite names with the American general reader; and the same may be said of the paper on Sydney Smith—while those on Suleiman Pacha and Lady Ashburton will be turned to with a curiosity which each will satisfy, and, as we might perhaps say, each will both satisfy and repay. The former certainly will, as indicating in outline an adventurous and gallant career. The Pacha was born in Lyons, and was the son of a citizen of that town who fought against the Directory when the Lyonnais rebelled against its tyranny. Young Selves began soldiering by daily carrying his father's dinner to the ramparts. Later, he was an *aspirant de marine*, in which capacity he served during that conflict which Napoleon announced to his Council as "the loss of some vessels by the weather, after a combat imprudently engaged in"—the combat imprudently engaged in being that known as the Battle of Trafalgar. Selves, in that action, was on board the ship out of whose tops was fired the shot that killed Lord Nelson. By-and-by the young midshipman had the mischance to kill a superior officer in a duel, and fled to the Army of Italy. Thenceforth followed many years of service with the French armies, in Italy, in Germany, in the Russian campaign, and at Waterloo, where he was on Grouchy's staff. Lord Houghton narrates, too, briefly Colonel Selves's career after his entrance into the service of Mehemet Ali. His really was the conquest of Syria while in the employ of that prince. Afterward, he lived a dignified, honorable, and beneficent life in retirement, the great scheme of an Arab empire between the East and the West having failed, and he being untempted by offers of preferment outside of Egypt.

Of Sydney Smith, Lord Houghton has some new anecdotes, which, however, yield in interest to his analysis of the extremely common-sensible Canon's view of the relations of the clergy to the church and to their flocks and to the state. There can be no greater social anachronism, Lord Houghton remarks in substance, than to suppose that the standard gradually established since 1800 and by which we now judge the sacerdotal character, is at all like the standard in vogue when Sydney Smith made choice of his profession. At that period the ministers of the Church of England were "serious, not austere; pious, not devout; literary, not learned." He went to his profession with no special aptitude and no pretence of a spiritual vocation. "He undertook to perform its duties in the different spheres in which they might be presented to him, to form his life on a certain basis of belief, to submit to its recognized restrictions, and to defer to its constituted authorities." And if in addition to these compliances and services he became a credit and ornament to his profession; if he strengthened its position by his learning or wit or reasoning, he thought it a fair demand that he should have his full share of the dignities and the wealth of the corporation whose interests he had advanced or maintained. In short, he believed the church "to be a valuable branch of the civil service, to guard the morality and guide the education of the people"; he was pleased with its judicial attitude amid the raging of controversies; he liked its cutting off of the Nonjurors on the one hand and its ejection of the Nonconformists on the other; he thought it a sensible man's church, and the church for a man of good taste—it did not expose to the open air "an order of thought and feeling which it was neither good sense nor good taste to make general and familiar." Says Lord Houghton: "'How beautiful it is,' I heard Sydney Smith preach at Combe Florey, 'to see the good man wearing the mantle of piety over the dress of daily life; walking gaily among men, the secret servant of God.'" It is beyond doubt that this gaiety of walk, as understood by him, was the cause why the Whigs neglected to repay his party services with a bishopric—a neglect which Lord Houghton thinks there is good reason for asserting Smith to have felt deeply and blamed freely. Accordingly, Lady Holland's statement that her father treated the rather cowardly conduct of the ministry with dignified indifference Lord Houghton pronounces incorrect. It is beyond doubt, too, that we may readily enough find excuse for both parson and party. He knew his value and his services, and, as he had shown by his adhesion to the party cause in its dark days, he himself would have had the courage to do what he asked them to do for him. But, on the other hand, the ministry knew better than he seems to have known the degree in which he had shocked some of the religious and some of the stupid of the many sects and sets which they had to placate. This Lord Houghton seems not to make sufficiently clear; if, indeed, this be the true explanation.

The longest essay is one of nearly ninety pages on Landor, which is good to read for this if for no other reason, that it will be found no bad corrective of the impression which Mr. John Forster's biography of the poet contrives to make; the younger poet, seeing with better eyes than the man of business, shows us the lofty, gentle, and pitiable sides of Landor's character as prominently as the perverse and ungovernably violent. These latter are, however, not forgotten. We must praise also Lord Houghton's chapter on Heine—partly his own and partly communicated by a lady whom Heine had known as a little English girl, and who afterwards soothed his latest hours on his "mattress grave" in Paris. It is a chapter that may profitably be read

together with the short and one-sided chapter on the same subject by Mr. Matthew Arnold, who certainly was further from adequacy in his 'Heine' than in any other portion of the 'Essays in Criticism.' Lord Houghton enriches his kind and pleasant pages with a translation of some of Heine's last lyrics.

Plays and Puritans, and Other Historical Essays. By Charles Kingsley. (London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1873.)—This volume consists of three essays, of which one gives its title to the book and the others are entitled respectively: 'Sir Walter Raleigh and his Time,' and 'Froude's History of England.' All these were already well known in an American edition published some years since, with several other papers from the same hand, the collection then going under the title of 'Sir Walter Raleigh and his Time.' The admiring reader of the earlier volume will find that nothing of importance is changed in this one. He will find unabated in any degree all the eager partisanship and smoking-hot rhetoric of the days when 'Tract Number Ninety' and its offspring—that daughter and prolific mother of debate—had set all English Churchmen by the ears and caused the English history of a certain period to be pulled hither and thither with so much diligence and so little fairness. But if he finds nothing altered in the essays, he may probably find something altered in his view of them. It was, for instance, in 1856, rather than in 1873, that he very likely took most delight in Master "Zeal-for-the-Truth Thoresby, of Thoresby Rise," with "a sincerity of a right awful kind in him," with his cuirass and long sword, and with his Bible in his boot-leg, who at Naseby-field plays the man in Israel, hewing Agag in pieces "in the face of death and hell." Whether or not Master Thoresby is delightful any longer, here he is at any rate, as in 1856, "the long rapier swinging round his head, redder and redder with every sweep," so that it is as silly in 1873 as it was formerly to assert that "the Cavalier produced more poetry than the Puritan." Henry VIII. is here, too, as aforetime—as scrupulous, almost over-scrupulous, as he ever was; and his daughter, "that wonderful maid," still says to her Leicesters and Raleighs and Essexes, "Out of the dust I took you, sir! Go and do your duty humbly and rationally henceforth, or into the dust I humble you again"—all in the most royal and majestic manner. The recent visit of Mr. Froude to this country, and the discussion which that gentleman's lectures caused throughout the country, give the volume a certain opportuneness. Hardly less disfigured by Mr. Kingsley's peculiar defects than the other two essays, is the essay entitled 'Plays and Puritans,' which, however, appears to us to be the best of the series. On the other hand, it lacks some of their good qualities of effectiveness. But it is less misleading.

Students' Series of Classic French Plays, edited, with explanatory notes for the use of students, by Edward S. Joynes, M.A., Professor of Modern Languages in Washington and Lee University, Va. I. Le Cid, by Corneille; II. Athalie, by Racine; III. Le Misanthrope, by Molière. (New York: Holt & Williams. 12mo, pp. 356.)—This series of French text-books is already pretty well known to the public, the first of the three having been published some three years ago, and all having gone through several editions. Their appearance now, revised and corrected, in a single volume, furnishes an opportunity for our mentioning them with a few words of recognition of their merits. It may be said with truth, we think, that no other French texts have been edited for class use in this country so carefully, and with such competence of learning. Unfortunately, that is not so high praise as it ought to be, for we have had few editors of such works who have not been content with a facile turning of French idiom into English idiom; that is to say, with doing what would help a French boy make an English version, but not what would make an English student understand his French text. The latter is Professor Joynes's object, and it is throughout successfully attained. No two persons, we presume, would entirely agree as to where a note was needed and where it was superfluous; but certainly no reasonable person can fail to give his general approval to the scale on which the editor of this series has constructed his commentary. With such aid, these masterpieces of the French classic stage are put within the reach of many a class which would not otherwise be equal to undertaking them. And this is no slight favor to many high-school and college teachers, who have longed for the liberty to take up a higher class of texts than has been hitherto accessible. The selection, too, is to be commended without any reservation. Mr. Joynes, in the preface to the "Athalie," shakes his head a little over the decided preference generally accorded to that play over the other works of Racine; but we must confess to sharing that preference heartily. And experience with Molière in the class-room has shown that his "Misanthrope," though less entertaining than some of the other plays, is decidedly the best for purposes of instruction, the one that best repays working through with a set of intelligent pupils. We heartily commend, therefore, Mr. Joynes's editions, singly and collectively, to the attention and favor of American teachers of French.

In the course of our use of these works, we had marked here and there a note as calling for emendation; but we have found almost every point already rectified in the present revised issue. We will only note here that the explanation of *Athalie*, line 588, "*manquerait-on pour moi de complaisance?*" though much improved, does not seem yet quite right. The queen has not yet begun to command, but only to intimate a desire, and she asks, at the suggestion that her request may be refused, "is it possible that they should lack a readiness to comply with my wishes?" We will add that close by, lines 612-616, we find occasion for a brief additional note or two: "*un enfant est peu propre à trahir sa pensée*" will be certainly rendered, nineteen times out of twenty, "a child is little apt to *betray* its thought," instead of "to *falsify*, render unfaithfully"; then there is the quasi-negation implied in *sans*, which requires *d'alarmes*, instead of *des alarmes*, to follow; and that very peculiar French construction whereby *faites prendre* is treated as a single verb, a causative conjugation, and that which is logically the direct object of *faites* is made indirect object of the combination—"*à tous mes Tyriens*"; since no French verb is allowed to take two direct objects. Perhaps the editor has explained this construction somewhere (none of the ordinary grammars do it); but if so, the place has escaped our notice.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*
Bruns (Prof. H. M.), Latin Grammar	(J. P. Morton & Co.)
Hand-book of English Synonyms	(James Miller) $1 00
Howard (Mrs. B. C.), Fifty Years in a Maryland Kitchen	(Turnbull Bros.)
Hyde (Anna M.), Work, Play, and Profit	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Jerrold (B.), A Day with Walter Scott, swd	(Shepard & Gill) 0 25
Johnson (E.), The Mouth of Gold	(A. S. Barnes & Co.)
Kirkwood (Prof. D.), Comets and Meteors	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Koner (Dr. W.), Zeitschrift für Erdkunde, No. 42, swd	(L. W. Schmidt)
Lippincott's Magazine, Vol. XI	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Lockyer (J. N.), The Spectroscope and its Applications	(Macmillan & Co.) 1 50
Smith (Mrs. H. W.), Record of a Happy Life	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Spielhagen (F.), What the Swallow Sang	(Holt & Williams) 1 25
Tautphœus (Baroness), Cyrilla, swd	(T. B. Peterson & Bros.) 0 75
Verne (J.), Tour of the World in 80 Days	(J. R. Osgood & Co.) 1 50
In Search of the Castaways	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)

Fine Arts.

RECENT ENGLISH PHOTOGRAPHIC PUBLICATIONS.*

THE selection from the Cesnola antiquities which a London publisher put forth while the public attention in England was attracted to them, is a very small part of these interesting *trouvailles*—only 36 plates and about 100 objects from nearly 10,000—and these are naturally the examples which are most interesting archæologically, *e.g.*, those of works such as have either not been found in other places or which derive new value from having been found in Cyprus. There is nothing in the series photographed interesting as art, and the few examples of fine Hellenic work found are not even represented by a single figure. This was natural, perhaps imperative, in so small a selection from a collection so intensely interesting archæologically, and which artistically is, in its best phase, so far inferior to the splendid Hellenic works in the British Museum.

The chief point of interest brought out by the publication under notice is the marked and curious mingling of archaic work of essentially different types, and showing the presence of two or more emigrations from stocks already partly civilized. Mr. Colvin, in his introduction, dwells on this fact, but curiously makes it an evidence of an influence on the art of other nations emanating from Cyprus, while the only logical deduction is that the early art of all nations in the reach of maritime intercourse with Cyprus drifted into it as a commercial depot, and that, as in all places of this comingled parentage, nothing locally peculiar existed in it. And this, indeed, the collection of the types goes far to prove—there are those of Egyptian *provenance*; others, purely archaic, of Assyrian; and others still, more distinctly marked, and probably the earliest of all, of Etruscan (Pelasgic?) kin. The Hellenic art proper, as Mr. Newton has shown (*Academy*, December 15, 1872), was here exotic, and never, even in the most virile days of the Hellenic intellect, produced a school in Cyprus. It is, indeed, highly probable that the Hellenic colonists were few in number, mercantile; and the utter want of local sympathy or affinity with the original stock prevented any artistic motive of Hellenic type from ever taking form there.

It is only possible to conjecture the history pointed out by the slender evidence of style in technical results, but of all the evidence artistic archæology

* 'The Antiquities of Cyprus, discovered principally on the sites of the Ancient Golgoi and Idalium, by General Luigi Palma di Cesnola, from a selection made by C. T. Newton, M.A., Keeper of Antiquities at the British Museum. Introduction by Sidney Colvin, M.A.' London: Mansell & Co.

'A Series of Photographs from the Collections in the British Museum. Photographs by S. Thompson. Introduction by Chas. Harrison.' London: Mansell & Co.

gives us, the manner and make of household implements are the best, because they are necessarily the earliest and the most difficult to change. The tenacity with which incompletely civilized people cling to their household vessels is shown in the fact that most of the ancient common utensils now in use in the East were used 2,000 years ago, and the vases which the water-bearing youths on the frieze of the Parthenon carry on their shoulders, may still be seen poised in the same way going from the wells of some of the Greek islands. There are in the collection (Plates 1 to 4) some examples of pottery, of which some will be recognized at once by any one who has rummaged amongst the curiosity-shops of the Archipelago and the cities of Italy, and which Dr. Conze, as quoted by Mr. Colvin, protests against putting down to Phœnician makers. "He argues that those vases of which the decoration is purely linear and geometrical, are the work of the Pelasgic or, at any rate, of a primitive Aryan race, and that the advent of the first Asiatic colonists is shown by the introduction of the fictile ware bearing flower forms and rude animals." And this so fully accords with what we find at Cyprus and elsewhere in the Archipelago, as well as in the Morea and Etruria, that as well founded a conjecture as any which can be formed is that the early settlers of Cyprus, or of Crete and other islands, were the Pelasgi of Dr. Conze, after whom came the Assyrians, of whom Mr. Colvin (following Newton and Poole of the British Museum) says:

"Plates —— show a wave of Assyrian influence passing over the art of the island. Still, beneath this, too, there is the peculiar, experimental, and local something of which we have spoken. It is not only the peculiar cast of features, the receding forehead, the high cheek-bones and sunken cheeks, the thick, protruding nose, chin, and lips, which constitute a type apart. *That, travellers say, is the type of the Cypriote population to this hour.* . . . There is a point in the progress of the style where these sculptures closely resemble examples of the most archaic Greek work found in other places—a point where *archaic Greek and Etruscan and this* are almost indistinguishable—with the set, unmeaning smile of the mouth, and the more or less rigid attachment of the arms to the body, according to the traditional type of the helplessness of art before the innovation of Dædalus. M. Longpérier and Mr. Newton have pointed out the very singular similarity that exists in more points than one between the Cyprian statuary and Etruscan statuary found at Cervetri."

The prominence of Hercules in these sculptures points to another curious chain of evidence in this direction, for, wherever the Pelasgi have been, Hercules is eminent, and if, indeed, we put "Pelasgi" for "Phœnician" in all the traditions of Hercules, Crete, the Peloponnesus, westward, and on the shores of the Ægean, we shall find evidence enough to maintain a theory that Hercules and the Heracleidæ are only names for the Pelasgi—if, indeed, the Phœnicians were not Pelasgi of a second departure.

Of the photographs themselves of this series, I have said nothing. They are by a new process, a photo-chemical one, which, from these examples, does not seem to possess any advantage over the usual silver prints which compose the British Museum series, while it has peculiar defects.

This latter series is certainly one of the most remarkable undertakings of its kind of any time. It includes over a thousand photographs, divided into prehistoric and ethnographical, Egyptian, Assyrian, Grecian, Etruscan and Roman, and mediæval British and foreign series, and a series of the seals of sovereigns, of personages, orders, and corporations, beginning with those of Charlemagne, Offa, king of the Mercians, and Dagobert I. Not least in interest amongst the Greek works will be found the newly discovered sculptured columns from Ephesus, which have great significance in art-history. What may be said of photography as a means of record of whatever facts and forms are worth recording, may be said of Mr. Thompson's work. The limitations of locality and atmosphere are severe in the British Museum, but so far as they could be overcome they have been, and better work than may be found in this series is not to be seen to-day anywhere; and when one can estimate the labor involved in executing a thousand such negatives, he will credit the photographer with a courage and patience not often met even in his craft—the enterprise in its inception being due entirely to him, and, to a certain extent, the pecuniary risk.

The introduction of Mr. Harrison is not, by much, equal to the body of the work. Its analysis of the Assyrian records is full and extremely interesting to the casual reader, but save for the collation of dates and styles there is nothing else which gives serious value to the introduction, while the value which this collation might have had, done wisely and simply, is to a great extent interfered with by the expression of unconsidered theories and conclusions which are not in accord with the data. There is no need to repeat what has been said in noticing the Cesnola publication, but Mr. Harrison has added gross inaccuracies to the debatable positions which Mr. Colvin is compelled to take in default of anything beyond conjecture to build on.

It is hardly too much to say that every popular museum in America should be in possession of this series of photographs.

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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

JUNE 30, 1873.

IT has rarely been our fortune to witness a duller week than the one just passed. Money has been a drug at 4 per cent., with the bulk of call loans standing at 3 per cent. The summer bids fair to remain extremely dull in the different markets, and this feeling has led to quite an exodus of Wall Street men to Europe and the different watering-places in this country.

The advices from London are favorable. The Bank of England reports a gain of £419,000 in bullion. No change was made on Thursday in the discount rate, which remains at 6 per cent. The Bank of France gained last week 2,250,000 francs in specie.

The weekly statement of the Clearing-house banks of this city is very favorable. The excess in reserve over the amount required by law now held by the National banks is $13,114,975. The State banks, although not required by law to keep a reserve of 25 per cent., hold $7,929,125 in legal tenders and specie, against $31,716,500 total liabilities, or $827,475 more than the National banks are required to hold. The percentage of reserve o liabilities in National banks, 30.97; State banks, 27.61. The excess of both National and State banks in reserve is $13,942,450, against $12,166,375 last week—a gain of $1,776,075. The statement is the more favorable owing to the gain in reserve being so largely made up of legal tenders.

The following are the statements of the last two weeks:

	June 21.	June 28.	Differences.
Loans	$278,903,800	$281,506,600	Inc. $2,602,800
Specie	27,398,300	27,661,500	Inc. 263,200
Circulation	27 352.000	27.311.400	Dec. 40,600
Deposits	220,392,500	224,040,800	Inc. 3.648.300
Legal tenders	46,704,200	49,119,000	Inc. 2,414,800

The following shows the relation between the total reserve and the total liabilities:

	June 21.	June 28.	Differences.
Specie	$27,398,300	$27,661,500	Inc. $263,200
Legal tenders	46,704,200	49,119,000	Inc. 2,414,800
Total reserve	$74,102,500	$76,780,500	Inc. $2,678,000
Circulation	27,352 000	27,311,400	Dec. 40,600
Deposits	220,392 500	224,040,800	Inc. 3,648,300
Total liabilities	$247,744,500	$251,352,200	Inc. $3,607,700
25 per cent. reserve	61,936.125	62,838,050	
Excess over legal reserve	12,166,375	13,942,450	Inc. 1,776,075

The stock market remained dull throughout the week in common with everything else. Prices closed firm on Saturday, with some indication of an upward movement in Lake Shore. The death of Mr. Clark left a vacancy in the presidency of the Company, and rumor is already at work setting afloat stories regarding his successor. One of these, which, by the way, is used freely among parties who are active buyers of the stock, is that no less a personage than Commodore Vanderbilt is hereafter to hold the reins, and will shortly be elected President. The price of the stock advanced again to-day, and left off at the close 94, bid after selling at 94¼. Pacific Mail is weak. After talking all the week about issuing bonds to the amount of $6,000,000 for the purpose of paying for new steamers, the directors have ascertained from their legal adviser that "it can't be done." On Saturday, the stock sold down to 37⅛, and to-day this was followed by a further decline to 35⅝. The "talk" in the Exchange is that the parties interested in the decline desire to put it down to 30 before covering their "shorts." The general market has remained nearly stationary as regards price. Michigan Central has been rather pressed for sale, owing to some doubt as to the payment in any form of its next dividend. From what we can hear, it is probable that the July dividend will be passed altogether.

The following shows the highest and lowest sales of the leading stocks, at the Stock Exchange, for the week ending June 28:

	Monday.	Tuesday.	Wed'day.	Thursday	Friday.	Saturday.
N. Y. C. & H. R.	101½ 101⅝	101⅜ 101½	101½ 101¾	101½ ...	101⅜ 101⅝	101⅛ 101⅜
Lake Shore	92¼ 92⅜	92 92⅜	92⅜ 92⅝	92¼ 92⅜	92⅛ 92⅜	92⅜ 93⅜
Erie	62⅞ 63¼	62⅜ 63⅜	63 63⅜	62⅜ 63¼	63⅛ 63⅜	62⅞ 63
Do. pfd	... ...	... ...	... ...	... ...	... ...	... ...
Union Pacific	24¼ 25¼	23½ 24½	24½ 27⅛	24⅜ 24⅜	24⅜ 25⅛	24⅝ 25⅜
Chi. & N. W.	72 72½	71¼ 72	70½ 71	70⅜ ...	70⅜ 71⅜	71⅛ 71⅜
N. J. Central	106 ...	105½ ...	106 106⅜	106¼ 106½	106 106⅛	105⅛ 106
Rock Island	108¾ 109⅛	108½ 108¾	108¾ 109	108¾ 108¾	108⅜ 108⅜	108⅜ ...
Mil. & St. Paul	51 51⅛	50¼ 50⅜	50⅜ 51¼	50½ 50⅝	50⅛ 50⅜	50⅜ 51
Wabash	67⅜ 68¼	67½ 68	67½ 67⅜	67½ ...	67¼	67⅜ ....
D. L. & Western	98 99⅜	96 97⅜	97½ 98	97½ 97⅜	97½	97½ 97⅜
B. H. & Erie	2⅜ ...	2⅜ ...	2⅜ 2⅜	2⅜ ...	2⅜ ...	2½ 2⅜
O. & M.	37⅜ 38⅜	37⅜ 38½	38¼ 38½	38 38¼	38¼ 38¼	38¼ 38⅜
C. C. & I. C.	27½ 28	27 27¼	27½ ...	27 27½	27⅜ 27⅝	28 28¼
W. U. Tel.	85 85½	84⅝ 85	84⅛ 85¼	84½ 85	84⅜ 84⅞	84½ 84⅞
Pacific Mail	37⅜ 38¼	37⅜ 37⅞	37½ 38¼	37⅜ 38¼	37½ 38⅜	37¼ 38

Business in Government bonds has been very slight, the market here and in London not admitting of purchases for shipment. The larger part of the July interest belongs to foreign bondholders, and it is probable that the money will be kept here for reinvestment in bonds.

The market for State bonds is extremely dull. Meetings of holders of North Carolina special-tax bonds have been held, and the opinion of Mr. Johnson, that suits can be brought to compel the payment of the interest, is favorably received, and will probably be acted upon.

The decline to 115 for gold on Monday of last week was followed by a reaction which carried the price up to 115⅞ on Friday. The large amount of gold bid for at the Treasury sale on Thursday, $15,963,000, gave rise to a rumor that a new clique had taken hold of the market for an upward movement. Subsequently the price fell off to 115¼ on Saturday. The range of prices has been between 115 and 115⅞, closing at 115⅜ Saturday.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 10, 1873.

The Week.

THE Fourth of July was celebrated throughout the country with much good feeling and spirit. For the time being, the animosities of the Democrat, Republican, Liberal Republican, Granger, Patron of Husbandry, Grantite, anti-Grantite and ex-Greeleyite, Monopolist and anti-Monopolist, Conklingite and Fentonite, were sunk in the common kinship of the American name, and such innocent pleasure as might be derived from recitation of the Declaration of Independence and the explosion of several millions of crackers, torpedoes, squibs, and serpents. The speeches delivered by the orators of the day do not, so far as we have been able to observe, dwell in the old-fashioned way on the country's glory and progress, and, indeed, both orators' and journalists' ardor were perhaps damped by recollections of the Crédit Mobilier and the Vienna Exposition. The newspapers which used to harp at this time of year upon the old patriotic themes, upon the services done mankind by the Fathers, and the service we were doing mankind in being the descendants of the Fathers, now speak rather contemptuously of the national holiday, and allude with much sarcasm to the drunkenness, fires, and other accidents inseparable from the celebration, and especially to the noise, and to a personage partly invented and partly discovered, known to the press as the Small Boy, whose activity is disheartening at all times, but on the Fourth is portentous. The *Tribune* of the 5th inst. cynically says: "To-day we resume our ordinary avocations as private citizens, while the Republic tallies one and takes up again its 'stately march in the van of human progress.'" On the whole, we are perhaps getting to be somewhat older and wiser than the Fathers, and whether we tally one or not, prefer coolness in the shade to the fireworks, literal and metaphorical, and the heat and confusion of the former days.

The killing of Judge Cooley in Louisiana by Mr. R. Barnwell Rhett, in a duel growing out of the so-called "Hawkins case," appears to have combined in a remarkable manner the elements of Northern carpet-baggism and Southern chivalry. Rhett is of the half-distinguished, half-notorious family so long known as active in South Carolina politics, and always known as fire-eaters. Some little time since, his occupation as a Charleston editor being gone, he betook himself to New Orleans, and began conducting the *Picayune*, and conducting it in the usual Rhett manner—that is to say, with small show of political sagacity and with plenty of unbusinesslike language. A while since his paper was sued for libel by the Mr. Hawkins of whom all the country has been hearing for months as a member of the famous Lynch-Hawkins Returning Board, and Judge Cooley conducted the complainant's case. Rhett, or rather the *Picayune's* proprietors, were cast in damages to the amount of $18,000, the verdict, it is alleged, having been obtained by the most open perjury and the corruption of the jurors. However that may be, the editor's language would be strong as applied to most other courts than those of New Orleans, and alone might have justified a verdict. Hawkins was "a compound of perfidy and perjury"; he had been bribed; he was the bastard judge of a bastard court, which had been created by a bastard legislature. Cooley, for his part, was said to have made statements to the jury "maliciously and wilfully false," and to have travelled out of the record because he knew that no one would follow him to show up his mendacity. Letters between the editor and the lawyer then ensued, and at last a card, in which Cooley called Rhett "an artful dodger," "a thoroughpaced blackguard," "a deliberate and wilful falsifier," and so forth. Upon this came a challenge from Rhett, and soon afterwards the duel. The chivalric weapons were double-barrelled shot-guns, and with one of these grotesque substitutes for the arms employed in the duels of civilized communities Cooley was killed at the second fire. It is said that, after sending his challenge, he practised firing with his shot-gun to make his aim more sure—a proceeding held by some authorities to be indelicate. An indictment has been found against him for murder, and there is a bare possibility that, in the existing state of party feeling in Louisiana, the Kellogg government's one serviceable action may be the hanging of this gentleman. More likely he will live to do some more raving and to shoot some more men.

Not only was corruption of the jury alleged by the Rhett people, but also coercion by the Court; and of this accusation it may be enough to say that the presiding judge was a Mr. Lynch—not of the Hawkins & Lynch firm—and that the following is told as the story of how he got his place on the bench. Those who have always seen how perjury, revenge, and bloody murder may reasonably be expected to flow from our way of governing Arkansas, South Carolina, and Louisiana for the last few years, will find it an old rather than a tedious story. When the Returning Board was to begin work after the November election, there were two of its members who, having themselves been candidates for office, could not serve; there were left of the Board Warmoth, the reformer, Gen. Herron, and Mr. John Lynch, the two latter persons being straight Republicans, and Warmoth being therefore in the minority. To meet this difficulty, Warmoth removes Herron as being incapacitated by reason of charges preferred against him and impeachment pending, and puts in his place one Wharton, so that now it is not the Warmoth party that is in the minority; but Herron, declining to consider himself removed, and it being the well-settled opinion at the Custom-house that he is not removed, he and Mr. John Lynch, acting as a Board, elect three gentlemen to fill vacancies, of whom one is the libel-suit Hawkins. Warmoth's Board and the Hawkins Board then begin work on the returns—that is to say, Warmoth's Board begins to count such returns as are in its possession, and presumably some more, and Hawkins's begins to "estimate," and petitions the Judge of the Eighth District Court for an injunction to restrain Warmoth's; the judge grants this prayer; but meantime, Warmoth, finding that one Elmore has been elected Judge in that District (by nine thousand majority, the Senate Committee says), Elmore takes his predecessor's place—and here it is that Durell comes in; soon Kellogg's legislature abolishes the Eighth District Court, thus causing Elmore to disappear, and creates a Court called the Superior; to this Kellogg appoints Hawkins—for services rendered, says Rhett, in the Returning Board which made Kellogg governor.

"The Grand Union Celebration Picnic and Temperance Jubilee" at Harmony Grove, in Framingham, Massachusetts, to which handbills invited "Sons of Temperance, Good Templars, Temples of Honor, State Temperance Alliance," and "all good folks generally," appears to have been an affair of less magnitude than the hand-bills promised, and apparently General Butler got not very much of a "send off" in his race for the governorship. Indeed, the "State Alliance," which we take to be the most important of the Massachusetts temperance organizations, refused the general an opportunity to inveigle it, and the Harmony Grove meeting was of a local character, except as excursion trains brought people from numerous towns, large and small, in easy communication with South Framingham. Mr. Wendell Phillips was announced to speak, but he did not put in an appearance, nor did a clergyman, a Mr. Mallalieu, also announced as a speaker, who declined at the last moment because he learned that there was to be dancing in the grove—a graduated view of various forms of sin which it is well to have. It reminds one of the Wahabee criminal calen-

dar, which has no place for assassination, adultery, highway robbery, abduction, lying in wait, mayhem, and the like, but ranks as the worst of crimes a belief in other gods than Allah, and for the second sets down the sin of smoking tobacco in a pipe. As the saying goes, one might esteem it a privilege to feel the bumps of a Christian clergyman who can go about speechifying to make B. F. Butler a Massachusetts governor, but will not stay in a forty-acre lot in any part of which some young people are going through, or are hereafter to go through, a cotillon.

Butler's delivery of his Fourth-of-July oration—which, by the way, had nothing in it about the celebration of the day—was preceded by a scene which we suppose may be described as a little wrangle between some real prohibitionists and some prohibitionists whose strong point is not the reform of the inebriate, but the more perfect laying of pipe. The sincere temperance men showed their appreciation of the real object of the afternoon's proceedings by denouncing Butler as a humbug, and demanding that he should pledge himself beforehand to enforce the prohibitory law, and to make it, if necessary, more strict. One of the speakers wished that he should be personally pledged to drink no wine or spirits, and this will suffice to show how practical were the sincere men. But the extremely active wing of the party everywhere is always a small set of very honest and very unpractical persons, and a small number of persons who would flood the five continents with alcohol if each of them might previously name the office to which the distillers should appoint him. The main body of the community is always between the distillers and the prohibitionists, and somewhat contemptuous of both, but willing to do a reasonable amount of good if it can.

Butler's speech was uncharacteristic in most of its parts. He bragged hardly at all; he was not impudent in his allusions to persons, though he was savagely bitter against Governor Washburn; he was not amusing, as he commonly is when out on the stump; and there was no great deal of salient or very dangerous demagogism in what he said. His talk about the railroads—and he had but two topics, the railroads and the enforcement of the prohibitory law—could have made no impression on a Massachusetts audience. He declined to enter into the details of his scheme, saying that to do so would be futile, so it will never be known where he would collect his supply of lunatics to be Superintendents of the roads on which "every man, however humble," could switch his passenger-car or freight-car or hand-car on to the track, and run it by his own motive power or the company's. It would be an office exactly suited to persons a little wrong in their intellects but whose physical energies were unimpaired. But the perfection of the plan would require that there should be, say, eleven Superintendents of this grade to every ten miles of track and siding, which would ensure a scene of activity that would delight a Patron of Husbandry. But no asylum could keep up the supply. It is the belief of some of Butler's observers that the dulness of the speech indicates a campaign quiet on the stump, but all the more energetic underground. Massachusetts journals which indignantly assert the contrary might first begin by accounting for the fact that the candidate is on the stump at all.

An unexpected revival of the case of Mr. Colfax occurred this week. Mr. John Drew, a Washington lawyer, has come forward to say that in 1868 he was standing near Mr. Oakes Ames in the room of the Sergeant-at-Arms at the Capitol, and that he observed that Mr. Ames had in his hand a check, which he held in such a way that Mr. Drew could see that it was made payable to "S. C. or bearer." Mr. Drew further saw Mr. Ames himself draw the money and saw him afterwards pay it away, Mr. Drew noticing at the time that the uppermost bill was one for five hundred dollars. Mr. Drew was at that time in the habit of keeping a diary, he says, and he finds that this transaction must have occurred "on June 20 or 22," but on which day he cannot precisely recollect. Add to this evidence in Mr. Colfax's favor that on the examination, before the investigating committee, of Mr. Dillon, the Clerk and Paying-teller of the Sergeant-at-Arms, he testified that he asked Mr. Ames during the investigation whether it might not be that it was to Mr. Ames himself that he paid the twelve hundred dollars in question, and that Ames said it might be so; he thought it quite likely.

In examining this new evidence, there are several things to be recollected. One is, that it comes some months after Mr. Ames is beyond reach; another, that it is unfortunate that Mr. Drew was not in the country when this very important investigation was going on; another, that a correspondent, for whom the *World* vouches as of unimpeachable credibility, asserts, in a letter to that journal, that Mr. Drew was not absent in Europe throughout that period, but that he must have been in this country for some, at least, of the time, inasmuch as the correspondent saw him; another, that the same writer says that, Washington lawyer or not, Mr. Drew is, to his knowledge, a disreputable lobbyist, towards which, as an accurate account of him, Mr. Drew himself darkly points by saying that in 1868, when he saw Ames holding the check, of which Drew took such notice, he was getting through the House two or three things, "in one of which he very much wished to interest the Massachusetts members." We may note, too, that as to the dates of Mr. Drew's memorandum-book, June 20 was the day on which the check was drawn, and June 22 that on which it was paid, and that Mr. Drew "did not recognize the gentleman" to whom Mr. Ames paid the bank-bills. This we may consider rather lucky for the gentleman, as if Mr. Drew had recognized him we should probably find that he is now a denizen of the cold and silent tomb, instead of being alive and well to this day, and capable of giving testimony. We think Mr. Colfax may rest assured that the public has its mind made up about this business, and the Nesbitt business also, and that he will do as well to leave both of them alone. His private standing among his friends would seem to be satisfactory enough—to him and them, at any rate; and, as we suspect, his public reputation and political future are ill worth the labor and pains he is bestowing upon them.

It would be difficult to find a better example of the typical legislative committee's report than that just furnished by the report of a committee of the Vermont Legislature, appointed to investigate the affairs of the Vermont Central Railroad, to which we referred some time since. This railroad, the Smith family, and the State of Vermont have for a long time been synonymous terms, and the frauds in connection with it have almost been superhuman in their character. It would probably be hard to get an intelligent man who knows anything about the securities of the road to listen with patience to a defence of the management. The labors of an investigating committee have resulted in a document which declares that on the one hand, "those who received legislative retainers" were not corrupt; that the "car-companies" were not fraudulent; that W. C. Smith's foundry contract "before he became a trustee" was proper; that the "prices of castings" may not have been too high; that the "secret service fund" may have been correctly used; and that the $25,000 paid to W. C. Brown "as a retainer" was not a bribe. On the other hand, that those who paid legislative retainers "did so chiefly to gain influence in creating and maintaining a public sentiment"; that the policy of such organizations as car-companies is "questioned"; that whether the foundry contract of W. C. Smith continued to be proper after he became trustee "they leave to the courts to determine"; that the prices of castings may perhaps have been too high; the secret service fund they "do not consider necessary," as it was "in some instances misapplied, and a large portion was unaccounted for, owing to Governor Smith's refusal to testify in regard to it." There is one thing as to which the committee have no doubts, and that is the general impolicy of "continuing a cause indefinitely in court" when "it involves important business operations." They are even more strenuous on the subject of "free passes," the use of which, they say, tends to establish caste. In this matter they have

the community and, we may add, "the Smiths" with them, and it is much to be desired that they will push it.

The constitution and laws of Illinois prescribe an oath for judicial officers, by which they pledge themselves to a faithful performance of their duties. The oath is very much like the oaths prescribed in similar cases in other States. Mr. Alfred M. Craig, however, the judge newly elected to the Supreme Court of Illinois by the united suffrages of the farmers, the Chicago, Burlington, and Quincy Railroad, and "the people," is not a purist in the matter of judicial oaths; he has the enthusiasm of humanity strong upon him, and he has in taking office not only followed the form of oath required by law, but has further called Heaven to witness that he will

"administer justice without respect to persons, and do equal right to the poor and to the rich without sale or denial, promptly, without delay, conformably to the laws, without favor, objection, or partiality, to the best of his judgment and abilities."

This oath has attracted a good deal of attention in the West, and drawn down upon the unfortunate judge's head much derision, one journal suggesting that, while he was about it, he might as well have sworn never to sit on the bench except when sober, or never go into partnership with receivers, or knock down apple-women's stands and carry off their fruit for his private consumption under cover of judicial process. The judge seems to be in an unhappy position, for the platform on which he was elected declares that he *must* administer justice in some of the ways that his oath pledges him against. The *World*, by the way, is no doubt correct in the main in saying that the Republican party may be fairly held responsible for the degradation of the judiciary in these latter days, though the implied inference that the Democratic party ought to be held in grateful remembrance as having been meanwhile engaged in the noble work of elevating it, cannot safely be made.

The difficulty between Mayor Havemeyer and the aldermen as to the police-justices still continues. The chief objection to the Mayor's men is that they are not the aldermen's men, but the aldermen have a great advantage in being able to show substantial reasons why one or two of the nominees should not be confirmed. Still, no reasonable person doubts that, compared with the present incumbents, the list sent in is a good one—indeed, a very good one—the police-justices now in power being as abandoned a set of ruffians as ever held office. The importance of the matter cannot be questioned, either. These offices have been for years the key to the "politics" of this city—that is to say, in the hands of corrupt men, they afford a means of keeping a large body of political retainers of the lowest and most efficient class on the side of the judges' party; in the hands of honest and fearless men, this serious danger to the freedom of elections would be averted. The salaries are large and the terms of office long. It may seem a strong statement, but it is nevertheless true, that Mayor Havemeyer has, for the present difficulty, only himself to thank. If up to the present time all his appointments had been good, the aldermen would have been forced by public opinion to confirm his last as they were forced to confirm his first appointments. The appearance on the Reform stage of Charlick and Matsell has relieved the public of all apparent necessity of having any opinion on the subject, and degraded the contest for the police judgeships into a low political game. We do not by any means say that the public ought not to be on the side of the Mayor, but they take little interest in the struggle, which begins to look altogether too much like an old "ring-fight."

The insurance companies, who practically have the power of preventing conflagrations such as those of Boston and Chicago in their own hands, have at last waked up to the necessity of doing something. With them, the government of Boston has also waked up, and a hearing on the subject is being had before a special committee. What the insurers and other reformers want is an efficient fire commission, with some responsible head. At present the responsibility is divided between the mayor, a committee of the city government, a chief-engineer, and perhaps other officials. So difficult was it to discover who was to blame for the fire of last year, that the same gentleman who was chief-engineer then has been chief-engineer ever since, not through popular clamor for his retention in office, but by the usual operation of the political machine, and in spite of the opposition of every intelligent person outside of the rings which exist in Boston as in other places. The last fire, however, has changed all this; it was a small affair, to be sure—it only destroyed about a million worth of property, and a few years ago we should have thought nothing of it, but, coming just when it did, it had a powerful effect.

The hearing now going on is marked by an encouraging display of intelligence on the part of the petitioners. They do not say anything about the Fire-Fiend, the state of the atmosphere, or the electrical currents, nor describe the extraordinary feats of the flames in leaping half a mile in the air at a time, and moving of their own free will directly against the wind, nor, in fact, allude in any way to the miraculous phenomena which were witnessed by early observers of the Chicago fire and the first Boston fire. They say, on the contrary, that what is needed is good management; that there is a "general feeling in the community that there should be some change." Mr. Jonas Fitch, a well-known builder and former member of the city government, whose knowledge about the "inside" of Boston may be said to be only commensurate with his opportunities, is no doubt to be relied upon when he says that the "management by a committee of the Board of Aldermen is not the most efficient." To sum up in a few words, what is needed in such cities as Boston, according to the common consent of those who have studied the subject, is a responsible head of the fire service, removable for cause, with a large salary and a long term of office, and a rigidly executed building law preventing the erection of dangerous buildings. Everything else, the blocking of the streets, the water-supply, the horse difficulty, the lack of "steamers" and hand-engines, are mere matters of detail, which would be certain to attract the attention of and be provided against by an efficient and honest commission. Men like Mr. Damrell do not trouble their heads about them, because they have too much to do elsewhere. One curious result seems to have been developed by this hearing, that New York is better protected against fire at present than Boston, the mixed system of responsibility having been long since given up in this city. Still, we should not advise any one to trust too much to this superiority; it is but a relative superiority.

Secretary Richardson announces that the reserve of $44,000,000 legal tenders will be kept intact—if it is a possible thing to do so; that is, if the crops do not need moving very badly, and the market keeps easy. This may be considered by some persons as a concession to public opinion, but it is in reality a device for getting the credit of being a financial reformer and at the same time retaining the power over the currency which Mr. Boutwell found convenient. As we have often pointed out, it would really be better to issue the whole $44,000,000 at once than to keep them hanging over the country as they have been kept for the past year or two. If they were all issued, or were all absolutely withdrawn, people who use money as a means of exchange—and the class of people who do this is not a small one—would be able to calculate with some certainty upon the condition of the market, to make contracts with some confidence as to their value, and to calculate upon prices at least fixed from day to day. There are enough uncertainties in trade and commerce in the best times to make it inexpedient for any government to hold out a continual threat of interference with them. Indeed, what with speculation and other natural difficulties, traders and merchants are playing what is a game of chance as well as skill already. For the Government to legalize a national gambling-table, and then to keep continually threatening to cog the dice unless the pool is kept filled, may be well-meant but is not wise. Of course, the whole thing is illegal, but that is an old story.

THE WALWORTH MURDER.

THERE is not much if any fault to be found with the Walworth trial, even by the severest critic of judicial proceedings. Indeed, as compared with the majority of murder trials in this city, it was on the whole a very gratifying and encouraging affair. The jury was found with little or no difficulty, and the prisoner was defended by a lawyer who is really as well as technically a "learned gentleman." With its past experience in its memory, the public can hardly help being grateful to the prisoner's friends for not entrusting his defence to a roaring blackguard. The result was that all things were done decently and in order, and the proceeding had all the appearance of being, and was in truth, a judicial enquiry into facts and not a game in chicane.

The verdict was, perhaps, what most people expected. It is right to say, too, that it was the verdict that will be rendered in ninety-nine cases out of a hundred of homicide by violence. The new law calls for a conviction in only the second degree wherever it does not appear that the murder was planned beforehand, and of course makes it the easiest thing in the world for the would-be assassin to keep himself out of the category of those who deserve the gallows. Nothing is simpler than to give killing the appearance of being the result of an intention formed on the spot. You have only to get up a quarrel with your victim about any trifle that may present itself to clothe his subsequent slaughter with all the marks of the second degree, and secure for yourself the immeasurable hopes and consolations of imprisonment for life. A man's intentions, alas! are only to be learned from his acts, and one's acts can always be arranged beforehand, so as to point to any desired conclusion. This is especially worthy of attention in view of the fact that the offence of killing is no longer hedged round with any presumptions of law. There is no act of the criminal now from which a jury is legally bound to infer any other fact. The whole matter is left to their consciences. This leads us again to say that the new law is seriously defective in not making the possession of a pistol presumptive evidence of premeditation. There would have been no hardship in this. Nothing is easier for a young man when he goes out in the morning than to leave his pistol at home. It is an uncomfortable thing to carry, and no one carries it without harboring somewhere in the recesses of his mind, in some shape or other, the design of killing somebody. It may be sleeping, or may only be half formed, or may never have presented itself definitely to him, but it is there, and only needs the touch of passion to spring forth into crime. We therefore trust most sincerely that the next legislature will amend the act of this year by providing that all murders, whether "deliberate" or not, which are committed with weapons (not tools) carried on the person of the murderer, shall be murders in the first degree, as a matter of law, leaving the prisoner to upset this presumption by surrounding circumstances if he can. This would be simply declaring that a man who goes about armed is a would-be murderer, which in the majority of cases would be true in fact.

If this rule had been applied to young Walworth, he would have been convicted of murder in the first degree. He went armed to an interview with his father, solicited by himself, and that he knew the interview might result tragically was proved clearly enough by his letter to his uncle. That the shooting was brought on by himself his account of the interview would leave plenty of reason for believing, even if he had not done his slaying with his back to the door, or, in other words, with the means of escape within his reach. Indeed, few persons who read the evidence carefully can help believing that he sent for his father meaning to kill him; and yet there was doubt enough about it to justify the jury in saving him from the extreme penalty of the law. We may as well say here that the sentence passed on him does not, in our opinion, amount to much. Neither he nor any of his family, we venture to say, look on it as more than a temporary inconvenience. The defence which was offered to the jury, with only partial effect, foreshadows very clearly the arguments which will be used to get the Governor to pardon him, and they are arguments which governors are in the habit of regarding, and which will in the present case be urged with unusual force and backed up by unusual influence.

These arguments, too, have already more or less affected the public out-of-doors, and indeed one has only to read some of the comments on the trial, especially those which appeared in the *World*, to see the very process by which is generated the morbid condition of feeling and imagination out of which murders grow and through which murderers escape justice. There were certain letters read on the trial, addressed by the elder Walworth to his wife, with the view of furnishing palliation, if not justification, for the parricide. They apparently produced little effect on the jury, but they have unquestionably done a good deal to alter the complexion of the act in the popular eye. They were very wild and very brutal and very disgusting, and would have been very shocking if they had not been plainly the composition of a lunatic. Nobody who was not in some degree demented would ever have taken the trouble of writing them. They furnished abundant justification for Mrs. Walworth's refusal to live with him, and would have warranted any court in denying him access to his minor children. That they were the letters of a dangerous man, however, was not shown. He appears to have been more terrible on paper than anywhere else, as became a manufacturer of thrilling romances for the Sunday press. He had ill-treated his wife grossly, but neither she nor her children nor her property was any longer in his power. The position he occupied towards them was therefore that of a nuisance—a most painful and mortifying one it is true, but still only a nuisance, and this nuisance there were at least two ways of abating. If he was insane, they could have had him shut up in an asylum; the family is one of means and influence, and abounds in lawyers. If he was simply odious and depraved, they could have had him put under bonds to keep the peace, or, failing this, held in confinement. In short, there is ample legal provision for just such cases as his.

Moreover, such cases as his are by no means rare. Nothing can be more untrue or unjust or dangerous than the common practice of treating the provocation and the woes of respectable and well-connected criminals as unparalleled and irresistible, while meaner wretches are allowed to go to the gallows without a whisper of allowance or qualification. The Ketchums and Fosters and Stokeses, we are always told, act under some overwhelming necessity which destroys moral responsibility, while the Kings and the Reals and the Nixons steal and slay with open eyes and depraved natures. The fact is that such husbands and fathers as Walworth are by no means uncommon. There is not a street of this great city which does not contain several of the same class. If every wife had the means or courage or money to bring her griefs into court, Mrs. Walworth's sad story, down to her husband's death, would speedily wear the appearance of a slight misfortune. There is probably nothing, not even the sack of a stormed city, which brings out the devilish and animal parts of some men's nature as the unchecked control of another human being's person and feelings does. There are thousands of poor women in this city, without friends or hope in this world, who have to listen every night to the ravings, and bear the blows and tortures, of tyrannical beasts, compared to whom Walworth was harmless and decent and merciful; and yet the world knows nothing of their sorrows unless when, now and then, some unlucky blow terminates their misery and their life together; and thousands of others pass their lives in higher stages of the same hell. What is the remedy for this state of things, except the general elevation of human nature, it would be hard to say. Legal remedies few people will care to discuss who seriously consider the condition of a woman whose youth and health have been passed in bearing children, and who has to face life without heart or hope or training for any calling by which money may be made, and whose nearest friend has turned into one of those fiendish enemies by whom no male human being is ever pursued in civilized society.

Now, what have the happy and the well-to-do, the law-makers

and lawgivers, and the moralists and the commentators, to say to these unfortunates? Something they are always saying—whether in verdicts, or decisions, or sermons, or articles. Are they really prepared to say that the proper disposition to be made, even of a cowardly, tyrannical, cruel, filthy blackguard, is to have his children kill him on their own judgment? If this cannot and ought not to be said, why are we to sympathize with young Walworth? If we decide that his father's half-dozen dirty letters, preceded by his odious life, even palliated his murder, does anybody suppose that the thousands who are suffering from similar woes will take note as we do of the fact that the Walworths are a highly respectable family, in a good social position, and therefore less able to bear a ruffian than the obscure herd of unfortunates who have no family mansion to take refuge in and no kind relatives to draw on? Will the son of the poor washerwoman not feel that he is far more justified in ridding his mother of his drunken ruffian of a father, who steals her earnings every Saturday night and thrashes her with a pair of tongs, than the well-born youth whom a hundred friends surround, to whom a hundred kindly doors are open, and who, well educated and well connected, may soon be prepared to atone to her for his father's follies, by achieving all that his father one day promised and that she fondly hoped to see? Is there not something sulphurous in the sympathy which contemplates as possible under any circumstances a son's exemption from all responsibility for his father's faults to such a degree as not only to relieve him from the obligation of covering them, or making amends for them, but to qualify him in never so slight a degree to kill him in a hotel in a civilized city, and within a stone's-throw of the police court? What system of sociology, or morality, or religion is it which authorizes a son to look on his father as simply an odious citizen, of whom he may in a passion lawfully or even pardonably rid the state?

Though last, not least, it ought to be said that crimes like Walworth's, and especially the crimes of young men, are, we believe in a large majority of cases, the result of a habit of mind which consists in the frequent contemplation of homicide as a possible means of reaching certain ends. There are large numbers of men among us passing as very respectable who cultivate this habit, and it is stimulated by carrying weapons, and by the indulgence of public opinion for crimes of violence with a show of provocation behind them. Nobody who has ever examined the workings of his own mind needs any explanation of the facility with which the most terrible or odious acts may, by the steady contemplation of them, be made to seem just, tolerable, and lawful resorts. They are happy and pure, indeed, who have never had to fight against those frightful impulses, and nobody ever fights against them, not even the purest and best, without finding his resistance immensely strengthened by seeing outside his door the terrors of public indignation and of offended justice. The great use of public reprobation and of legal penalties is in fact not so much the punishment of those who have committed offences, as the strengthening of those who are wrestling with temptation. It is at the moment when a man is thinking whether he had not better pistol a troublesome enemy that the jail and the gallows serve him in best stead, and it is at that moment, too, that the sympathy bestowed on those who have considered the same problem he is considering, and have solved it the wrong way, often recurs to him with disastrous results.

"OUR BETTER POLITICIANS."

PERHAPS it may be taken as the rising of a very small star in the East that Mr. Hale's or Mr. Blaine's convention in Maine did not confine itself wholly to the works of the past and glories of the future, as is the well-established custom of political conventions, but did hint at one piece of work to be done in doing away with the reckless legislation to which we have grown accustomed in the last days of the session. These last days of the session have so long been regarded as the explanation and apology and justification of whatever is very bad in Congress, that doing away with them must certainly strike the average Congressional mind as a very startling and dangerous innovation. The necessity of reform within Congress never presents itself to the Congressional mind, and the common mind of the country has not yet caught the idea that legislative proceedings, like other agencies of government, can be restrained, and guided, and disciplined, and brought within the limits of system and order. If this resolution of the Maine Convention can be made to grow and multiply into numerous resolutions, each having a definite object and proposing some tangible piece of work to be done, the public will begin to be educated in the ways and means of securing good government, and will cease to be satisfied with the present immeasurable quantities of talk. Can it be that the American mind—the most practical mind in the world—is at this present time utterly without practical knowledge in matters of government? To illustrate: The Government has this year conferred upon us the very great convenience of postal-cards—twenty-two million issued, and twenty-two million more demanded and not yet ready to be supplied. But these postal-cards were not devised by the American Government. It has not of late years devised anything. They are but a plagiarism from Germany, and it is now three years since Germany showed their practical convenience to the whole world by their wonderful circulation in the army, and it is more than two years since England took them from Germany and gave them to the British public, while it has taken all this time for our legislators, who prate so much about American activity and vigor, to copy this one little product of European thought and give it to the American people. A loose and fanciful theory called protection has governed the country for some time, but even this theory has been committed to the guardianship of colluding "interests" and "influences." The tariff laws are mere pieces of patch-work, on which the largest "interest" and the most active "influence" has always succeeded in stitching the biggest patch. An absolute revision is needed, as the greater portion of all intelligent men know; and Mr. Wells has spread before the country a basis of action, in the way of data, such as has given him a reputation throughout the civilized world; yet the political talent of the country does not know what to do with his facts. A step towards practical work was taken by Governor Hoffman when he called Mr. Wells to the task of revising our State system of taxation; and considerable benefit has resulted therefrom to the people not of New York but of England, where several hundred thousand of Mr. Wells's reports have been circulated and studied; but the only use which our professional politicians would dream of making of the volumes would be to extract a few fine-sounding sentences to put in one of their platforms. "*Resolved*, That taxation should be pre-eminently just, so as practically to benefit the capitalist and the laborer, the rich and the poor: *Provided*, however, it is understood that it be required to take care of itself and shed its blessings spontaneously"—such is the substantial purport of the resolutions that our practical statesmen think sufficient to satisfy an intelligent people. Accustomed as we all are to their monotonous routine, we may indeed regard it as a ray of hope when a political convention comes down in its resolutions to one practical point, the abolishing of one legislative abuse.

As a general rule in the affairs of this world, people who do not bring their views to a practical test, but expend their entire time in talking about them, are held in some contempt; and to say that a man is a mere theorist will always be taken as a term of reproach. In our legislative world, the reverse of this is at the present time the fact; and any man who endeavors to bring down the principles of good government to practical application is really regarded as a fanciful gentleman, not at all adapted to the work of modern politics. If Mr. Jenckes had confined his efforts for civil-service reform to platitudes in Congress and platforms in politics, he would have been esteemed by General Logan and his fellow-talkers in Congress as a truly sensible statesman, and the more lofty the

tone of Mr. Jenckes's platitudes, and the more nearly his platforms demanded absolute perfection in the civil service, the more truly sagacious he would have been deemed by the Logans and their fellow-talkers. But the moment Mr. Jenckes passed from the realm of talk to that of work, and proposed doing instead of promising, he really shocked the political sensibilities of his best Congressional friends, and was set down as a "mere visionary" quite as emphatically as if he had introduced a bill to provide for the building of Mr. Edward Everett Hale's brick moon.

We may note in this connection one thing which many persons must have observed, and of which some have spoken as one of the anomalies of Congress. It would be extremely unwise to assume that every man in Congress is ignorant or unprincipled, or indolent or unpractical. On the contrary, almost every intelligent person knows, or knows of, some member whose life gives assurance that he is intelligent and high-principled and practical and has the good of his country thoroughly at heart; who, in short, *before he was elected* to Congress, seemed to be just the man who ought to be there. How repeatedly of late years have we all seen some such man, of whom great things were expected, sent to Congress or to the legislature at the cost of no little sacrifice on the part of himself and of unusual efforts on the part of his supporters, and then how useless he seemed when he got there, how little he accomplished, how utterly he failed to lead or to control. And next, how certainly one of two things happens: either that he fails to return there, or else that he drifts into the circle of "the better sort of our politicians," and lives a compromise kind of life, made up slightly of what was expected of him out of Congress, chiefly of what is expected of him by Congress. The phenomenon is how invariably such men, when they reach Congress, seem to be appalled and benumbed; how invariably they regard the walls of the Capitol as the boundaries of the country, and think that success in public life means getting upon a committee or carrying a bill, forgetting the greater and truer success of instructing the public mind and leading public sentiment. The explanation of this is not obvious, but is still not far from the surface. It is that men shrink from doing that which the majority around them deem ridiculous. Thus, in the House of Lords, where a youthful peer indulging in a little rhetorical flight about the momentous consequences of a measure will be hailed with jeering cries of hear! hear! and ironical applause, lofty rhetoric has no place; and the most ambitious youth, though boiling over with spread-eagle eloquence, enough for a dozen of our political platforms, has to come down to hard work and common sense, if he would be heard there at all.

Thus Mr. Jenckes, when he introduced his Civil-Service Bill in Congress, spoke neither with the zeal of a reformer striking his best blows at a corrupt abuse, nor as a practical statesman addressing practical statesmen, and commending to their intelligence a thoroughly feasible plan, sanctioned by the experience of other countries, for improving the administration of government, but, on the contrary, in a certain embarrassed, explanatory, apologetic tone, much like that of a cautious missionary addressing a band of self-satisfied savages who philosophically hold that abolishing man-eating will tend only to diminish the supply of food, and that refraining on moral grounds from their accustomed joints and chops is a ridiculous bit of sentiment altogether contrary to the party usages of their fathers. In such an assemblage, what could a well-meaning missionary say when a great redskin warrior like General Logan could rise and aver that man-eating is right and proper, good for the digestion, nutritious for the body, soothing to the mind, and not injurious to the party eaten, all Europeans and missionaries and squaws to the contrary notwithstanding; and when a half-civilized chief like timid Mr. Dawes could only be got to say that, after sixteen years of personal experience in cannibalism, he was really unable to suggest any plan for giving it up, and, until a proper plan should be devised and adopted, he should feel individually bound to keep on eating?

Of men in Congress from whom the country might expect effective aid in the way of practical reform, Mr. Blaine and Mr. Hale are examples. The one, powerful, courageous, and effective, as is shown sufficiently by his administration as Speaker, and his handling of Butler; the other a young man, intelligent, cultivated, patriotic, and with a fair share of determination and ambition. Fifty years ago, with their present experience, they would have risen to the rank of intelligent legislators; now, they have dropped into "the class of our better politicians." Both, unfortunately, have positions to maintain within Congress; the one is Speaker, the other chairman of an important committee, and neither is free to attack Congress, and use the power of public opinion toward forcing unpalatable work upon those procrastinating bodies. The result, too, of their experience is unfortunate, the result of their Congressional training being to set a man to solve the problem of what can be carried through Congress, and not the problem of general legislation for the future welfare of the country. Nevertheless, no one will be indisposed to hope that these gentlemen may now be endeavoring to turn public attention to one practical reform, and, without quarrelling with Congress, are attempting to bring a power to bear upon it that will be the entering wedge for a better legislative system.

RENAN'S 'ANTICHRIST.'

PARIS, June 21.

I.

M. RENAN'S 'Antichrist' has at last appeared. The author of 'The Life of Jesus' is as careful as an *impresario* about the conditions under which a new work of his appears before the public. The 'Antichrist' has been waiting a long time, but could not come to light so long as the political fermentation continued. Now that Marshal MacMahon rules instead of M. Thiers, Renan could almost say with Virgil, *Deus nobis hæc otia fecit.* The French character is so elastic that all the terrors which disturbed the country a month ago have completely vanished; our minds are pacified, and we can read books again. Renan had carefully watched his opportunity, and he feeds our hungry appetites with his new work on the origin of Christianity.

It is needless to say that the 'Life of Jesus' soon became popular; it has attained the exceptional number of thirteen editions. The two following volumes were much more severe in their character, less romantic, if I may say so, and more filled with the somewhat arid details of exegesis. The first editions of 'The Apostles' and of 'St. Paul' are not yet quite exhausted. But I should be surprised if the 'Antichrist' had not a popular success, though it will never equal that of the 'Life of Jesus.' There is something in the very name of the 'Antichrist' which strikes the poetical mind, and this new volume of Renan is only half filled with pure exegesis; the other half is given to history.

In his introduction, Renan enters into an elaborate discussion as to the authorship of the Apocalypse, which is generally attributed to St. John. He attempts to prove that it must be the work of a member of the Church of Jerusalem: the Apocalypse is not of the Pauline school—it breathes a constant hatred of the Gentiles. Its author does not belong to the broad church; he is a fanatic; he thinks of nothing but Rome and Jerusalem; Rome is to him the city of all abominations; he has seen its idolatrous pomps and its crimes; Jerusalem is the beloved city. The author of the great Apocalypse is very conversant with the numerous old apocalypses; he must have known not only the Greek, but the Hebrew language. All these traits can be well applied to St. John. M. Renan doubts, however, if St. John wrote the Apocalypse himself. "It is enough for my *thèse*," says he, "that he knew it, and he allowed it to circulate under his name." What is this *thèse* M. Renan speaks of? He considers the Apocalypse as a sort of mysterious manifesto, as a protest against the tyranny of Rome and the crimes of its emperors. St. John was not a literary man, one who could from memory, with fragments of the ancient Jewish book, compose a sort of mystical pamphlet of this sort. Either the synoptic Evangelists are wrong when they represent the Apostles as plain and rude men, and not as learned and scholastic, like the Scribes and Pharisees, or St. John was not likely to have composed the Apocalypse himself; but in a time when people did not care much about literary property, he may have accepted it, and allowed it to circulate under his name.

The book of M. Renan opens with the captivity of St. Paul in Rome. Nero is entering his twenty-fourth year. The cell of St. Paul becomes the focus of the new religion, which soon finds devotees in the very house of the emperor, among the Jews, among the slaves, the freedmen. Renan admits the tradition of the arrival of St. Peter at Rome; St. Peter

represents the passions of the school of Jerusalem, of the narrow church, and, though he was full of admiration for Paul, he follows him and acts as a prudent guide and counsellor. The general belief of the churches in the second century of our era was that Peter suffered martyrdom in Rome, but the Protestant professors made great efforts to prove that the journey of St. Peter to Rome had never taken place, in order to shake the very foundation of the Papacy. The question has not so much importance as was at first believed, as it is well ascertained that Jesus did not institute any primate among the apostles, that he was not the founder of the episcopate, and that he was not likely to choose out Rome, from all other places, as the permanent seat of the primate of the church. The vexed question of St. Peter's journey to Rome has become a mere historical problem. M. Renan solves it in the affirmative. He represents, in vivid colors, the followers of the new sect in the midst of Imperial Rome, the city of horrors and crimes, the new Babylon, sad, full of an undisguised antipathy for the Roman world, turning them away with horror from the old sanctuaries of the official religion, accused by the multitude of the most mysterious and heinous crimes.

In vain did St. Paul preach submission to the political authorities. Many of the early Christians had all the ardor of the zealots of Judea; they had the spirit of martyrs. And how could their sombre enthusiasm not be stirred by the sight of Rome? The world was given up to a madman: "When Cæsar lost his mind, when all the arteries of his feeble head, disturbed by an unheard-of power, broke at the same time, then madness began to rule. Under Nero, it was something atrocious and comical at the same time, grandiose and absurd. As the Cæsar was a good scholar, his folly was particularly literary. The dreams of all the centuries, all the poems, all the legends, Bacchus and Sardanapalus, Ninus and Priam, Troy and Babylon, Homer and the poems of his own time, were floating together in the brain of a mediocre artiste, full of conceit, to whom fate had given the power to realize all his chimeras. Let us imagine a man as sensible as the heroes of M. Victor Hugo, a personage of carnival, a mixture of the madman, the *jocrisse*, and the actor, with an absolute power, and charged with the mission of governing the world. He had not the black wickedness of Domitian, the love of evil for the sake of evil; he was not extravagant like Caligula; he was a conscientious *romantique*, an emperor of the opera, a *mélomane* who trembled before the parterre and who made it tremble before him, and would be nowadays a *bourgeois* whose common sense would have been perverted by the reading of the modern poets and who would think himself obliged to imitate Hans of Iceland or the Burgraves."

I must notice for the first time, in M. Renan, this introduction of modern names in old subjects; it is very frequent in this new volume. He once calls a friend of Nero, a quiet old senator, this "sceptical Mérimée." In the siege of Jerusalem there are constant allusions to the siege of Paris, to the Government of the National Defence, to the *Communards*. These allusions and comparisons seem to me beneath the dignity of history.

Nero was an artist in crime; his ideal of a great man was the man who would do anything, try anything, accumulate in the smallest time the greatest number of most sensational dramas. He even affected love and friendship, but merely as dramatic sentiments. He was handsome, clever, and fond of admiration. Suetonius has left us a very exact account of his court; it is enough perhaps to say that Petronius was the most virtuous of Cæsar's friends. Any idea with a man like Nero became a fixed idea. He was haunted with the memory of the fire of Troy. He had the unspeakable joy of playing the part of Priam during the fire of Rome. He was away when the fire began at Antium, but he returned and saw the imperial palaces of the Palatine, his own new palace which he called only "transitory," destroyed. It is difficult to recompose the truth out of the legend of the fire of Rome, but it is difficult not to believe that Nero saw in this misfortune only a prompt method of public expropriation, and an opportunity for making a new Rome finer than the old one. But the public conscience revolted against the Emperor. "An infernal idea came then to his mind," says Renan. "He looked for some unfortunate creatures, even more hated than himself, on whom he could throw the odium of the fire. He thought of the Christians." The Romans regretted their old temples, one built by Evander, another by Servius Tullius, the palace of Numa, and so many others. But who professed to hate these holy places? Who looked sad and scornful before the time-honored porticoes? The Christians. They had certainly not set fire to the city; it is not so certain that they did not enjoy the downfall of many monuments of idolatry. Nero hardly knew what the Christians were; but he was fond of the society of the Greeks, of the Orientals, and among the Jews who had access to the court were probably found the men who denounced the Christians to the Emperor.

The era of martyrdom began. The spectacle of human massacre had become one of the amusements of the people-king. The convicts of the whole world were sent to Rome for these festivities. "Rome," says Renan, "saw few more extraordinary days. The *ludus matutinus*, which was consecrated to the battles between animals, saw a strange procession. The condemned, covered with skins, were thrown in the arena and torn in pieces by dogs; others were crucified; others, with their tunics impregnated with oil or tar, were attached to pieces of wood and reserved as luminaries for a night spectacle. When the night came these living lamps were lighted. Nero offered for the spectacle the magnificent gardens which he possessed over the Tiber, and which occupied the actual site of the Borgo of the Church and the Place of St. Peter. . . . At the sight of these hideous torches, Nero, who has introduced the fashion of night races, showed himself in the arena, sometimes dressed as a jockey in the ranks of the people, sometimes conducting his chariot." Atrocious dramas were played, where Christians played their part in earnest: the Romans saw a Hercules obliged to tear a burning robe from his skin, an Orpheus torn in pieces, a Mutius Scævola burning off his hand, all the fables of antiquity, Dœdalus, Pasiphaë, the scene represented by the celebrated Farnese Bull now in the Museum of Naples. Nero, who was short-sighted, was present with an emerald at his eye, on the podium, above the Vestal Virgins.

The vestals of the new church were in the arena, the noble virgins, who were exposed to the eyes of the lascivious Romans before they were torn by wild animals. The sacrifice of Christ inspired the representatives of the new faith. Paul and Peter probably fell victims to the fury of the persecutors. A cruel death seemed the natural death of every Christian. M. Renan supposes that John escaped from Rome, where he had stayed but a little time, and found a refuge in Asia; he admits with many exegetists that he went to Ephesus, the church of which was joined by many refugees from Rome. John, after the death of all the companions of Christ, became the spiritual head of the church, and Ephesus for a while became the centre, the focus, of the new doctrine.

Correspondence.

PRESIDENT ELIOT AND OBERLIN COLLEGE.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: In your issue of June 19, p. 417, giving some account of the correspondence between Mr. Magill and myself, you say that I deny the statement of President Eliot, in reference to his conversation with the Matron, on his direct authority.

Allow me to say that it was not in my thought to *deny* his statement, but merely to give the views of our lady Principals—of our present Principal and of the lady who occupied the place when President Eliot was here. There is no one connected with the school who is known here as "Matron." The term would be naturally understood as designating the "Principal." Doubtless President Eliot had a conversation with some lady who he supposed occupied that position—possibly with the stewardess of the Ladies' Hall, although she does not recall the conversation.

In justice to President Eliot and myself, it seems reasonable to make this explanation.—Yours truly, Jas. H. Fairchild.

Oberlin College, O., July 2, 1873.

THE ASSOCIATED PRESS AS A NEWS AGENT.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: I have for some time past intended to draw your attention to the miserable way in which our daily press is served by its agents in Europe who make up the Cable despatches.

The public is treated to columns of news about races, the fighting Spaniards, the Shah of Persia, and the like, while it is left in the dark on questions of great importance to business and the country generally.

Here is a case in point. The financial world is on tiptoe to know how and when the millions hoarded by the German Government are to come out and relieve the European money market. We know that this question depended largely on the passage of bills pending before the German Reichstag referring to the new coinage and the regulation of the paper money. We also know by telegraph that the Reichstag adjourned on the 25th of June; but no public telegram has informed us of the passage of those bills, or of any decision on the important questions involved, and our gold market and exchanges are at the mercy of private parties who may possess that information.

Will not your pen try to stir up the managers of the Associated Press, and urge them to appoint intelligent agents in Europe, who will serve them better? By so doing, you will oblige, among many business men,

A Constant Reader.

New York, July 2, 1873.

Notes.

IN response to an invitation issued by Mr. Simon Sterne, a number of gentlemen held a meeting on the 30th of last month in this city, to organize a Memorial Committee in honor of John Stuart Mill, "either to co-operate with the one formed in England, or to take independent action." Rev. H. W. Bellows was called to the chair, and Mr. Sterne acted as Secretary. Many projects as to the form of a memorial were advanced and discussed, one meeting with special favor being that of a memorial edition of the works of Mr. Mill. Letters were read from Messrs. Beecher, Hewitt, Frothingham, Peckham, and many others, expressive of their sympathy with the object of the meeting and regretting their inability to be present. After the election of William Cullen Bryant as permanent President, and Mr. Sterne as permanent Secretary, of the American Mill Memorial Committee, the meeting adjourned, subject to be reconvened at the call of the officers and the chairman *pro tem.*, Mr. Bellows.

—Commemoration Day at Oxford was signalized in the traditional way by the speech of the Public Orator in honor of founders and benefactors, by the uproariousness of the undergraduates, and by the bestowal of honorary degrees. The recipients of the degrees this year were Mr. Munro, the well-known Latin scholar and editor; Professor Tyndall—*naturæ indagator strenuus*; and our distinguished countryman, James Russell Lowell. Mr. Lowell was presented to the Vice-Chancellor as one known to all as author of those "carmina quibus ficto Hoseæ Biglow nomine statum reipublicæ suæ priorem animo patriæ amantissimo perstrinxit." This was received with long-continued applause from every part of the Theatre, and so was a reference to Harvard, that "celeberrima atque nobis dilectissima academia." Great applause was also accorded Mr. Tyndall, whose degree, however, calls out some expressions of dissatisfaction from some gentlemen. Honor should not have been accorded, says one of these, to a man who has publicly written against belief in the efficacy of prayer. But other writers point out rather neatly, and perhaps more neatly than conclusively, that Mr. Tyndall's degree was given him for having written very well on science, and that his having written very feebly on the efficacy of prayer would be but a poor reason for withholding from him his reward. We are told that the name of Mr. Gladstone was welcomed by the undergraduates with a storm of groans and hisses, Dr. Liddon's was received coldly, while Dr. Stanley's called forth a great deal of cheering, as did that of Mr. Burgon, a clergyman of "advanced" views and with a talent for pamphleteering discussion marked by the kind of sharpness so much affected by sarcastic clergymen. The *Daily Telegraph*, says the *Times*, and its Khiva Correspondent divided attention with the *Church Herald*, the Shah, Archbishop Manning, and the "Claimant," whom some wag professed to have discovered in the audience. The usual attention was also paid to the ladies in every conceivable color and category—as the blue, the very blue, the pretty, the plain, the married, the single, and the old women in the arena, all of whom were duly cheered, but the turbulence is reported as having subsided on the entry of the magnates, and the proceedings of the convocation to have passed off with the most laudable peacefulness.

—Mr. Frederick Harrison, in the last number of the *Fortnightly Review*, has made a scathing reply to Mr. Fitzjames Stephen's 'Liberty, Equality, Fraternity,' in the shape of an article which he calls "The Religion of Inhumanity"—a religion which he refers to elsewhere as "Stephenism." "The religion of inhumanity," as Mr. Harrison depicts it, is no sweet creed of sympathy and love, but a religion from which all sympathy and love is banished. As for your filthy love, Mr. Stephen is represented as saying, "don't daub me with it; keep it to yourself. Hate is what we know how to make use of." The chief article in the creed of the Inhumanitarians, it seems, is the existence of Hell, as a place of punishment for the lowly, humble, and meek—Heaven, if there is one, being reserved for those who have always from time immemorial governed the earth—for brave, prudent, hardy men, who "know what they want and mean to have it." Of this Heaven, filled with successful lawyers, rich nabobs, powerful kings and emperors, enterprising Wall-Street brokers, active Indian civil-servants, and presided over by Bismarck, Mr. Harrison draws a pleasing picture. He accuses Mr. Stephen of having misinterpreted Comte (it is worth while observing that Mr. Stephen confesses that he has never read Comte through, and indeed, now that Mr. Mill and Miss Martineau have died, there is perhaps no one living except Mr. G. H. Lewes who can be decisively proved to have performed this feat), and says that Stephenism is "Calvinism *minus* Christianity," and is also the literary expression of that sort of muscular self-satisfaction which induces strong, active boys to be perpetually requesting their school-fellows to "feel their biceps." He accuses Mr. Stephen's style of "brawniness," and suggests that 'Liberty, Equality, Fraternity,' if we did not know its author, might be taken for the literary recreation of a "hanging judge." The article contains, besides this good Anglo-Saxon badinage, a valuable criticism of one part of Mr. Stephen's book—that in which he reduces to "force" all kinds of influence, from the mildest sort of persuasion to the rack and thumb-screw, and argues that "liberty" as used by modern writers is a meaningless term, because any influence is in so far an infringement of perfect liberty. Mr. Harrison replies to this, that though it is mathematically true it is practically false, because in practice people do not consider the right of persuasion an infringement of their freedom, while they do so consider the rack and thumb-screw. There is in such cases as this a difference in degree which amounts to a difference in kind, and Mr. Stephen's argument seems to be very much like an argument that people ought to consider a cat and an elephant the same animal, and use them for the same purposes—the cat, for instance, as a beast of burden, and the elephant as a domestic pet—because they are both animals.

—In his twelfth paper on the "Study of Sociology" (*Popular Science Monthly* for July), Mr. Herbert Spencer discusses the question of what is to become of religion—whether it is going to disappear from the world altogether, or is going to remain under new forms. It is unnecessary to say that Mr. Spencer is neither a humanitarian nor an inhumanitarian nor an orthodox believer, nor yet a believer in "free religion"; but, though he does not profess adhesion to any creeds yet accepted or yet offered, he has by no means given up religion, which he says must continue to exist in the world as long as man remains in it. Religion, according to Mr. Spencer, rests fundamentally on the mystery of nature. The savage first shows it in the feeling excited by some display of power with which he is not familiar—some sagacity, for instance, in his chief, leading to a result he does not understand. To the savage, however, there is nothing mysterious or awful in the regular sequences, the constant relations, about him. There is nothing remarkable to him in the law of gravitation, because everything obeys it. "Only anomalies in that course of causation which he knows most intimately—namely, human will and power—excite his surprise and raise questions." As civilization goes on, the wonder excited by anomalies, whether in man or nature, is dissipated, and a new kind of wonder begins—that caused by the uniformities. As science transfers more and more things from the category of irregularities to that of uniformities, "the mystery that once attached to the superstitious explanations of them becomes a mystery that attaches to the scientific explanation of them. There is a merging of many special mysteries in one general mystery." Gravitation is far from explaining why an apple falls to the ground. Indeed, what is called gravitation is merely a general term for a force of which we know nothing. The astronomer, "though he helps himself to think of the sun's action on the earth by assuming an intervening medium, and finds he must do it if he thinks about it at all, yet the mystery reappears when he asks what is the constitution of this medium. Though compelled to use units of ether as symbols, he sees that they can be but symbols. Similarly with the physicist and the chemist. Though the hypothesis of atoms and molecules enables them to work out multitudinous interpretations that are verified by experiment, yet the ultimate unit of matter admits of no consistent conception. Instead of the particular mysteries presented by those actions of matter they have explained, there rises into prominence the mystery which matter universally presents, and which proves to be absolute." So that, between the savage and the civilized man, the only difference is that the first sees God wherever he sees anything he does not understand, while the latter, though he may just at present think that all he sees in clouds or hears in the wind are the laws of matter, may in the long run recognize "*behind* every act and appearance" a superhuman mystery. No one need expect, then, Mr. Spencer says, "that the religious consciousness will die away, or will change the lines of its evolution." Nor need any one expect, either, that the "religion of humanity" will be the religion of the future; for "however dominant may become the moral sentiment enlisted on behalf of humanity, it can never exclude the sentiment alone properly called religious, awakened by that which is behind humanity and behind all other things."

—The hostelry once kept by Henry Baily in Southwark, and in which five hundred years ago were gathered

> "Wel nine-and-twenty in a compagnie
> Of sundry folk . . . .
> That toward Canterbury wolden ride,"

is now offered to be sold by auction, and appeal is made to the English public to purchase it "to preserve such a landmark of old England from destruction." In any other country, says Lord Ronald Gower, "such a venerable and historical building would have long since been cared for by the state"—an assertion which looks doubtfully correct; for, as the *Daily News* observes, a distinction is to be admitted between the relics which belong to

romance and those which belong to history, the latter not improperly being often made the care of the state, but the former almost never in the history of people of our blood. Still we may conjecture that the state might often justify an expenditure for preserving such relics as Chaucer's famous tavern, for the same reason that would justify its keeping visible monuments of historical achievements; the pride of the citizen in such fellow-countrymen as Chaucer and Shakespeare is fully as conservative a sentiment as the pride in the career of Marlborough or Nelson or Wellington, and thus as worthy the fostering attention of the powers that be. So, or more generously, have reasoned other nations than the English and American. However, it will probably be left for the Chaucer Society to take this view of the subject, for the *News* can give Lord Ronald Gower no better encouragement than a hint that Mr. Ayrton's susceptible heart may melt into an appropriation because of Chaucer's having formerly been Clerk of the Works in Westminster—a suggestion which Mr. Ayrton has probably by this time read with a pleased but ironical smile, and a wish that Lord Ronald Gower would call on him with the proposed request. The *News* goes on to say that should this application be unsuccessful, there may be on our own side of the water "a cousin 'once removed' who will boldly bid for the Tabard as it stands and transship it bodily to Boston or New York." But the best of our communities show small disposition to keep among us such reminders, whether of historical or poetic greatness, and we fancy that Mr. Barnum and Mr. Jerry Thomas are too well aware of that fact to add the Tabard to the attractions of their unrivalled establishments.

—Mr. Joaquin Miller is announced in the London *Bookseller* as being engaged on a new work, chiefly autobiographical, which, if at all like a production of his in the last *Independent*, ought to be translated for the American department of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*. We take the liberty ourselves of reproducing it in a very condensed form: In Shasta County, California, some years ago, the scurvy suddenly came into a mining camp and prostrated six of the little company. They were very likely to die, for the camp was a lonely one, to which all food, medicines, and supplies of whatever kind had to be transported on the back of the miner, and along a rough path which led across a lofty snow-covered mountain ridge. But one of the miners who formerly had followed the sea recollected that he had heard of a means of cure not beyond their reach, and to make trial of this was at once resolved upon. Six deep pits, dug in the shadow of a huge pine, soon laid bare the warm alluvial soil; in these the patients, stripped to the skin, were placed, and then the fresh earth was carefully shovelled back, so that each man was securely buried up to his chin. In the fitful moonlight they appeared to their watching comrades like men rising in resurrection to meet the judgment. What, however, was the anti-scorbutic merit of this mode of treatment their companions did not discover. The sleep of the miner, when his day's toil is over, is not so much a sleep as a stupor, and soon after the last of the buried men had dozed off, their friends also found themselves drowsy; perhaps, too, they were a little frightened at the spectacle before them—the six pale heads, with their shocks of hair, the occasional flicker of the moon in the blackness of the night, whose stillness was broken only by the occasional howling of the wolf or the faint rustle of the trees. For whatever cause, they at all events sought their beds and fell into a sleep from which none woke till dawn. At that hour they went to visit their comrades, and found that the wolves had come down and eaten off every one of the heads level with the ground. Mr. Miller, in beginning his narrative, says that he shall put into it but one thing that is not true, so the reader has an opportunity to reject the scorbutic story if he likes; some of the other things he will find worth reading.

—An interesting contribution to the art of cataloguing is now making by the Library of the Boston Athenæum. Besides the catalogues of 1827 and 1840, and the librarian's catalogue kept on cards, the proprietors of the Athenæum have had for information as to accessions to the Library only the Bulletins, with brief titles, published to the number of twenty-two from 1862 through 1871. The catalogue now publishing differs from the former in mixing subjects with authors and titles, the subjects being cast partly in an alphabetical form, and partly arranged on scientific principles of division. The system of classification is similar to that of the Boston Public Library, though with obvious improvements, as one of which may be mentioned the giving of imprints under subject-headings with the authors and titles. A convenience of an alphabetical classed catalogue is seen in the title 'Atta Troll,' with the proper reference to Heine—a reference which illustrates as well the perplexities the cataloguer is driven into when he asks himself whether such a reference, being the mere title of a poem, shall be an exception or a rule. An extremely valuable feature of this catalogue is that "collections" and the "proceedings" of historical and scientific societies have not only their contents drawn out at length, but the different contributions entered separately, with analytical references to the volumes in which they occur. Of this work, a great part was done by the late attaché of the Library, Mr. Charles Lowell, and it has been executed for this catalogue with a fulness which we believe to be unique. Imprints do not appear to be given in a uniform manner, names of places of publication being sometimes given in full and again abbreviated. Perhaps this inconsistency, if it is made with an eye to economy of space, might be avoided if the analytical references were made in a somewhat more compact form. The general aspect of the catalogue, however, and the details of printing are very creditable to the taste and the judgment of the present librarian. We hope that the resources of the Athenæum allow Mr. Cutter so large and valuable a force of assistants that he has more leisure than most librarians to make contributions to the theory of classification and to literature. The public may ask that the author of the admirable account of the catalogue of the Library of Harvard College, which the *North American* lately published, shall not have his time engrossed with such details as might find accurate treatment at the hands of proper assistants. The printing had advanced, when we examined the sheets last, as far as an entry under Boccaccio—320 pages of double columns.

—Mr. Wm. H. Whitmore has reprinted in a single pamphlet, from the proceedings of the Massachusetts Historical Society, two essays of his: one, 'On the Origin of the Names of Towns in Massachusetts Settled prior to A.D. 1775'; the other, 'On the Name of the Town of Lexington,' to which the author, for special reasons, has given particular attention. He finds the town to have been named not in honor of Lord Lexington, as Mr. Hudson has surmised in his history, but probably after the town which gave that nobleman his title—Lexington, Laxington (Laxton), Notts, England. The naming of the Massachusetts towns Mr. Whitmore shows to have been quite naturally influenced by the period at which it took place. In the Colonial period, "the colonists gave to their towns names chiefly of English origin. Of the sixty towns named before 1690 in Massachusetts Colony, not one retained an Indian name; while Scituate and Monomoy are the only two examples in Plymouth Colony." Further, we have the curious fact that "although both colonies were Puritanic, Salem and Rehoboth were the only Scriptural names." The minister, however, frequently named or was the occasion of naming the town. Capt. John Smith, too, by his prophetic map of 1616, did much for the town nomenclature, giving us Boston, Plymouth, Sandwich, Barnstable, Dartmouth, Bristol, Falmouth, etc. In the Second Charter period (1694 to 1774), the greatest change was brought about by the practice, introduced in 1732, of incorporating towns by act or resolves *in blank*, leaving it to the Governor to fill in the name to his liking. After this date names began to be freely borrowed from the titles of royalty, the British peerage, and the prominent political leaders of the day. For the first century (1620–1732), Mr. Whitmore gives the following classification of Massachusetts names:

"One or two Scriptural and Indian names; certain descriptive words originating here, as Marblehead, Westfield, Deerfield, Westborough, etc.; the names of English or Welsh counties; one or two names of Colonial celebrities. Lastly, a large number of places of little importance in England were remembered here, and the strong presumption is that these names were given by emigrants from these parishes."

The field is an interesting one, and by no means yet closed for the investigation to which Mr. Whitmore has given so fair a start.

AMERICAN CHURCH MUSIC.*

I.—PSALMODY.

AMERICAN psalmody was born of poor but honest parents about a hundred years ago. Billings was sponsor, and Read, Edson, and Swan next of kin. But the tunes of that generation have fallen into oblivion for excellent reasons. They lack the two vital conditions of vocal music: namely, truth to the chosen text and suitability to the human throat. Besides these two deficiencies, there were the lapses of illiteracy. The harmonic faults are of the cheapest and vilest description. It is difficult to conceive how such strains could ever have been regarded as music. Early in the present century came Dr. Thomas Hastings, a gentleman of taste and musical feeling. He is the inventor of the American prayer-meeting tune, of which his well-known "Rock of Ages" is a good specimen. This kind of tune requires a melody which is easy to remember and to sing, and

* 'The Glory: a Collection of Music for Singing Classes and Choirs, etc.' By Geo. F. Root.' 1872.
'The Standard: a Collection of Sacred Music.' By L. O. Emerson and H. R. Palmer.' 1872.
'The Advance: a New Collection of Hymn Tunes, Anthems, and Chants. By H. S. Perkins.' 1872.
'The Coronation: a New Collection of Music for Choirs and Singing Schools. By Theo. F. Seward and Chester G. Allen; assisted by Dr. Lowell Mason.' 1872.

a bass such as the average bass-singer can find out for himself. Hence arise the chant-like rhythms, the preponderance of uninverted chords, and the frequent return to the tonic. Such music is essentially simple and natural, and, although unsatisfactory to an artistic instinct, serves a very important use in social meetings. Though somewhat wanting in bold and aggressive elements of character, Dr. Hastings exerted no small influence on his generation.

In 1822, Lowell Mason published the 'Handel and Haydn Society's Collection' of sacred music. Here were first introduced many arrangements from classic sources, together with a large supply of the author's own. The book had a great success, and was the opening of the "singing-book era" of American musical cultivation.

The psalm-tune is not the greatest of musical creations. It is either plain and simple, easy to sing without help of instruments and with few voices, and thus especially appropriate for the prayer-meeting, or strong and massive, suited to large bodies of people, and in harmonic structure sufficiently complex to require the help of instruments, and in this case suited to the great congregation; or it is delicate and expressive, and thus especially the prerogative of trained singers—and this is the choir-tune. These three types shade off into each other by imperceptible degrees. The distinctively American type is the prayer-meeting tune, a melody easy to catch and lively of rhythm. The choir-tune is based on German or English models; the congregational melody is out-and-out English.

The psalm-tune, however simple, should be characterized by refinement and elevation of sentiment in some degree commensurate with the text to which it is wed. For the Christian hymnody contains, along with much trash, a great deal of the purest and most elevated sentiment to be found in literature; and, in the more fortunate instances, this nobility of sentiment is expressed in a phraseology terse, picturesque, and in every way suitable. But the tunes that fill up the books before us are very far from conforming to an equally high ideal. In many cases, they are the work of poorly instructed writers, and in staleness of melody, poverty of harmony, and awkward leading of the voices, they betray the 'prentice-hand. The nobility which we so commonly find in Handel, the melodic grace of Mozart, the godlike tenderness of Beethoven, and the refinement of Mendelssohn might as well never have been; on these productions they have left no trace. Yet in church music these qualities find their highest use.

Lowell Mason began as a composer for choirs. He seems to have taken for his model the best specimens of the English tunes of the day, such as "St. Thomas" and "St. Martin's" (both of which were written by a trained musician), and to have cultivated his taste by a diligent study of the best oratorios accessible to him. With such influences acting upon him, it is not surprising that in 'Cantica Laudis,' published in 1850, he should have reached a high standard of refinement. This work is largely made up of selected passages from oratorios, symphonies, and chamber music. In point of tasteful execution we must be permitted to hold this book for the best of its class yet issued from the American press. In its preface, the authors (Mr. George James Webb was associated with Dr. Mason) make a number of good resolutions against multiplying meaningless tunes of their own, to the exclusion of better works from other sources.

But the people who pay their money and take their choice among music-books, as well as in every other kind of manufactured goods, did not make choice of 'Cantica Laudis,' and in their next work the authors turn decidedly toward simplicity, in the hope of reaching the masses of the people. The end of this road is reached in the 'Glory' before us. In the tune-books which form the successive stages of the course, we see beauty, grace, and sentiment gradually fading away, until, as just said, in the 'Glory' we meet with only the most meagre suggestions of musical inspiration. Nor is the reason of this want of fidelity hard to find. The life of any work of art is in its striving after the most complete expression of an artistic ideal. But in the course in question we find a turning away from the ideal towards the convenient, the easily-reached, the salable. Dr. Mason himself, in our opinion, went too far in this direction, though he never forgot to strive after a degree of elevation of sentiment and dignity consistent with the words and the occasion of their use.

There was indeed some excuse for the general simplicity of his later harmonic treatment in the frequent and even common use of the books by singers unassisted by instruments. The general character of the transition is from the choir and congregational type to the chant-like form of the prayer-meeting tune before described. At the same time, he put a real end to the popular demand for new books of psalm-tunes for purposes of worship by his advocacy of hymn and tune books, the use of which was of course inconsistent with frequent change. And this cause is now in operation far more than ever before. In actual church use, the tunes and hymns are being winnowed, and though the chaff still lies on the pages of the books, it is not allowed to fill the place of the wheat.

Between Dr. Mason and Mr. Root intervened the era of Bradbury and Woodbury. Bradbury has more fluency of melody than any other American writer. His tunes lie well for the throat, and have a pleasing turn of melody. In point of significance we must place them low in the scale—a verdict fully confirmed by the quick oblivion into which the Christian church has suffered them to fall. The case of Woodbury is even worse. Taken up by a powerful denomination on the strength of what politicians call the "pious dodge," it was sought to stereotype the psalmody of that church according to his notions. The attempt has gloriously failed. Woodbury's tunes have pretty but tasteless melodies, and very weak and insignificant harmonies. In the technical matters of "voice-leading" they fall far short of the good taste that characterized Dr. Mason's work.

Meantime, the choirs were being neglected. In New England the predominance of Puritanism on the one hand, and the reaction into the cultivated but unaggressive type of Unitarianism on the other, accompanied likewise by a gratifying growth of musical taste, all worked together to produce the fashion of the quartette choir. On musical and devotional grounds, the relegation of the church singing to a quartette, even though they be archangels in a high state of cultivation, is indefensible; but for all that it is in many places the fashion. And we all know that whatever place may be taken by the divine in the next world, fashion has decidedly the upper hand here. The prophet of the quartette dispensation is Mr. L. O. Emerson, who published his 'Harp of Judah' in 1863, and the book reached a very large sale. The distinguishing traits of the new departure were a closer approach to the sentiment of the words, a freer use of sentimental discords and the key of D flat—a key, as all quartettes religiously believe, remarkably tender, touching, and *recherché*. In point of melody, Emerson's tunes are easy to sing and graceful. At the same time, they lack that peculiar piquancy which renders them easy to catch and whistle, and consequently they are safe from the debasement of prayer-meeting use. In the construction of this kind of tunes there was room for a more complete return to a dignified and significant progression of the bass voice. Whoever compares a few of Handel's basses with any of the popular books of psalmody will be struck with the awful inaction that has befallen the present generation of bass singers. To them might be applied the remarks of good Dr. Watts:

"Look, how we grovel here below."

To be precise, the basses in these recent tunes have no melody. They take the tonic and sing it until it ceases to be applicable, and then change it for the dominant. But go back to "Stonefield," and we find grace and refinement fully equal to the best modern productions, and at the same time a manly independence in the bass progression, recognized by all good composers as the proper method for the bass voice.

In the matter of truth to the text, Dr. Mason sought only a general truth suitable to the hymn as a whole, and not especially to one particular verse. But the general course of modern musical development is to give vocal music the utmost dramatic truth to the words consistent with the lyric form. And so we find in the 'Harp of Judah' a frequency of suites of two or three tunes to different stanzas of the same hymn. These suites of tunes, whether two or three, are to be judged really as a single work—a point overlooked by the composer, as would appear from the formal solecism of all three tunes being in the same key. Such a suite of tunes is in effect a motet in which the various members are not structurally connected, and in this case with a monotonous and unsymmetrical modulatory structure. Like all music not constructed in accordance with well-ascertained principles of taste, their race will be a short one, though probably they will serve an important use in calling the attention of uncultivated singers to the need for some degree of correspondence between the sentiment of the words and the music to which they are uttered.

But little remains to be added concerning the particular books whose titles stand at the head of this notice. Of the 'Standard' it is enough to say that it shows no especial advance as compared with the 'Harp of Judah.' The author's vein of originality seems to be exhausted. The 'Advance' seems to follow mainly the model of Mr. Emerson's works. In the tune "Thebes," p. 150, we have an example of a senseless deviation from an established rhythm, where nothing in the words requires or justifies it. The second line is inconsistent with the first. It is a musical *non sequitur*. It is impossible to turn over these pages of tunes and believe they were ever originated by a real ecclesiastical feeling. They are choir studies: exactly this, and nothing more. The importance attached to the singing-class relation of the book is shown in the allotment of no less than one hundred and fifty pages of space to that department. The 'Coronation' is one of the best-bred books of this class we have seen. Many of the tunes are remarkably elegant, especially a number by Dr. Wm. Mason. At the same time, it is perfectly apparent that

nothing new remains to be said in the way of metrical tunes, at least by the present race of composers. 'Coronation' was doubtless intended chiefly for singing-class use, and for this it is well fitted. It is proper also to add that in the matter of voice-leading this book has been far more carefully supervised than usual. It is superior to any of its competitors.

The heart of the psalm-tune is broken. Under its influence America has become a singing nation. The composers have bridged over the chasm between the snuffling psalm of the Puritans and the secular part-song of musically cultured people. The very men who failed furthest in reaching the high ideal properly expected of church composers really did most for secular song. Dr. Mason gave us the singing-school, and systematic singing-teaching in the public schools, and congregational singing. Bradbury, Woodbury, and Root wrote music that all the common people sung. The appetite for song has grown. Taste and ability have become equal to higher demands. It is now time to affix secular words to glees in place of the sacred words hitherto prevalent. It is the dawn of a day of better musicianship in popular composers.

RECENT NOVELS.*

'PSYCHICAL analysis' is, we believe, the name that is given to the exceedingly distasteful quality which marks Mr. Julian Hawthorne's novel, 'Bressant,' and which is to be found in many French novels of various grades, as well as in the yellow-covered literature of other times and countries. It is called analytic because it discusses a problem, the problem being the way in which a man loves two women at the same time, one with a sort of brute-like ferocity, and the other with all the purity and tenderness of a lofty nature. This complex man is Bressant; the diverse objects of his devotion being two sisters, Cornelia and Sophie, the daughters of a slipshod recluse, Professor Valeyon. Bressant, we are given to understand, is "a child in the world of the affections"; he has received from his father a singular education; and when he finds himself an orphan at the age of twenty-three or four, he makes his way to Professor Valeyon, nominally to study theology—which, so carefully has he been taught, he thinks is a profession, very much as civil engineering is—but really to develop his remarkable talent for bigamy. One evening he walks in the garden with Cornelia, the beautiful but bad sister, and while there the following incident takes place. In a pause in the conversation she kills a mosquito that is biting his hand:

"Bressant felt the soft, warm fingers strike smartly, and then begin to remove, cautiously and slowly, because the mosquito was possibly not dead after all. What was the matter with the young man? His blood and senses seemed to quiver and tingle with a sensation at once delicious and confusing. In the same instant he had seized the soft, warm fingers in both hands and pressed them convulsively, almost fiercely. Cornelia very naturally cried out, and sprang to her feet. Bressant, it would seem not so naturally, did the same thing, and with the air of being to the full as much astonished and startled as she.

"'What do you mean, sir? How dare you?' she said, paling after her first deep flush.

"He looked at her, and then at his own hand, on which the accommodating mosquito was artistically flattened, and then at her again, with a slight, interrogative frown.

"'How did it happen? What was it? I didn't mean it!'"

The next appearance of this simple-minded student of divinity is at a village ball, and although his dancing had hitherto been as much neglected as his affections, he, "beautifully as she danced, was no whit her inferior. They moved in complete accord. Years of practice could not have made the harmony more perfect." On his way home with Cornelia, Bressant stops a horse which is running away with his prospective father-in-law, but thereby he breaks his collar-bone. He staggers on, groaning, to the front steps and then faints. Soon Cornelia is obliged to go away to see fashionable life, and Sophie's turn comes. She reads to him, and in a few days they are engaged. This is kept a secret from Cornelia, who returns and is somewhat dismayed at the turn things have taken. She has become a mass of worldliness in her absence, and the French novels she has read have found her an apt pupil in ways of guile. Not unjustly, she had considered Bressant as good as engaged to her when she went away, and she is soon successful in winning the inexperienced young man back to the adoration of her charms. Then, too, if he married Cornelia he would be rich; if he married Sophie he would be only a poor country clergyman. Cornelia wins the day, Sophie dies of a broken heart, complicated by typhoid pneumonia, and so the story ends. If this were all, if there were no other faults to be found with the book than that the plot is awkward, the study of character crude, the telling of the story unskilful, the novel might be dismissed with very few words. It would be simply a poor novel. But the truth is that it is a very bad thing. It is bad because it lacks decency. In the place of genuine study of human beings, it gives us a morbid fingering of unclean emotions. After an experience of many centuries, society has agreed that there are certain subjects which shall not be talked about by its members, and which are eschewed even by intimate friends, and hence one cannot help regarding with even greater dislike a book which is to have wide circulation among inexperienced readers, who get a very great part of their knowledge of the world—to call it knowledge—from what they read, and which will give such persons so inaccurate and misleading an idea of what they themselves and other people are.

We should feel inclined to call it the worst novel in our list this week if it were not that we have just been obliged, in the way of duty, to read Mr. Edgar Fawcett's 'Purple and Fine Linen,' which might more justly bear the title of 'Scarlet and Dirty Linen.' The story is told by a gushing young woman of this city, who keeps a diary, and it is this imaginary diary which is printed. She is the daughter of a worldly-minded mother, the money-making and somewhat vulgar father having died before the story begins. The family is somewhat tainted with "shoddy," as may be seen in the extraordinary misuse of the English tongue of which Mr. Fawcett often represents it as guilty. The heroine's mother marries her to a Mr. Fuller Dobell, a lordly but poverty-stricken aristocrat, whom Helen, the daughter, fondly loves. He, however, is a son of Belial, and is madly infatuated with a beautiful but improper woman. This high-minded hero, who sells himself for money, does very little to hide his misdeeds from his wife, whom he imagines to be a true daughter of her mother, and to have contented herself with securing a better position in society. She, however, feels a not unnatural jealousy, and strives to reclaim her husband. She had already been warned about the true state of affairs before she was married, but to little effect. The graceless scamp makes himself notorious; his wife tracks him to a masked ball where his mistress is to be; the two women meet, and clapperclaw each other; a friend of the wife, who is also in love with her, takes her away, insults the husband, and fights a duel with him; the husband is dangerously wounded, and is carried to the house of his mistress; the wife disguises herself, and nurses him; she shows him that the woman is false to him; and the book closes on a charming scene of pure family affection. Such is this bad imitation of the worst sort of French novels; it has to recommend it nothing but this—no wit, no truth, nothing but this unnatural vileness, to speak plainly, though less plainly than the book deserves. It has, by the bye, among its other merits, the merit of being a gross libel on American society.

'Hero Carthew' is favorably introduced by the statement that it is by the author of 'Dorothy Fox.' It is a very pleasant, readable novel, with an agreeable love-story, the scene of which is laid in a sea-coast village in England. The pleasantest thing about it is its gentle simplicity, its avoidance of any struggle after effect, so that if it is not the mightiest intellectual product of the time, it is certainly a very pleasing and readable one.

A novel of even greater simplicity and of more positive merit is 'Under the Greenwood Tree,' which, like 'Hero Carthew,' is one of the recent additions to Messrs. Holt & Williams's "Leisure Hour Series." It is a story of English rustic life, told with a delicious humor, and with a more careful study of character than is at first apparent. It describes the love of a young country lad for a pretty girl who has some of the qualities which adorn the minx. There are rivals to anger him, and there is coquettishness to baffle him, and the combination is cleverly managed, so as to keep the reader in a pleasing state of uncertainty as to the issue of the novel. It is such a charming little tale that those who are going off for the summer and who are casting about for light reading appropriate for the season, cannot do better than slip this volume into their trunks. We have not read anything more fresh and good since making the acquaintance of Björnson's 'Arne'; or, to make a comparison which shall hint at a peculiar quality of the book, since we read Barnes's poetry of rural life. We hope the other novels of this author which are announced may follow soon.

'A Vagabond Heroine' is the title of the last of Mrs. Edwards's rather rowdy novels. This writer, with all her faults, is never prosy, and she throws the charm of her brightness over the unnecessary vulgarity of the

* 'Bressant. A Novel. By Julian Hawthorne.' New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1873.

'Purple and Fine Linen. A Novel. By Edgar Fawcett.' New York: G. W. Carleton & Co. 1873.

'Hero Carthew; or, The Prescotts of Pamphillon. A Novel. By Louisa Parr, author of 'Dorothy Fox.'' New York: Holt & Williams. 1873.

'Under the Greenwood Tree. A Novel. By Thomas Hardy.' New York: Holt & Williams. 1873.

'A Vagabond Heroine. By Mrs. Annie Edwards, author of 'Archie Lovell,' 'Ordeal for Wives,' etc., etc.' New York: Sheldon & Co. 1873.

'Must it Be? A Romance. Translated from the German of Carl Detlef. By M. S. With illustrations.' Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1873.

'Ready-Money Mortiboy. A Matter-of-fact Story. By the authors of 'My Little Girl,' etc., etc.' Boston: James R. Osgood & Co. 1873.

'Ruth Maxwell. By Lady Blake, author of 'The Lady of Lyndon,' etc.' Boston: James R. Osgood & Co. 1873.

'Why She Refused Him. By Lorrain.' Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1873.

'Meta Holdenis. Par Victor Cherbuliez.' Paris: Hachette et Cie. 1873.

story. Some of her novels which appeared a few years ago are less marred by this fault, but two or three, some of which were written earlier, are sadly marred by it. They are not absolutely coarse, but they come too near it to be pleasant reading for any one, or safe reading for young readers. 'A Vagabond Heroine' might do no harm, but it would certainly do no good. Mrs. Edwards is capable of doing much better work, as indeed she shows by flashes in this novel.

'Must it Be?' is the name of the translation of a novel by Carl Detlef, which is, we believe, the pseudonym of a German lady living in Russia who has some reputation as an imitator of Turgenef. In this novel there are few traces of slavish imitation. The scene is laid in Russia; the heroine is the charming daughter of evil-behaving, quarrelling parents; her lover is poor in worldly goods, but rich in all that makes heroes admirable. There is much more melodrama in the plot than is needed, but the novel will be found not absolutely unreadable by those who care to find out anything about the country which is described in it. There is nothing of Turgenef in it; in fact, it is no better than half the novels which are daily appearing, but neither is it any worse.

'Ready-Money Mortiboy' is a novel the interest of which depends on the vast number of its incidents taken from the life of the present day. One of the heroes is the victim of poverty, and so has a rich experience, with which those who have comfortable lodgings are but little familiar; and then there are very black villains, who are successful for a long time; and the artificial young women of such novels, who seem more like the heroines of the novels of forty or fifty years ago than living human beings. In its way, which is innocent enough if not the best of ways, the book is tolerable.

'Ruth Maxwell' will not be found slumber-destroying if taken up at one's usual hour of going to bed. It is a novel of social life, and with a vaster number of intricate complications of family relationship—like the occasional problems of that sort which travel through all the newspapers of the country—than the inexperienced mind cares to have the trouble of solving. If the story is not entrancing, it is certainly perfectly harmless. It contains hardly anything more than social vexations and joys, told with very little reserve; but its dulness is its only fault.

A most extraordinary novel is 'Why She Refused Him.' There is a great deal of most improving conversation in the book, of which the following may serve as an example:

"'Do you like Milton, Miss Travers?'

"'I admire his sublimity, originality, and genius; yet sometimes he makes failures. The first and second books are examples of the highest sublimity; the sixth also affords specimens, particularly relating to the appearance of the Messiah; but the witticisms of the devils have been justly censured. The latter part of the poem is not so well sustained. With the fall of our first parents the genius of the author seems to have declined; yet there are passages of a striking character—those which relate to the remorse and contrition of the guilty pair.'

"'In what particular do you think he has failed, Miss Travers?'

"'In several. For instance, when he describes the Almighty; when he relates dialogues between Father and Son; also in his delineation of Satan, who makes a striking figure, it is true, and is considered by many the best character in the book; yet Milton has not described him as an infernal spirit should have been described. He appears no worse than some bold, factious chief sometimes read of in history. The different characters of Beelzebub, Moloch, and Belial are exceedingly well painted; and among the good angels are the dignified Michael, the mild and affable Raphael, and the faithful Abdiel, all finely drawn characters.'"

And yet women complain that they are not educated!

'Meta Holdenis' is the last of M. Cherbuliez's novels. It has quite recently been appearing in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, and is now published in book-form. The story is told in letters by a young man, a painter, to a lady, a friend of his, living on the Rhine, who has written to him that she has chosen for him the maiden he is to marry. This latter is a charming girl, sentimental as well as practical, and her eyes are of a heavenly blue; but about those heavenly blue eyes he has his own opinion, and the novel is the account of the manner in which his present opinion of them was formed. Several years before, when he was a young painter, he made the acquaintance of a German family living in Geneva, and more especially of a daughter of this family, Meta Holdenis, who charmed him by her tender romanticism, which, however, did not make her scorn her household cares. The girl's father wheedled him out of a good part of the little sum of money his father has given him to set out in the world with, and the girl, after listening to his suit, determined at the last moment to marry a richer and much older man. He flies to Dresden, feeling that now at length he knows the world, and forgets his sufferings in hard work. While there, he makes the acquaintance of the French Minister, and they soon become warm friends. This Frenchman, true to the habits of his countrymen in the pages of novels, runs away with another man's wife, and they are soon living together in France, Tony, the painter, with them. A governess is needed for the child of the Frenchman and his companion, and one is obtained. She is Meta Holdenis. Naturally, at an early opportunity, Tony and Meta seek an explanation, which has the usual result of explanations in complicating matters more than ever, bringing him again under the power of her fascination. She, however, seeks nobler game, and soon is making her way by dexterous flattery into the heart of M. de Manserre, the Frenchman, while, at the same time, like a cautious girl, she has two strings to her bow, and by no means spurns Tony. In the course of time, the offensive husband dies, and the crisis of the story comes. The intrigues of the girl are discovered, and she leaves the house. Afterwards she becomes a Protestant sister, and denounces the immorality of the French, taking an account of the conduct of Tony and M. de Manserre for her text. It is, as may be seen, the story of an intriguer, and, in our opinion, it makes a very interesting novel. It shows very well the curious combination of good and evil motives which dulls the conscience of such mischievous people, and makes them seem less guilty to themselves. Then, too, is to be noticed the way in which the narrator, Tony, half apologizes for and half conceals the extent to which he had admired the girl after he knew the dangers of her character, which is a very natural touch. The novel does not need translation, but it may be safely recommended to readers of French as a very interesting story.

LAZELLE'S 'ONE LAW IN NATURE.'*

WE cannot speak of Captain Lazelle's 'One Law in Nature' with much respect. Though it does not betray the dense ignorance which many pretentious theories of the universe do, we cannot say that it has any value as a contribution to natural philosophy. We may defend this judgment by two citations. On page 17 we read:

"Though tractive effort between masses of matter, without an intervening medium, cannot be understood, and though the mode of this invisible sympathy is as incomprehensible as is its nature, yet its existence is undeniable."

Now, in point of fact, there is nothing to determine whether gravitation acts through a medium or directly at a distance. All that we know is this: if it is propagated through a medium from one part to another adjacent to it, this process must, according to all analogy, occupy time. But, on the other hand, if there is no medium, the action cannot take time without violating the law of the conservation of energy—a law which, if it is not known positively to hold in such a case, may reasonably be supposed to do so. Now, Laplace has shown that, if the action is propagated through a medium, its velocity is, at least, many million times that of light, and that there is no reason for abandoning the simpler supposition that gravitation acts instantaneously. But Captain Lazelle's notion that any simple and obvious facts disprove the existence of a medium has no foundation.

The second citation shall be from page 19:

"Though this force (gravitation) may extend through space independently of matter, yet it cannot be said to do so instantaneously; as successive positions must be occupied in successive increments of time."

These two opinions, that gravitation acts without a medium, and yet that it takes time to act, do not harmonize. But observe the reasoning: Gravitation cannot act instantaneously because successive positions must be occupied in successive times! But what if these positions are not successive? Cannot there be attraction at different points at once? Physicists are perfectly ready to examine general theories of the forces of nature, notwithstanding the fact that there is not a single instance of such a theory (imagined, and not derived by induction) which has finally taken a place among established truths. For example, the undulatory theory of light is proved up to a certain point, namely, that light consists of some sort of vibration transverse to its direction of propagation. This is a result of induction. But no attempts to go further and imagine of what sort this vibration is, though the greatest mathematicians have made them, have met with such success as to be admitted to a place among established truths. Yet physicists always look upon such attempts to represent the mechanism of natural forces with favor; but they demand that they shall be developed with mathematical precision, and be shown to express known laws with mathematical accuracy. This Captain Lazelle has not done.

All physicists believe that everything in the outward world may be expressed in terms of mass, of space, and of time. The redness of a rose as it exists in the mind which sees it, is what it appears to be; but as it exists in the rose itself, it is only the fact that the particles vibrate in a

*'One Law in Nature: A New Corpuscular Theory, comprehending Unity of Force, Identity of Matter, and its Multiple Atom Constitution, applied to the Physical Affections or Modes of Energy. By Capt. H. M. Lazelle, U.S. Army.' New York: D. Van Nostrand.

certain time. This time may be expressed as a number. And in a similar way, no doubt, every property of any body might, if we only knew how to do it, be expressed numerically in terms of the pound, the yard, and the second. Of these physical constants (or numbers expressing properties) almost all are either peculiar to some particular thing (such as the dimensions of the earth) or to some kind of substance (such as the atomic weight of hydrogen). In the whole range of physics, we can expect to find no others and know of no others, except only two: first, the amount that one gramme attracts another gramme placed at a distance of a metre, which is 0.00000000000003 metre cubes per gram-(second)^2, and the velocity of light, which is 300000000 metres per second.

By choosing the appropriate relation between our units of mass, space, and time, we can give these constants any numerical values we please. For example, we might make them both unity. But if we had a third universal constant, we could not make all three unity, at least without determining the absolute value of our fundamental units. Now it may be considered reasonable to suppose that considerations relating to the general laws of nature should lead us to adopt a certain ratio between our units. We have an example of this in the measure of lengths in different directions. A length north and south, a length east and west, and a length up and down, are three quantities as incomparable with one another as a time and a weight. We may therefore take a mile north and south as our unit of length in that direction, and an inch east and west as our unit of length in that direction, and, since these units cannot be compared, they are unequal only in the sense in which a day and a pound are unequal. But now, it is a great law of nature (our familiarity with which must not be allowed to breed contempt) that bodies may be turned from one direction to another, and that when a body is so turned without being subjected to any strain, the numerical value of its length north and south bears a certain constant ratio to the numerical value of its length east and west. This ratio necessarily depends on the relative magnitude of the units of length in different directions, and this fact has naturally led us to assume these units, so as to reduce this ratio to unity. If there is only one law in nature, it is this law of the rotation of bodies, and if this is the only one there is, times and masses are in no way subject to law. A natural force is in fact nothing but a general relation connecting measures of different quantities. We must, therefore, suppose at least two forces to establish relations of mass and of time to space. These are the two forces whose constants are the absolute modules of gravitation and the velocity of light. But our whole conception of the universe, and therefore our whole experience, are opposed to there being another general relation, for such a one could only exist by establishing absolute values of our units. Now, it is not to be believed that general considerations in regard to the nature of things could ever lead us to assign a particular numerical value to the measure of any particular thing, such as our standard measure. We have, therefore, reason to believe that while we doubtless are ignorant of the precise form of the fundamental principles of nature, we at least are not mistaken as to their number.

Men of the Third Republic; or, The Present Leaders of France. Reprinted from the London *Daily News*. (Philadelphia: Porter & Coates. 1873.)—This entertaining little volume is so evidently the work of a journalist that we scarcely need to be told that its chapters were originally published as letters to the London *Daily News*. They are written from the stand-point of a sprightly republicanism—honest, effective even so far as it goes; but not altogether adequate to measure the present situation in France. To do this is needed not only sketches of the men who are in power, but a background against which they may be effectively grouped, and an analysis of their relations to the deepest elements of the situation. But such background is quite wanting, and the analysis, though attempted, is rather superficial. The author has jotted down the most noticeable traits of the personages selected as representatives of the Third Republic in the rapid fashion in which an amusing amateur sketches the company at a picnic. Hence, outside peculiarities of form are emphasized more than essential differences of organization; a crooked nose, a large ear, a bushy eyebrow, are seized upon because needed to identify the sketch, while more essential circumstances are passed over as unnecessary for that purpose. This may be more clearly seen by comparing the silhouettes of this volume with some of the portraits in our great historical galleries, with Gibbon's description of Athanasius, with Michelet's analysis of Louis XI., with Louis Blanc's fine picture of Chateaubriand.

The great importance of M. Thiers's position, especially at the time that this correspondence to the *Daily News* was written, and the extensive records of a long life, so active both in literature and politics, that were open for examination, would repay a much more careful study than that which the author has seen fit to bestow upon the first President of the Third Republic. He calls him, indeed, "a giant among his contemporaries," gives a slight but vivacious account of his youth, alludes to an act of "buffoonery" quite truly declared to be untranslatable into English, discloses a new view of the Conservative statesman by reviving the history of his guerilla warfare against Charles X., and styling him the "Rochefort of the Restoration," describes the tenacity of his opposition to the Empire and his bearing towards the Revolution of September, but carefully avoids all discussion of the real question at issue, namely, In what relation does M. Thiers stand, by antecedents or character or policy, to the Republic, or to the various interests conflicting within it? The chapter is too much imbued with the prevailing bourgeois formula, "M. Thiers is the salvation of the country"—formula of the "weak-kneed centrists," who have since overthrown M. Thiers for MacMahon. In like manner, the author's estimate of MacMahon is somewhat tinged, in spite of himself, with the "sturdy soldier" superstition, and a tendency to believe that a man who had been a "Legitimist fire-eater," an Orléanist general, a Bonapartist marshal; who had never "vouchsafed but a sulky allegiance to the Republic, and was never tired of clamoring after the least street riot, 'Ah! yes, this comes of liberty'"; who "would not abet the swindling of a penny at cards, yet could consent to aid in cheating the liberties of a whole nation"—that this man might possibly be induced to "step out at this moment and declare himself Republican." Subsequent events have not confirmed this hope, but rather demonstrated MacMahon's consistency to his old fondness for a "régime of order," which, the author remarks, "generally seems to mean a régime that has been tried before, and given a fitful order to the streets by introducing disorder into the public finances, into the public morals, and into the public ideas of international amity."

The most satisfactory chapters in the book are those on the men concerning whom little was to be said; for that is well said. The most unsatisfactory chapters are upon subjects that offered abundant material for the thoughtful analyst; for it is in them that the superficial method of the book is most disappointing. Where only one thing is to be determined—the relations of the subject-character to Bonapartism, or to a Republicanism comprehensible from an English point of view—everything is plain sailing and stated with justice and sufficient accuracy. As soon as the subject becomes more complicated, the author grows confused. Thus, the review of Louis Blanc seems written by a person who had never read a line penned by one of the most brilliant of contemporary French writers. The author seems to have talked with a great many French gentlemen and ladies about Louis Blanc, and to have accepted their estimate of him without criticism. There is a pretty sketch of Barthelemy St. Hilaire "quietly nursing the weak-kneed congregation who sit in the middle of the house and call themselves Centrists; that is, men who never have been able to make up their mind, nor are likely to." Father Hyacinthe's chances of success or rather failure in France are well estimated when it is said "that the French may be roughly divided into two parties—the bigots and those who do not believe anything, the latter again subdivided into the openly infidel and the deferential classes. The bigots ban the idea of church reform as blasphemy; the free-thinkers dismiss it as not worthy their attention: the *pococurante* majority do not want to hear ecclesiastical matters discussed at all." The portrait of Bishop Dupanloup is charming, but the nature of his present influence in France, and especially of his tenacious opposition to education, is not carefully considered, as it deserves to be. A man who believes in the value of the deathbed confession of Talleyrand, who opens a regular crusade against the instruction of women, insisting that they must be exclusively brought up "sur les genoux de l'eglise," may be an ascetic, a saint, an eloquent and even extremely interesting personage, but one whose relations to the present epoch in France must necessarily be both singular and perplexing. Into these relations the author discreetly avoids penetrating. Nor does he attempt to show the close connection that exists between the doctrines of that school of eclecticism of which M. Jules Simon is "one of the best pupils," and the pale philosophy expounded by him in his treatises on natural religion, on education, and on the working-classes; and, finally, between that philosophy and the curious mental and moral enervation that seems to pervade a certain section of French society, precisely in proportion to the influence of this school.

But it is perhaps ungracious to criticise a book for what it is not, when it only professes to be something so ephemeral as a collection of letters to a newspaper. Binding, however, gives an illusory air of solidity to such ephemera that is sometimes mistaken for depth and insight and research. In a discussion of the intestine dissensions of a South American Republic, such mistakes are comparatively harmless. But in France, the theatre of conflict for all the ideas of the modern world—those inherited from the past and those that belong less to the present than to a distant future—conflict of

knowledge and of densest ignorance, of headlong courage and of a "policy of fear,"—of the most tenacious prejudice and most impetuous radicalism—a conflict carried on in a country where ideas seem endowed with visible bodies, and words with a power that alone would account for the extraordinary sensitiveness in regard to them unknown to thicker-skinned Anglo-Saxons—in regard to such a country, such a struggle, such a wonderful situation, it is important to make no mistakes, especially not those that depend on an underestimate of the calibre of things or an overestimate of the relative calibre of persons. With this reserve, we recommend these sketches to that numerous class of readers who detest history but enjoy the *feuilleton*, whose intellectual curiosities are satisfied when they have cut the leaves and turned over the pages of men, or books, or things.

Political Portraits. By "A Prominent London Journalist." (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1873.)—Among small books for summer reading, a good place may be given to this volume of sketches by "A Prominent London Journalist." Whether or not he has been a Parliamentary reporter, he has been a frequenter of the two Houses, so that he has a sort, at least, of personal acquaintance with the men he describes; and he has evidently taken a strong interest in their characters and careers, and brought an acute observation to bear on the originals of his portraits. He paints them skilfully, too, making a sharp impression with his trained journalistic smartness of handling. This, by the way, is a quality not so very appropriate in summer reading; but it will perhaps oftener be found enlivening than fatiguing. The subjects of his sketches are twenty noted Englishmen of our day; indeed, they all are now living, except Lord Granville; and the list includes, besides the best-known of contemporary English politicians, several who are to be classed among the "prominent if not eminent." Among these lesser lights of Parliament are Lord Halifax (Charles Page Wood), Mr. Ayrton, Lord John Manners, Mr. Ward Hunt, and Mr. Henley, who follow in the enumeration after Mr. Gladstone, Mr. Disraeli, Mr. Bright, Mr. Lowe, and their compeers. The writer is evidently a Liberal of one of the more advanced shades, and though "not conscious of any bias for or against individuals," has seemed to us to have an especial fondness for giving a flick of the whip to such Liberals as have at any time got out of the traces or held back; as, for example, Mr. Lowe and Mr. Forster. Still, it must be confessed that he is pretty impartial with his sharpness, and that whether or not any one gets a trifle more than his due, all get at least some. It is not meant for a eulogistic performance, and, if Lord John Manners is soundly scored, the universally respected Lord Selborne is not precisely treated with that reverence which is due to the Creator alone. An extract from an analysis of Lord Selborne's character will illustrate this feature of the author's work; we may add that it may be taken as illustrative of the work at its best, and as accurately illustrative of almost the whole of it:

"Formerly ecclesiastics were not rare who possessed and displayed the characteristic virtues, and often the characteristic vices, of men of the world. There were bishops who led armies and cardinals who ruled states, priests who went on embassies and intrigued at courts, and who were churchmen in little more than costume. Albornoz and Wolsey, Richelieu and Alberoni, are names which at once present themselves. Within the last generation a phenomenon just the reverse of this has disclosed itself in English politics. A class of statesmen and lawyers has grown up who exhibit the peculiar virtues and foibles of ecclesiastics—men who seem to be laymen only in profession and in costume, but who are churchmen at heart. The succession of Lord Selborne to Lord Hatherley upon the Woolsack carries one back to the time when ecclesiastics were our Lord Chancellors. Although Lord Westbury has declared that he owes his success in life to a habit of Bible-reading and to the formation of his character upon the precepts of the New Testament, he does not strictly belong to this order of lawyers and politicians. There is a certain want of robustness and frankness about these churchmen out of holy orders. They are demure and self-conscious. The drooping glance which seems to shun the lust of the eye, and the bowed head which denotes an oppressive sense of humility, suit the cloister and the hood rather than St. Stephen's and the barrister's wig and gown. Their very gait expresses a sort of moral gliding through the world, so as to evade the evil of it; their hands are pensile and motionless, close to their sides, as if to keep their very skirts untouched and unspotted by the evil men and things about them. Their speech is a sort of mournful plaint, a melancholy sing-song, conveying, as it were, a hinted remonstrance against the hardness of heart of those to whom they appeal, an obtrusive patience of an unwillingness to be convinced, and a sort of lifting up of a disregarded testimony. This priest-like bearing has its moral equivalent. On ethical questions which decide themselves instantaneously to a plain judgment, politicians of the type we describe are given to a refined and ingenious casuistry, which sometimes enables a conscientious statesman to do from the very loftiest motives things which a public man, less given to strict self-examination, and therefore less liable, it may be, to that elaborate self-deception which often waits on self-scrutiny, would not venture even to debate within himself. It would be improper and unfair to say that this type of character, although its defects are often but the shadows of great virtues, is perfectly realized in any living statesman. There is, however, a certain degree of approximation to it in some of our public men; and, perhaps, its foibles are those against which Lord Selborne has some need to guard. It is a strange paradox that the man who could risk the sacrifice of a career to his convictions on the Irish Church Disestablishment question, should have been the equally disinterested apologist of the translation of Sir Robert Collier."

We make room for another extract, embodying one of "the small secrets of literature":

"A legend prevails that Mr. Ward Hunt was one of the reading-party in the Highlands whose sayings and doings are recorded in the late Mr. Clough's 'Bothie of Tober-na-Vuolich,' and that he figures in that poem under the not altogether dissimilar surname of Hobbes—'the great Hobbes, contemplative, corpulent, witty,' whose dancing exploits in a kilt are celebrated. . . .

"Mr. Ward Hunt's oratory is not of a particularly impressive character. It somewhat resembles informal talk from the bench at Quarter Sessions or at the magistrates' meeting, and is apt to be a little hurried and flurried. Mr. Ward Hunt does not so much plunge into the debate as flounder into it. Compared with Mr. Gladstone or Mr. Disraeli, or even Mr. Gathorne Hardy, he enters it as his supposed prototype, Hobbes, entered the bathing-pool at Tober-na-Vuolich:

> 'There Arthur, the glory of headers,
> Leapt from the ledges with Hope, he twenty feet, he thirty;
> There, over-bold, great Hobbes from a ten-foot height descended,
> Prone as a quadruped, prone, with hands and feet protending.'

In parliamentary discussions, Mr. Ward Hunt does not usually do even as much as this, but rather rolls over a half-foot height into the water, like the seal or sea-bear entering his pond in the Zoölogical Gardens. But he is a sufficiently good speaker for the purpose of clear statement, explanation, and argument."

Two or three hundred similar pages we might quote if fairness permitted. The publishers deserve a word of acknowledgment from the reading public for the typography and paper of this volume.

Annual Record of Science and Industry for 1872. Edited by Spencer F. Baird, with the assistance of eminent men of science. (New York: Harper & Bros. 1873.)—On the appearance of the first volume of this series last year, we gave it high praise for comprehensiveness of plan and intelligent editing, and the present volume merits the same commendation to public favor. It is still true that the arrangement of the articles is not quite systematic; for example, after tracing the progress of the Weyprecht and Payer expedition through pages 144–147, one must turn to p. 172 in order to obtain the latest intelligence concerning it. But the table of contents and the index reduce all this to order. The matter is a little fuller than last year, and the range of topics increased by "Pisciculture and the Fisheries."

A rival annual makes its début in Dr. John C. Draper's 'Year-book of Nature and Popular Science for 1872' (New York: Scribner, Armstrong & Co.) The classification is very different from Professor Baird's; there is no introductory survey of the year's progress, as in the 'Record'; and almost no particular information is given concerning the source or date of the discovery noted. "M. Bolson finds," "De Bary estimates," "Colonel Angus Croll thinks," etc., etc., is the usual formula of the articles, in which condensation has been carried to an injurious extent. Occasionally this may be proved by comparison of the same topic as treated in the 'Year-book' and in the 'Record,' the latter giving more details and offering greater aid to the student desirous to complete his knowledge by reference to the authorities. These coincidences, however, occur much less frequently than might be supposed. In meteorology there is but one topic common to both the annuals, in chemistry but two; and it must be said that the 'Record' covers the ground much more satisfactorily than the 'Year-book.' In fact, "Year-book" appears a misnomer when we find space given to a fantastic "Japanese Account of a Typhoon" (no date); to a general statement of the necessity of specialists in chemistry; and to articles like the following, which, however useful as stimulating invention, have certainly nothing to do with a summary of things achieved:

"140. *Application of Thallium.*—If thallium could be procured in sufficient quantity, it would be very valuable for the manufacture of colors, many of its compounds presenting beautiful yellow, red, and green tints."

And this is very trifling:

"184. *Purification of Water.*—Water containing lime compounds may be rendered fit for use for many purposes in the arts, by adding a little chloride of ammonium."

"187. *Improvement in Paper Stock.*—The addition of a little glycerine to paper-stock greatly increases the flexibility of the paper."

"179. *Value of Salt in some Countries.*—Salt is so scarce a substance in some countries that it is used as money. In others, it is so dear that only the rich can afford to use it; hence the expression, 'He eats salt,' signifies that the person in question is wealthy."

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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

JULY 7, 1873.

WALL STREET last week took quite a rest. The Stock Exchange adjourned over from Thursday afternoon to Monday morning, and their example was followed by the Gold Exchange. The bulls and bears fled the city almost in a body, and on Saturday nobody came to Wall Street but those who were compelled to do so. The banks and private banking houses, of course, were kept open for business, the 5th not being a legal holiday; but dealers were few. The occurrence of a full holiday on Friday and a half-holiday on Saturday made business more active than it would otherwise have been during the early part of the week.

The money market was temporarily disturbed Monday from its summer dulness, and the rate advanced to 7 per cent.; but this rate was but momentary, and we should quote the market as ruling between 3 and 5 per cent. Commercial paper of the best class sold quite freely at 6 to 6½ per cent.

Foreign advices are favorable. The Bank of France gained 7,000,000 francs in specie. The Bank of England made a small gain in bullion, while the discount rate remained at 6 per cent. Money in the open market in London is reported at 5½ per cent.

The bank statement was again very favorable, showing a gain of $5,890,000 in specie, and a decrease of $951,000 in legal tenders, against an increase of $8,323,600 in deposits. The banks hold, according to the statement published below, $16,808,000 in legal tenders and specie above the amount required by law.

The following are the statements of the Clearing-house banks for the past two weeks:

	June 28.	July 5.	Differences.
Loans	$281,506,600	$286,905,800	Inc. $5,399,200
Specie	27,661,500	33,551,400	Inc. 5,889 900
Circulation	27,311 400	27,276,200	Dec. 35,200
Deposits	224,040,800	232,3 9,400	Inc. 8 328 600
Legal tenders	49,119,000	48,168,000	Dec. 951,000

The following shows the relation of reserve to liablities:

	June 28	July 5.	Differences.
Specie	$27,661,500	$33,551,400	Inc. $5,889,900
Legal tenders	49,119,000	48,168,000	Dec. 951,000
Total reserve	$76 780,500	$81.719,400	Inc. $4,938,900
Circulation	$27,311,400	$27,276,200	Dec. 35,200
Deposits	224,040,800	232.369,400	Inc. 8,328,600
Total liabilities	$251,352,200	$259.645,600	Inc. 8,293,400
25 per cent. reserve required	62,838,050	64,911,400	
Excess in reserve	13,942,450	16,808 000	Inc. 2,865,550

The stock market has been very strong considering the extreme dulness and want of general interest shown in it. The rumors respecting the election of Commodore Vanderbilt to the presidency of the Lake Shore Road turn out to have been well founded. The Commodore now holds possession of the road, and it will no doubt be brought into very close connection with the Central and Hudson. The probable election of Vanderbilt was sufficient to send the price up 3 per cent., and since his election the price has been well maintained. Central and Hudson was also strong, running up to 103⅛.

Pacific Mail, after having sold down to 34½, afterwards reacted to 38, but the latter price was not maintained. The immediate cause of the decline to 34½ was the announcement of a suit of Mr. A. B. Stockwell against the Company, claiming that the latter owes him $1,250,000. The stockholders of the Company have been laboring under the belief that Stockwell owed them $850,000, the balance of some $1,140,000 he borrowed, giving a mortgage on the Howe Machine Company's works as collateral security. Whether he claims the $1,250,000 as a kind of offset against his notes which the Company holds, or whether he repudiates the notes altogether, and claims the $1,250,000 besides, we have not fully been able to understand. The affairs of the Company continue to be represented in the worst possible light; but people are very suspicious, and many think that there is a good reason for these representations—*i.e.*, to work the stock out of the hands of present holders into those who know the real condition of the Company, at a very low price.

The Michigan Central Railroad Company passed its July dividend, as the *Nation* predicted it would do last week. The stock declined to 90½ upon the announcement being publicly made known, but has since rallied to 92.

The following shows the highest and lowest sales of the leading stocks at the Stock Exchange for the week ending July 5:

	Monday.	Tuesday.	Wed'day.	Thursday	Friday.	Saturday.	Sales.
N. Y. C. & H. R.	101¼ 102¾	1 13/ 102	102¼ 103¼	102⅝ 102⅞			23,400
Lake Shore	93½ 94½	94¼ 95⅜	95⅜ 96⅜	95⅜ 96			31 800
Erie	62½ 62⅝	62½ 62¼	62¼ 62⅜	62¼ 62½			10 400
Do. pfd	72⅛ 73	71⅝ 73	 73	71 72⅜			.....
Union Pacific	25½ 25⅝	24½ 26½	26 26½	25⅝ 26⅛			45,500
Chi. & N. W.	71⅛ 71½	71¼ 7 ⅞	71 71½	71			10 500
Do. pfd	81	80½ 80⅝	81 81¼	.....			200
N. J. Central	105½	105⅝ 106	105⅜ ...	105½			1,700
Rock Island	108⅜ 109½	109 109½	109½ 109⅞	109½ 109½			9 200
Mil. & St. Paul	50⅛ 51½	50⅜ 51⅛	51½ 51⅞	51⅜ 51⅝			5 500
Do. pfd	71½ 72½	73½	.... 74⅜	72⅜			300
Wabash	67⅜ 68½	68 68¼	68¼ 68⅜	67⅜ 68¼			5 100
D. L. & Western	97⅜ 97⅞	97½	97½ 97⅝	97⅜ 97⅜			3,200
B. H. & Erie	2½	2½	2½	 2			400
O. & M.	38½ 39	38½ 38⅜	39 39¼	38⅜ 39			17,300
C. C. & I. C.	24⅜ 28½	28 28⅜	24⅝ 29	28¼ ...			2,400
W. U Tel.	84⅜ 85½	84¼ 84¾	84⅜ 85¼	84¼ 85¼			26,900
Pacific Mail	35⅜ 37⅜	34½ 35⅝	35⅛ 38	35⅝ 36⅝			85 000

The principal interest in Governments was the announcement of the purchase by the German Government of $10,000,000 of bonds for the German Invalids' Fund. The purchase was divided as follows: $7,000,000 in new fives, and $3,000,000 in the five-twenties. The market for Governments has been firm on light dealings, owing to the scarcity of bonds and the difficulty which shippers continue to have in purchasing here at a price sufficiently low to enable them to send abroad. The Treasury programme for July includes a purchase of only $500,000 five-twenties.

The $2,000,000 seven per cent. bonds of the New York Central and Hudson River R. R. Company were taken at a fraction above 105. The bids were very large in amount, but the exact amount has not been made public.

The range of gold has been between 115 and 115¾, with the tone of the market heavy. The Treasury programme for July provides for sales of $5,500,000 gold.

TEN PER CENT. NEW ENGLAND INVESTMENT.

FIRST MORTGAGE SINKING FUND
GOLD BONDS
OF THE
LAMOILLE VALLEY, ST. JOHNSBURY AND ESSEX COUNTY RAILROADS,

One hundred and seventeen miles long, from the Connecticut River to Lake Champlain, and forming the Vermont Division of the Portland and Ogdensburg Railroad Trunk Line. Issued in denominations of $100. $500, and $1,000, and absolutely limited to $20.000 per mile.

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Principal due in 1891.

No security is greater than these first-class railroad bonds, based on a large property, as well as on a large and constantly increasing income.

The building and management of the road is conducted with such economy and integrity as to make the investment very profitable and perfectly safe.

Interest payable in Gold Coin in Boston or New York, November 1 and May 1. They yield, at present rates of Gold,

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311 Broadway, New York;
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☞ For sale by Bankers and Brokers generally.

SPECIAL NOTICES.

A HARVARD GRADUATE wishes pupils this Summer in Nahant and Swampscott. References given if desired. G. L. S., 53 Green Street, Lynn.

A HARVARD GRADUATE of June, 1872, intending to study a year in Germany, desires a pupil. References exchanged. Address Box 28, *Nation* Office.

A HARVARD GRADUATE of June, 1872, of one year's experience in teaching, desires private pupils, or a position in a classical school. Refers to the Faculty of Harvard. Address Box 25, *Nation* office.

A YOUNG LADY, a Teacher, wishes to obtain a situation as companion for a lady. No objection to going into the country, and to have the charge of a little child. Reference given. Address F. C., Boonton, N. J.

PLACE open for one student in an Architect's office, with every facility in the study of perspective and free-hand drawing. Enquire of "Architect," office of the *Nation*.

CHOIRS SUPPLIED EVERY week with plain Hymn-Tunes. HENRY CLARK, Pawtucket, R. I.

SPECIAL NOTICES.

A FRENCH LADY, born and educated in Paris, competent and experienced teacher, wishes a re-engagement for the fall. New York or vicinity preferred. Address Box 617, Yonkers, N. Y.

THE "NEW PROCESS" FOR Winter Wheat. The "EDELWEISS" FLOUR is manufactured only at the Crescent Mills, Zanesville, Ohio. Samples sent free for inspection or analysis on application. DRONE & STULTZ, Proprietors.

FOR SALE OR TO LET.—An Estate of 5 acres (fronting the Bay), with a fine two-story wooden house, stable, carriage-house, storehouse, and woodshed, and a finely-built wharf (costing, a few years since, $8,000—the price at which the whole property is now offered), located in the village of Mattapoisett, Plymouth Co., Mass., on the Old Colony R. R., 50 miles from Boston. The house contains 18 rooms—parlor, sitting-room, dining-room and kitchen on the same floor, the kitchen furnished with good range, and with both hard and soft water; 10 sleeping-rooms; and a cellar the full length of the house, with cement floor; large elms along the whole water-front; a fine bathing beach; and the Bay offering the best facilities for boating, fishing, etc. Mattapoisett is a healthy town, has churches, schools, and good drives. The house is within eight minutes' walk of the steam-cars. For further information, apply to ROGERS L. BARSTOW, 36 School Street, Boston, Mass.

FOR SALE. An $800 Piano for $500. Entirely new and of first-class make. Address "Piano," Box 5, *Nation* Office.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 17, 1873.

The Week.

REPORTS from Massachusetts assert that, if Butler succeeds in the State Convention, he will succeed against Governor Washburn, who has reluctantly consented to make the fight, although sincerely desirous of leaving office. In case of the success of Butler, Governor Washburn will be out of the canvass, but there will certainly be a bolt, and the bolters will expect to carry the election, the Democrats putting up some such gentleman as Col. Greene of the *Post*. Butler is at present busy, through his managers, in getting ready for the primaries and in spending money with some freedom, but his adversaries, who declare that they will not have a long hot-weather campaign, say that he will not be allowed to get as many delegates as he got two years ago, and that they are abundantly able to take care of him. It is generally admitted that both sides certainly mean business, and that there will be a smart engagement, with the chances already against Butler. Russell, the collector of the port, however, daily prophesies that Butler is the coming man, but even Dr. Loring took courage on the Fourth of July to come out against the member from Essex before the men of Marlboro, a part of his speech being held to be an attack on his former friend and enemy. But denunciations of corruption in office and of enriching one's self while in office at the expense of the country, though irresistibly suggestive of a certain gentleman, are not definite enough to pin the Doctor down as an antagonist of Butler's. Of the press it is said that, no matter what might be Butler's majority in the Convention, the vastly greater number of papers would still support a bolting candidate; only about half-a-dozen papers in the State now favor Butler, and of these the least obscure is the Boston *Traveller*.

General Schenck has got into trouble again by his interest in corporations. The Emma Mine has turned out a sad swindle, in spite of his endorsement of it—eight hundred and forty thousand pounds of the million paid for it by the wretched British stockholders being now lost, and the mine itself being reported a total failure. With this awful example before his eyes, however, he has ventured to arraign the Western Union Telegraph and the Anglo-American Telegraph Companies for "systematic imposition" on the American public, in an official letter to Secretary Fish, and the Western Union Company charge him with doing this at the "instigation of active and unscrupulous agents of an opposition cable scheme." They also tackle him in a savage manner on his "charges," and throw him cruelly on each, and make his letter certainly look very strange. He said the Western Union had an arrangement with the Cable Company, by which they charged cable rates on messages received by them from the Cable Company for delivery in the United States, and in return gave the Cable Company one-third of their receipts. The Western Union says it does nothing of the kind. It pays the Cable Company no share of its receipts, and receives a fixed rate per word for deliveries in any of the four telegraphic districts into which it has for cable purposes divided the country. This rate is, in many cases, much lower than is charged on domestic messages, because while the domestic rates are charged on a minimum of ten words, cable messages are charged by the word. Most cable messages are, however, less than ten words, so that, for instance, while the Western Union would get two dollars for any domestic message, however small, between New York and New Orleans, it has to transmit a cable message at fifteen cents a word, though it consists of only two words. Lastly, they deny that, as Mr. Schenck alleges, the Government is overcharged on its messages, and aver that they are, on the contrary, transmitted at half-rates; and they wind up by accusing him of libelling American citizens in his official correspondence, and accuse the Postmaster-General of connivance in publishing his letter.

The captain of the *City of Washington* is to be tried for losing his ship on the Nova Scotia coast, and there is little doubt that the cause of the wreck will be thoroughly investigated. It is hardly necessary, under these circumstances, to go into any elaborate criticism of the case, especially as the loss to the Inman line of ship and cargo was severe—severer, in fact, than if the non-merchantable passengers had all gone down. Still, there seem to be one or two things which, after this accident and the wreck of the *Atlantic*, all steamship companies ought to impress on their captains' minds. First, that a vessel sailing due west, or even on a course a little south of west, from the British Isles must, in the long run, go ashore unless, by skilful management and that peculiar tact for which all seafaring men are famous, she is somewhat carefully directed into a port. Second, the attention of sea-captains ought to be called to the use of the lead. There is hardly a more certain way of discovering the distance between a ship's keel and the bottom of the sea than by the employment of the simple device of throwing the lead over the ship's side. Of course, mistakes may be made, and the distance in question can only be ascertained with absolute accuracy through the means employed by Captain Williams and the captain of the *City of Washington*. On the other hand, in regard to the criticisms in the press of such disasters as these, we must observe that the loss of a vessel on the Atlantic coast cannot invariably be due to the inattention of the captain to the advice offered him by the passengers, even when the first-officer coincides with the opinion of the passengers. The opinions of passengers as to the proper navigation of a sea-going vessel have been observed to differ too widely from one another to make it possible in all cases to follow their advice.

How difficult it is for non-nautical men to come to an agreement on questions of navigation may be seen from the wide diversity of opinion on the subject of the loss of the *City of Washington* between the respective editors of the *World* and *Times* of this city. The editor of the *Times* having maintained that the captain was to blame for the disaster, saying, "It is believed that the captain of an ocean steamer, freighted with a priceless cargo of human life, should know at all times, in spite of fog and tempest, just where he is," the *World* replied that any one who believed such stuff as this was an "idiot," and that the only way for him to find out anything about the Nova Scotia coast would be by taking "command of a ship freighted, not with a priceless cargo of human life, but with a crew of cheap and congenial idiots, and required to know, in spite of fog and tempest, just where he was."

The charges with regard to the "Canadian Crédit Mobilier" are these: An Englishman by the name of Waddington, a resident of British Columbia, having conceived the idea of a "Canadian Pacific Railway," associated himself, for the purpose of obtaining funds, with some American capitalists, and afterwards died. The association however, survived, and was represented by Mr. McMullen, a Canadian, living in Chicago. The association put itself in communication with the Canadian Government, but difficulties being suggested on account of difference of nationality, it being feared that the line might be "sold out" to the Northern Pacific, a charter was granted to Sir Hugh Allan, a member of the Canadian Government, and other gentlemen, the terms of the act excluding all but British subjects from interest in the enterprise. In the same session, another charter was obtained by a rival association headed by Senator McPherson, and a struggle between the two began, which ended in the award of the contract for the road to

Sir Hugh Allan's "Ring." Sir Hugh Allan, who seems to have been really acting throughout, under cover of his official position, as the agent of the American organization, had won the battle by "fixing, for certain monetary considerations," several influential men. He spent, according to his own account, some three hundred and sixty thousand dollars "in the purchase of priests, lawyers, newspaper editors, and elections." The Parliamentary Committee ordered to investigate these transactions has decided to waive the enquiry, for the singular reason that they have not authority to examine witnesses under oath, and that this authority could only be exercised by a commission appointed by Sir John A. McDonald, whose official conduct is, in part, the subject of the proposed enquiry. The charges seem, however, to be substantially made good by the publication of damaging letters written by Sir Hugh Allan to his American correspondents.

This scandal has become a political question in Canada, the Government "organs" defending, and the Opposition denouncing every part of the proceedings; it may in one way have an indirect effect on English politics. The Treaty of Washington, it will be remembered, required, for certain articles, a ratification by the Canadian Parliament. The Canadian Government declined to ratify, or rather represented to the English Government that the Canadian Parliament would not ratify unless the British Parliament would guarantee the Canadian Pacific Railroad to the amount of £4,000,000. After some negotiation, a promise of a guarantee for £2,500,000 was given. Before this, however, the Government had entered into a guarantee—intended to be the last—of a loan to be spent on Canadian defences. At the time of the negotiations about the Pacific road, this loan had not been raised, and the Canadian Government suggested that instead of raising it the railway guarantee should be increased from £2,500,000 to £3,600,000. To this the English Ministers assented, and the bill authorizing the increase was read for the second time on the 24th of last month. At this time the Canadian scandal had not made its way to England.

We have commented elsewhere on the extraordinary proposition advanced as the latest solution of the transportation problem. The main difficulty with the farmers seems to be that they have failed to make any enquiry into the real nature of the railroad question. No one who knows anything about it doubts that there has been a vast amount of swindling in connection with the construction and operation of many of the principal lines in the country, but this swindling has in most cases been the work of a "ring"—in other words, half-a-dozen rich men—who have conducted their proceedings under forms of law, have increased the cost of the roads by doubtful contracts and other means, and studiously sacrificed the interests of the minority to their own private emolument. We have lately had, in the case of the Crédit Mobilier, at once an admirable illustration of railroad management and also of the crazing effect the cry of "railroad" seems to have upon the average mind. In that case, Oakes Ames, James Brooks, and half-a-dozen other men defrauded the Government of many millions of dollars by the fraudulent distribution throughout the community of bonds of the Union Pacific Railroad. This distribution brought the bonds into the hands of large numbers of innocent holders, who had no knowledge of the fraud—into the hands of widows and orphans, guardians and trustees, a very large portion of them being held abroad. A great clamor having been caused by the exposure of the fraud, the Government felt itself called upon to do something, and at once got out an injunction against the road, forbidding it to pay interest on its bonds, thus causing the bonds to fall in the market, the holders to accuse the Government (with whose guarantee the bonds were issued) of violating its promises, and at length the Government begins to find its own credit abroad threatened. In fact, the effects of this injunction are the same in kind as those produced by the original frauds of the Crédit Mobilier "ring."

It seems hardly likely that the difficulty between Lord Gordon Gordon and his bail will lead to serious complications between the Government of the United States and that of England. The facts seem to be these: Lord Gordon is a noble adventurer of humble origin, convivial habits, and very dishonest intentions, who came to the United States a year or two ago, and disported himself in various parts of the country in the finest clothes and jewellery, entertaining all he met with interesting reminiscences of high life in his native land, and revolving quietly in his own mind certain financial schemes the exact nature of which probably Jay Gould and himself alone know, but which, it is safe to say, were magnificent. He then gained a sort of notoriety in the newspapers, and, like many an impostor before him, was welcomed as a man and brother by the late Mr. Greeley. He was at length sued by Gould, and obliged to give bail in a large amount, and the names of Mr. Marshall O. Roberts and Horace F. Clark appeared as sureties on his bail-bond. Lord Gordon has since been leading a retired life "in the provinces," trying to avoid arrest by his sureties, the bail-bond having been forfeited. His bail, on the other hand, acting under some singular legal advice, have been endeavoring to exercise what they call their common-law right of capturing Lord Gordon wherever they can find him. On one occasion he really was arrested by a detective in Canada; but, according to the story, immediately drew a pistol from one pocket and a purse from the other, and offered his pursuer what would be called in political language the choice "between the wallet and the bullet." He afterwards went to the Red River country, north of Minnesota, and in the latter State a plot for his arrest was concocted. An enterprising party, comprising among its members a number of detectives and a Minnesota legislator, went up to Manitoba, where Gordon was lying *perdu*, and by pretended hospitality got him probably as near the condition of a lord as he had ever been in his life, and then proceeded to carry him home with them. They were pursued in turn, however, arrested, and are now on trial for the crime of kidnapping. If, as is said, they were really arrested after they had crossed the United States border, the international outrage is to be laid to the bloody score of England, not to ours.

The whole case would appear to be one calling for the exercise of "comity" by the courts. There is no doubt that at common law sureties are entitled to the right of pursuit and recapture; but we have never heard of a case in which it was actually decided that they might go into a foreign jurisdiction for such a purpose. On the other hand, both England and America have an interest, for the sake of repose, that Lord Gordon may not be allowed to roam over the world much longer; and whether he be sent to jail by an American or Manitoban court seems to make little practical difference, if he only gets, through some agency, to jail. The "comity" that we should suggest would be that Gordon be surrendered to his bail, and that the Minnesota legislator should be handed over to the Manitobans, to be dealt with according to the customs of the country. These are strange times; but it does seem a little too much that a member of the Minnesota Legislature should undertake to perform the duties of his office by going on a marauding expedition into a foreign country to recapture a runaway from the jurisdiction of the courts of New York.

It is an appropriate time of year which the State Park Commission has chosen in which to report on the Adirondack Park scheme, which they unreservedly approve. There is, indeed, universal approval of this plan, to which no one at all says no. The Commissioners argue that the great forest of the Adirondacks is in several ways necessary to the well-being of the State. It shelters an amount of snow which, were the mountains denuded, would each spring come down, suddenly melted, and, in the form of thirty-six billions of cubic feet of water, would sweep the river valleys with destruction. Then, again, the forest, sheltering countless lakes and streams, preserves not only the water-supply of the Hudson—an important service, although the Hudson, as a commercial river, is very largely an arm of the sea—but also feeds the rivers which give

water to the Erie and Champlain canals. In the third place, the climatic effect of the forest in equalizing temperature, by preserving moisture in summer, and warding off the north winds of winter, is of very great benefit. Finally, the making of the proposed park need cost little, although the State now owns only a small fraction —one nineteenth—of the whole region, the rest being owned by corporations and private individuals; the soil is good for nothing, or next to nothing, for farming purposes, and the park would be kept as nearly as possible in a state of nature, although a few roads must be made and others improved; and there is no doubt that some money might be made by leasing fishing and hunting privileges and the like to persons desirous of camping out and pursuing these sports. We dare say that wastefully as the timber has been cut off by private owners, the State might easily make money by appointing a trained forester at a good salary, with powers and duties like those of his German congener. More than thirteen hundred square miles, or 834,480 acres, are contained in the projected park, which occupies portions of five counties, and sends its streams to feed the St. Lawrence as well as the Hudson and the Delaware.

In England, the Shah has been occupying the public mind to the exclusion of almost everything else, and indeed to a degree that is difficult to understand. The recent events in Central Asia make the cordiality of the Government to him very comprehensible; but the public can hardly be supposed to be roused by considerations of policy; and yet they are roused as they were not by the Sultan, who too was a Mussulman, and had a harem and a vizier. The explanation probably is that the Shah is further off and less known, and has therefore more of an Oriental flavor about him, and has a more intimate connection with the Bendemeer, the Vale of Cashmere, and the bulbuls, and the guls. At all events, nothing has been left undone in the effort to show him honor. The Sultan's reception was, in comparison, a very shabby affair. The rage of the Russian press over the spectacle is very entertaining. The St. Petersburg *Mir* warns the Shah that the British are sorry and insatiable rogues, and are pulling the wool over his eyes, preparatory to his destruction; that they have already robbed him of Afghanistan, Beloochistan, Herat, and Cabul, which are essential to his independence; Russia, it is true, has taken from him Shirwan and Erivan, but then "this was through his own fault," and he can never hope to get them back. The contest between the two over the poor Shah is very curious, and, if he reads the European press and has a fine sense of humor, must amuse him, and yet sadly, for he must know that he only plays the part of the bone between two very ferocious dogs.

At a recent debate in the English House of Lords, Lord Ettrick brought up a subject such as rarely engages the attention of a legislative body in our day—the extraordinary destruction of life and property by wild beasts in India. It appears that the average loss of life by the attacks of tigers in the British Provinces alone is 4,138 annually; including the native states, it is supposed not to fall far short of 10,000. The value of the animals destroyed in the same manner is estimated at between $1,500,000 and $2,000,000. Of course these figures represent an amount of terror that is incalculable. The whole subject was treated fully in a paper read by Captain Rogers before the Social Science Association, the facts of which were drawn from official sources, and astounding facts they are. One tigress, in 1869, stopped the traffic on a public highway for several weeks, and was known to have killed 127 people. Another tiger killed 101 persons in three years, and, before it was killed, attacked large parties at a time. In fact, these beasts lie in wait on the roads like robbers, and lurk around villages, and strike down the peasantry in their fields like Indians. Before the days of British rule their ravages were terrible. Mr. Hunter tells of the approach to one famous shrine being well-nigh barred by the slaughter of the pilgrims by the tigers, and the wild elephants often trampled down whole villages. Down to the mutiny of 1857, the tigers were diminishing, but since that, owing to the disarming of the natives, and the inactivity of the shikarries, the hunter caste, brought about by the practice of offering large rewards for the destruction of notorious man-eaters, the wild beasts are again on the increase, and there is talk of raising a corps of tiger-killers. In the debate, Lord Laurence made the remarkable statement that he had heard, but could hardly believe it, that English officers discouraged tiger-killing by the natives, in order that they might have the sport for themselves.

The French Assembly, in the absence of important measures of legislation, are indulging in "scenes of great disorder" over indiscretions of one sort or another on the part of the ministry, which certainly seems to be very badly managed, and to be showing the cloven foot a good deal too early and too boldly. The latest mistake is a decree of M. Ducros, which forbids the interment, after six in the morning, of any deceased persons not belonging to the four forms of faith recognized by the state Catholic, Lutheran, Calvinist, and Jewish. This is aimed at the infidels or materialists, who make a parade of not believing in the immortality of the soul, and M. Ducros maintains that this belief is the only valid excuse for funeral rites; that it is only those who believe the body will rise again who ought to be permitted to indulge in ceremonial observances on the way to the grave—that if the body be not the seat of a soul, it takes rank as a carcase simply, and has to be dealt with as a nuisance from a strictly sanitary point of view, and got out of the way as quietly and as speedily as possible, as a repulsive and dangerous object. This sounds very funny, but a French politician has no sense of humor, and Ducros is awfully in earnest. He carried out his peculiar views of the post-mortem influence of dogmas by refusing the usual military honor to a freethinking member of the Assembly, M. Brousses, who died the other day. By law, a military detachment follows the bodies of members of the Assembly to the grave, but owing to M. Brousses' belief, the troops, after presenting arms to the coffin when it left the house, marched back to their quarters. The reason of this is, it appears, that you cannot have good soldiers unless they believe in a future life, and if you force them to do honor to a man who does not believe in it they will cease to believe in it themselves. However this may be, as M. Ducros and his government are still in the body, and belong, to all intents and purposes, to this world, their conduct seems wildly injudicious, as it is raising the cry that MacMahon's régime is the régime of the priests and of religious persecution, and is giving materialism, in the old style, an immense stimulus.

We gave some months ago a summing up of the reasons assigned by Prince Bismarck for wishing to divest himself of the Prussian premiership, which he resigned last December, retaining only the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and the Chancellorship of the Empire. He has now got into a quarrel with the other members of the Prussian Cabinet over the proposed new press laws and over the currency question. The press law is so obnoxious that, though Bismarck has defended it vigorously enough, he is not desirous of being thought the author of it, and neither is any other member of the Cabinet, and they have accordingly been bandying the responsibility of it to and fro. The plan of substituting imperial paper money for the paper money of the individual states, has met with opposition from Bavaria in the shape of a suggestion that the Prussian National Bank should also be converted into an Imperial National Bank, to which Bismarck was disposed to accede, but the Prussian Minister of Finance was not, and hence a new feud. Bismarck now proposes to give up foreign affairs also, and has asked the Emperor to allow the Under-Secretary, Herr Balan, to represent him at Cabinet meetings, an odd sort of arrangement which he was allowed to commence in December by having Herr Delbrück appear as his deputy at Cabinet meetings in everything relating to Prussian affairs. In the meantime, the bishops have begun to resist the ecclesiastical laws lately passed. One of them having refused to submit the curriculum of his theological seminary for the approval of the civil authorities, the result has been that his school has been formally declared unfit for the education of priests. Should he persist, it will doubtless be closed by the police, and the students be compelled to betake themselves to the universities.

THE LATEST DEVICE FOR FIXING RATES OF TRANSPORTATION.

WE have followed, and shall continue to follow, the "farmers' movement" with great interest, but it must be confessed that it seems at times a task of no little difficulty, owing to the very heterogeneous composition of the organizations which are carrying it on and the wide diversity of their character and avowed aims. When Judge Lawrence was turned out of office in Illinois by the "Grangers," and Judge Craig put in his place, we took it for granted that they were going to deliver themselves from the tyranny of the railroads by putting judges on the bench pledged to interpret the State constitution in a particular way, or in other words, as one of the local papers put it, by showing that "the people" were superior to both laws and judges. It has, however, since been stoutly denied that this interference with the bench was anything more than a local accident, and we have been assured that the farmers seek changes of a much more legitimate character, and resting on more solid moral foundations than the creation of a subservient judiciary. The recent platforms have certainly had a much wider sweep than the earlier ones, and, unless language has been strangely abused in making them, embrace grave modifications in fiscal as well as in railroad legislation. But the question how to reduce the railroads to the condition of public highways, controllable by and existing solely or mainly for the convenience of the community, is still apparently as far from solution as ever. It is by no means surprising that this should be the case, but that it *is* the case we are forced to conclude by the extraordinary character of the latest plan propounded by the reformers, which has had sufficient plausibility to command the approval of so sober-minded a paper as the Chicago *Tribune*.

The farmers have been accused, partly in consequence of their escapade about the judges in Illinois, of seeking to rob the railroad companies of their lawful earnings by forcing them to carry on their business at a loss, under the operation of cast-iron rules, drawn up without reference to its peculiar nature. This was a charge of which the farmers soon began to see the gravity, and they accordingly now announce that they have no scheme of spoliation or confiscation in their minds, but that they have at last hit upon a mode of ascertaining what are "reasonable rates," which consists in discovering what was the amount of capital "actually invested in constructing and operating the roads," and treating a fair percentage on this as a proper return to the stockholders, and all charges which bring in more than this as "unreasonable," and therefore open to prohibition by the courts and State legislatures. Under this theory of railroad property, all stock which does not represent money actually invested is treated as "fictitious," and all attempts to earn dividends on such stock as attempts at extortion. For instance—to put a case of frequent occurrence—a corporation obtains a charter for a road which it will cost two million dollars to build. It accordingly borrows the two millions on mortgage bonds, and constructs the road, while the members divide among themselves two millions of stock more, and they work the road so as to make it pay interest on the four millions. The farmers now say that no road shall be so worked as to pay interest on anything but the proceeds of the bonds, or, in other words, the actual cost of construction and equipment. This, stripped of details, is the new plan, as gravely propounded in the Chicago *Tribune*.

Now, if anybody will get up and propose a general railroad act of this nature applicable to all roads hereafter to be built, we think we can promise that he will have the hearty support of everybody who has seriously reflected on the railroad problem. Forbid the construction of any road except with the proceeds of paid-up stock, and forbid any higher dividends than a certain fixed percentage on this amount, and we shall have a rule of which nobody can complain. We do not believe that a single mile of railroad would ever be constructed under such rule in a new and thinly settled country like the West or South. Safe investments are not so scarce as to induce people to go into one of the most unsafe of investments, and one promising in most cases no return at all for several years, for the mere chance of seven or even ten per cent. at the outside. But we should, nevertheless, be heartily glad to see the plan tried, and believe it would, by stopping railroad construction for the present, bring the Western farmers to a healthier comprehension of their relation to the roads, and railroad companies to a healthier comprehension of their relations to the community, and might tend to a solution of the railroad problem which would be both permanent and satisfactory.

But the application of any such rule now to roads already in operation would be spoliation pure and simple—spoliation as flagrant as any ever proposed by Karl Marx or Ben Butler; if an attempt were made to carry it out, it would produce perhaps the greatest financial crash ever witnessed. It has in the first place that leading characteristic of Ben Butler's greenback scheme, that it would not only violate a tacit pledge made by the State to individuals, but it would deprive men of rewards already earned by running great risks. When a railroad constructed for two million dollars is made to earn interest on four millions, the case is precisely similar to that of a government which in a time of great danger and perplexity sells seven per cent. bonds at fifty; and the present proposal of the farmers resembles Butler's plan of paying the bondholders in 1870 what they gave for their bonds in 1862. In fact, it is the old-fashioned game on a great scale of "heads I win, tails you lose." The West has during the past thirty years wanted railroads, which there was a very small chance of making profitable for a long time. It encouraged Eastern men and foreigners to make them in any way they pleased, running whatever risk there was, and pocketing whatever gain there might be, and they were made. The investment then was one of great danger and difficulty; to treat it now as one of no danger and no difficulty would be simple swindling. The word is hard, but the times demand plain speech. This was perhaps a bad mode of securing lines of communication, but the laws allowed it and encouraged it, and the people applauded it, and it is now a contract as binding in morals as in law. It is open with us to turn over a new leaf, and permit no more roads to be made in that way, but it is not open to us to treat those who lent us their money as dupes. As there has been enough of this sharp practice already, more of it would seriously shake the very foundation of social order.

In the second place, as regards the older roads, it is not possible for "the people" or anybody else to ascertain what is the exact amount on which, in abstract justice, the earnings ought to pay interest. The stock, whether "fictitious" or not, has in most cases passed out of the hands of the original holders. It has been sold and resold, in open market, under the most solemn guarantees known to civilized society, with the understanding that it represented the *bona-fide* ownership of the roads, with all their earnings, possible as well as actual. The laws, the courts, and public opinion assured to it this character, without reservation or qualification. In this character, it has passed into the hands of widows, orphans, and helpless people generally, of charitable corporations, of colleges, banks, and institutions of all kinds by which the affairs of the community are administered. To throw any doubt on its value now would be to cause an amount of misery and alarm which no thinking man could contemplate without a shudder. If the State wants to make the railroads common highways, it has the right to take them, but at their market value, paying the owners what other people would pay them, and not enquiring curiously and knavishly into the original cost. Between honest parties to a bargain, that, to use a homely phrase, is "neither here nor there." The people ought, undoubtedly, to have looked forward a little when they first began to grant charters; but not having done so, they ought not now to throw on others the whole damage done by their own laches.

Though last, not least, much of the outcry over the high rates charged by railroads is due to an immense but deeply seated popular delusion as to the value of railroad property. When one puts his newspaper aside, and sits down calmly to examine the receipts

which the farmers are so anxious to have cut down, the proposal we are discussing assumes a somewhat ludicrous aspect. We have before us the last issue of Poor's 'Railroad Manual,' which certainly ought to be carefully studied before the minds of the public are filled with wild and revolutionary notions about railroad property. There were in operation last year in the United States 57,323 miles of railroad, the net earnings of which bore to the *cost* of the roads the relation of 5.20 per cent., and to the capital stock of 3.91. This means simply that the work of transportation in the United States is, on the average, already done at a loss to the owners of the lines, or, in other words, vastly more cheaply to the public than there is the least likelihood of its being done in any other way—an assertion which anybody may verify by examining the accounts of the New York State canals. Now, fancy anybody's seriously proposing to capitalists to construct railroads, as most of the Western railroads were constructed, through a howling wilderness, for *the chance* of five and a half per cent., whenever the earnings allowed it; and fancy what subjects for spoliation are presented by the bloated owners of railroad property who pocket on the average less than four per cent. on the face value of their stock. Let us add, finally, that no corporation should be restricted by law to a certain rate of earnings, unless it contracts freely to do the work on those terms or has a minimum guaranteed to it by the state. In short, the railroad question, we would remind the Chicago *Tribune*, is not simply a question of dollars and cents. It is a question of morality in its highest and most important phases, and one the settlement of which must touch the security of all property, and affect the value of constitutions as safeguards of individual rights.

We have gone on for thirty years treating railroads as private property and permitting and encouraging their construction by private enterprise. Out of this numerous abuses have grown up which ought to be remedied. The corporations have grown too powerful; their influence in politics is corrupting; the power of directors in the management is too great. For the reform of all this, careful legislation *preceded by careful enquiry* is necessary. The prohibition of special legislation would do much to abate the corruption. Some means ought also to be devised for protecting the minority of the stockholders against the despotic power, which in some cases amounts to virtual confiscation, of those holding a bare majority of the stock, or, in other words, of giving stockholders the means of actually superintending the management of their own property and defending themselves against "rings" and "raids." Moreover, the power of directors to do anything but work the road ought to be diminished. Their discretion as regards extensions, combinations, consolidations, leases, and purchases ought to be greatly reduced, if not destroyed. This involves two things not easily supplied. One is wise legislation, and the other honest government inspection. How far we are from both is best shown by the Illinois attempt at reform, which consists at present in taking the working of the roads out of the hands of the exceedingly able body of trained business men who now have charge of it, and compelling them to use a crazy table of "rates" drawn up by a mob of excited and ignorant politicians. If we are not prepared for this, the alternative, and the only one, is the purchase of the railroads by the state, and their management by our Murphys and Caseys. We shall not argue against this at present, for obvious reasons. But this, whatever difficulties it may present, is the only honorable way of escaping the necessity of such reforms in the present system as we have indicated above. Whatever the evils of our railroad system, they are not to be met or removed by fraud or plunder.

THE PROFESSION OF "JOURNALISM."

THE interviews, whether real or imaginary, between newspaper correspondents and the most distinguished persons of modern times, on both continents, recently reported at considerable length by several of our daily contemporaries, are sufficiently farcical in their character to warrant the belief that "interviewing," as a means of attracting attention, is rapidly becoming as inefficacious as the revelations of spiritual mediums. As soon as people found out, which they did very rapidly, that the greatest men of ancient and mediæval times talked in their interviews with mediums as foolishly and pointlessly as silly school-girls, communications from the other world lost all their interest, even for those who believed in them. The devoutest Spiritualist cannot now deny that a half-hour with Plato, or Marcus Aurelius, or Descartes, is one of the dullest and most unprofitable experiences a man can have, and that nobody can pass through it without wondering that a sage can be such an ass. The newspaper correspondents, we regret to say, are slowly driving the public into a similar state of mind with regard to the great men of our own day. Either, it begins to say, interviewers are false knaves, or the King of Sweden, the Shah of Persia, M. Lesseps, M. Thiers, Marshal MacMahon, and Don Carlos are all but born naturals. The alternative is not as a general rule faced with resolution or definiteness. Most people content themselves by lowering their opinion both of the "interviewer" and of the "distinguished personage," without making up their minds fully as to the merits of either, but the general result is a greatly increased indifference as to what the newspapers say, whether by way of news or comment. Indeed, the conductors of some of the great newspapers already begin to recognize the fact that the sensational vein has been, in the matter of news-getting, nearly worked out, and they begin to turn their attention in other directions. The success of one of them in hunting up a lost explorer has set another to paying a man for making excavations in aid of antiquarian research, and still another to paying a man for making a hazardous ascent in a balloon. This field once entered on, we may fairly expect to see a prodigious amount of competition between rival journals in the prosecution of startling enterprises having no special or necessary connection whatever with journalism, properly so called. It has hitherto been considered the proper function of the newspapers to see or hear and report; but competition is now driving them into producing the facts which they record—a process not unlike that witnessed in many other lines of business, in some of which, for instance, it is by no means uncommon for the successful jobber or commission merchant to supply capital to the manufacturer in whose goods he deals. The position of a journalist who makes his own news, in the honest sense of the phrase, is of course the proudest imaginable; it is like being chief and bard, Agamemnon and Homer, sword and lyre, all in one, and there is no limit that we can well see to the prosecution of this peculiar species of undertaking. If a journal hires an explorer or aeronaut or excavator, there is no reason why it should not eventually come to employ its own warriors and statesmen. This sounds extravagant, but some of the recent talk of men ordinarily considered sensible certainly ought to do something towards making it sound probable. Mr. J. S. Mill, for instance, years ago compared the relation of the modern newspaper to society to that of the Hebrew prophets, and Mr. Froude has very lately compared it to that of the Church in the Middle Ages. Beyond this it would be hard to go. More than this newspapers can hardly do without taking charge of the government, if not of all babies from the birth.

It is not surprising that under these circumstances the talk about educating young men for "journalism" should become louder every year at the season when collegiate education is most under discussion. All the feebler colleges are eager about this time to produce "journalists," and many of them give notice that they are busily erecting machinery for that purpose which will shortly enable them to fill orders for Isaiahs, and Jeremiahs, and Abelards, and Thomas à Kempises to any required extent. The process seems difficult to the outside public, but we have the word of several distinguished educators for it that nothing is easier. You take a fluent, bright-minded man, and you steep him in history, political economy, jurisprudence, and metaphysics and logic, and there is your journalist all ready for his lofty and mysterious functions. Hardly anything could be simpler or more attractive. The youth who graduates in a law-school, and sits down to work his way at

the bar, may have every quality needed to command success, and may win it eventually, but it is sure to take years to win it, and the same thing may be said of the young doctor, or young architect, or young engineer, or young merchant. All of these are pretty certain, except in cases of exceptional advantage, to have to face years of obscurity and isolation as well as of poverty. Their prosperity has to be based on a solid foundation of experience and character, and has to be built up by results capable of accurate measurement. The journalist, on the other hand, may, and often does, find at the very outset of his career his staircase thronged with "war-horses," shrewd managers, Christian statesmen, teetotal giants, ripe scholars, profound thinkers, the sages of the caucus and the stump. He may find his opinion largely sought, and his approval eagerly courted, by men who, if he had not publicity at his command, would not give a cent for either, and in fact find himself carried into fame and power without any more honest toil or expenditure of brain-power than is needed for the conduct of a single difficult case at the bar. It is no wonder that the career looks attractive; only one thing prevents its becoming overwhelmingly attractive, and that is its unproductiveness as regards money. There is probably no industry of modern times in which the part played by labor is so large, and the share in the profits received by labor so small, and in which it is so difficult for the laborer to climb into the position of the capitalist; and it is this fact which prevents, and will always prevent, the career having anything about it that can be called brilliant, and will prevent its being a profession for which men will prepare regularly at school or college. If nobody could practise medicine or law unless he was employed at a salary by a corporation with two millions of capital, we should find the ranks of these callings very scantily filled, and yet this is the position which nearly every journalist has to face. Moreover, there is no modern industry in which the separation between capital and morals is so great, and the temptation on the part of capital to disregard morals so strong. There are half-a-dozen men in England and America whose power over the fortune and reputation of their fellow-citizens is very great within certain limits, and these limits are traced simply by liability to detection in downright falsehood. A newspaper proprietor who avoids being convicted of palpable untruths may for an indefinite period make the lives of his enemies wretched, or force thousands to fill his till or pander to his vanity, without check or hindrance, and may actually find that the more unscrupulous he is, inside this line, in the manufacture of his wares, the more money he makes. That this temptation should be resisted as stoutly as it is is a very creditable fact, but it is not resisted stoutly enough to make journalism a taking profession for men of sensitive moral natures. The loftiest young moralist who enters the editorial rooms of a great daily speedily finds his ardor quenched by cold blasts of worldly wisdom from the counting-room. The publisher is anxious in his way to improve the world, but he is desirous of doing it very slowly, and likes to take frequent recesses in the great work. The Hebrew prophets lived on wild honey, and wore camel's-hair girdles, and the mediæval theologians had Satan at their back to give force and point to their anathemas and exhortations; their modern equivalent is neither so simple in his tastes as the prophets, nor so terrible in the popular eye as the theologians. He has to have his comforts, and he knows he cannot have them if he makes himself disagreeable, so he adapts his wailings and warnings to the market.

Another difficulty in the way of making journalism a profession to be regularly prepared for is the fact that it affords no accurate tests of a man's powers or attainments, in any sense in which these words are used in colleges or in the intellectual world. A lawyer's learning or logical dexterity is every day weighed and measured with the greatest nicety by decisions; a doctor's skill and ability by cures, or by the confidence with which he inspires patients; a merchant's by the extent and result of his operations; an engineer's by the strength and suitability of his work. The one test of a journalist's ability is "sales," and, as his sales may be to idiots and ignoramuses, as well as to wise or learned men, they tell nothing whatever of the stuff he is made of. He may be a powerful preacher, persuading or instructing powerful minds; but he may be, for all that appears on the surface, a pedlar selling worthless "notions." As long as this uncertainty hangs over the calling, it cannot greatly tempt men of the highest kind of intellectual ambition to follow it, though it will always tempt a large number of those to whom influence is sweet, and to whom public affairs possess great interest, to use it as an instrument for the embodiment of their theories in practice. It is, too, worthy of note that the profession which most nearly resembles journalism, the ministry, has of late years come to resemble it more and more since the decline of theology as a system of intellectual philosophy. When every minister was bound to preach a set theory of the universe, extracted from the Bible by a well-settled process of interpretation, and dogmas were held to be essential to salvation, preaching was performed under conditions nearly as rigid as those of an argument in the Court of Appeals. Cases had to be cited, rules applied, and analogies worked out and reconciled, under the watchful eye of a host of judges, who were versed in the system from their childhood, and detected a flaw in doctrine or a slip in reasoning as unerringly as if they did it by instinct. In other words, the minister was the expounder of a system which, whatever one might think about its premises, exacted close logic in drawing the conclusions, and his mind was apt to be an acute, subtle, well-trained instrument of argumentation. The dropping-out of dogmas and the abandonment of Christianity as a complete explanation of creation, has made him almost in all respects a journalist, or, in other words, a man working under no tests or conditions, and whose feet may, it is true, be treading seed into productive soil, but may, too, for aught anybody can tell, be as idle as those of the wild elephant. He may draw a crowd, but whether a crowd of idlers in search of excitement, or a crowd of earnest men seeking light, he need not or does not care.

Correspondence.

ETRUSCAN AND PELASGIAN ART IN THE DI CESNOLA COLLECTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your article of June 26 on the Di Cesnola Collection contains the following paragraph:

"A class of the vases, of later character, is in the most pronounced style of ordinary 'Etruscan,' with artistic heads and ornaments, offering the antiquarian a terrible problem to get these Italian potters into the centre of an Anatolian island, executing their vases in the fashions that taught the Greeks."

I wish to give a few quotations proving that the problem here propounded is very easily solved; not, however, so much to correct an error of minor importance as to clear the ground for an attempt to stifle a theory which, according to your Di Cesnola article of May 29, is

"skilfully maintained by our correspondent, Mr. Stillman, of the identity of the Etruscans with an ancient race of builders and sculptors who carried the tide of primitive art eastward through Greece, the other Mediterranean islands, and Asia Minor."

You will see that this latter idea, if erroneous, should be at once corrected, if you notice that Mr. Stillman's last letter, in the *Nation* of July 3, goes on to fix the relative dates of the Cyprus styles by it, and even drags the Phœnicians into his universal Pelasgian net.

I translate the following from Otto Jahn's 'Beschreibung der Vasensammlung in der Pinakotek zu München,' the best German authority on vases:

"In the beginning of the previous century, when the painted vases first attracted the notice of antiquarians, the opinion soon became fixed that they were of Etruscan origin. It was founded on a preconceived idea of the Etruscan style, on [Italian] patriotic disposition to refer as many works as possible to an Italian origin, and a resulting system of the most fabulous imaginings, which it would be useless to reconsider; although the name has become so rooted that the public still speak of 'Etruscan' vases. . . . Winckelmann pronounced decidedly in his 'Art History' that the inscriptions, style,

and subjects treated, on the painted vases, give the most unquestionable evidence of Greek origin—an opinion which Lanzi in 1806 still found it necessary to establish more clearly. . . . The fact that these productions of Greek art are found in such number in Italy [outside of Magna Grecia], and the respective difficulties of explanation on the hypotheses of importation or of manufacture on the spot [by Greek potters], have been treated in the investigations of Gerhard, R. Rochette, Millingen, O. Müller, Luynes, Welcker, Hirt, Bunsen, Campanari, Kramer, Thiersch, Abiken, Lenormant, De Witte, Osann, and Schultz."

To the same effect I might quote, if necessary, Schnaase, Jacob Burckhardt, Lübke, and Ottfried Müller. For the general dependence of Etruscan art on the Greek, the following quotations from Mommsen ('Roman History') may suffice:

"Greek art, when it acted on Etruria, was still, as its copy shows, at a very primitive stage, and the Etruscans probably learned from the Greeks the art of working in clay and metal at a period not much later than that at which they borrowed from them the alphabet. . . . There is not a single one of the aspects of Italian art which has not found its definite model in the arts of ancient Greece. . . . As scholars have long since desisted from the attempt to derive Greek art from that of the Etruscans, so they must, with whatever reluctance, make up their minds to transfer the Etruscan from the first to the lowest place in the history of Italian art" (pages 312, 315 of the translation, vol. i.)

It will now be evident that similarity between some works of art in Cyprus and in Etruria is exactly what we should expect from what we already know of the influence of Greek art on the Etruscan, from the archaic stage down. When, therefore, Mr. Stillman says:

"There are types of Egyptian *provenance;* others, purely archaic, of Assyrian; and others still, more distinctly marked, and probably the earliest of all, of Etruscan (Pelasgic?) kin,"

it is evident that he *may* be very much mistaken in supposing that similarity to Etruscan statues implies a date earlier than archaic Greek, which is the latest of the styles in Cyprus. We will now settle by reference to Max Duncker what a "Pelasgian" is, and by reference to Mommsen what a "Pelasgian" is not—having made it clear that the Di Cesnola Collection does not throw any light on his supposed identity with the Etruscan type. Says Duncker, p. 11, vol. iii., of the 'Geschichte des Alterthums':

"These different traditions and points of view show that the name Pelasgian in the Greek tradition was a general name embracing all Greek tribes, as later the name Achæan did, and, still later, the name Hellene. The name clearly denotes the oldest time, the most ancient men, the most ancient ancestors of the Greeks."

With regard to the hypothesis that the Pelasgians were the earliest settlers of Cyprus, it may be definitely denied that the Pelasgians and Etruscans are the same stock, and on this head Mommsen is decisive authority. Of the latter he says:

"Their manners and customs, as far as we are acquainted with them, point to the conclusion that this nation was originally quite distinct from the Greco-Italian [Pelasgian] stocks. . . . The conclusion which these facts suggest is confirmed by the most important and authoritative evidence of nationality—the evidence of language. . . . In opposition to this simple and natural view [that they moved into Italy from the Rhœtian Alps, where their language was still spoken in historical times] stands the story that the Etruscans were Lydians who had emigrated from Asia. The Italian Etruscans (Τυρρηνοί) nearly coincide in name with the Lydian Τορρηβοί, or perhaps also Τυρρηνοί, so named from the town Τύρρα. This manifestly accidental resemblance in name seems to be in reality the only foundation for this hypothesis—not rendered more reliable by its *great antiquity*—and for all the pile of crude historical speculation that has been reared upon it. By connecting the ancient maritime commerce of the Etruscans with the piracy of the Lydians, and then by confounding (Thucydides is the first who has demonstrably done so) the Torrhebian pirates, whether rightly or wrongly, with the buccaneering Pelasgians who roamed and plundered over every sea, there has been produced one of the most unhappy complications of historical tradition. The term Tyrrhenians denotes sometimes the Lydian Torrhebi, as is the case in the earliest sources, such as the Homeric hymns, sometimes under the form Tyrrheno-Pelasgian, or simply that of Tyrrhenians, the Pelasgian nation; sometimes, in fine, the Italian Etruscans, although *the latter never came into permanent contact with the Pelasgians or Torrhebians, nor were at all connected with them by common descent*" (pages 166, 170, vol. i. of the translation).

On the whole, is it surprising about these Etrusco-Pelasgian Cypriotes that "a curious difference exists in the permanence of their stock, as upon the mainland or insulated"; and that, although on Cyprus the islanders still resemble their forefathers, "no modern Pelasgic (Etrurian) faces are to be found in Italy" (*Nation* of May 29)?

Wm. H. Goodyear.

Westminster Hotel.

Notes.

DR. GEORGE M. BEARD of this city, who has paid some attention to vital statistics without perhaps in any case having achieved results proportionate to his industry, has recently been getting together a mass of figures in support of his assertion that the mental decay of old men accompanies, *pari passu*, their physical decay, and, to use the language of the *Medical and Surgical Reporter*, that increasing years beyond forty are but increasing senility in an intellectual sense. "The golden decade," says Dr. Beard, "is between thirty and forty, the silver is between forty and fifty, the brazen is between twenty and thirty, the iron between fifty and sixty, the tin between sixty and seventy, the wooden between seventy and eighty. Seventy per cent. of the world's work is done before forty-five, and eighty per cent. before fifty. The golden decade alone represents nearly one-third of the work of the world." Now, if all this means that when men become very old they are sure to get into their second childhood, and that very young men are not so mature and capable as older men, it is a truth requiring few columns of figures to prove it. But Dr. Beard means more. He says that he has noted the ages at which philosophers have found and announced their systems, at which divines and religious teachers have originated their creeds, at which statesmen, generals, painters, poets, musicians, architects, lawyers, actors, men of science, engineers, have respectively done their best, and that from the data thus collected he has derived the period, the decade, and year of maximum productiveness and the various grades. As illustrative of the way in which Dr. Beard handles his figures, and of his conception of the real nature of the enormous fabric which he was rearing, we quote, in substance, a brief passage from his critic in the *Reporter*. The dates in life of the greatest achievements of single lives in the various categories which we have given above Dr. Beard takes in, let us say, a thousand instances. Examining them, he finds that "the golden decade represents about twenty-five per cent. more than the silver." What, then, more certain than that it is the men between thirty and forty who have done more of "the world's work" than the men between forty and fifty? Accordingly, that they have done more of it, and have done more because they were abler to do work, is the conclusion which Dr. Beard reaches. Yet it would be as absurd to say "seventy-five per cent. of the dinners in the world are eaten by persons under fifty, and we are compelled to draw from this approximate fact grave conclusions as to the melancholy failure of the dinner-eating power after man has passed his silver-fork decade." The fact that most of the dinner-eating of the world has been done by persons under fifty years of age is a fact; but the inference is faulty, because the statistician left out of view the other fact that the number of persons above fifty years of age is much smaller than the number of persons who have not yet reached that age. So of the great achievements of persons on the "right side" of forty as against the achievements of those on the wrong side. The number of the latter is smaller than the number of the former, and so much smaller that Dr. Beard's own method overthrows completely the structure he had raised. Take a thousand persons born in France, a thousand born in England, and a thousand born in Belgium, and we find that the mean number of them living between the ages of twenty and forty is 539, while the mean number living between the ages of forty and sixty is only 341. Hence, if the amount of work done by each man past forty were exactly equal to that done by each man under forty, the younger men would still do sixty per cent. of the work. In the light of this compound proportion of work to age, and age to mortality, short work is made of the "twenty-five per cent." of Dr. Beard's simple proportion of work to age.

—"Progressive Myopia, and its Operative Cure," is the title of an interesting monograph by Dr. Richard H. Derby, a well-known ophthalmologist of this city, just published by D. Appleton & Co. Near sight seems from the statistics collected here and abroad to be one of the commonest afflictions of civilized communities, yet little is known about it by the mass even of those who suffer from it. For example, there is a widespread belief among near-sighted people that their eyes are stronger than those who can see far, and they congratulate themselves frequently on the probability that at a time of life when others need a convex glass for reading they will be able to work with ease without any glass. Dr. Derby says, however, that this prevalent belief is "utterly without foundation," though it seems from his next paragraph that this statement may be probably a little too strong; in what is known as "stationary" near-sight (the worst kind of myopia, which does not increase with age), "between the fortieth and fiftieth year" (in exceptional cases) "where the power of accommodation becomes less, there is an apparent diminution in the amount of myopia." This exceptional apparent diminution may account for the erroneous belief in the decrease of near-sight with age.

—On the other hand, "Progressive Myopia," as its name implies, is a positive disease—"a disease fraught with many dangers to the eye." There is here not merely a simple "error of refraction"; there is also a "distension of the eye and increased length of its visual axis, and this depends upon a pathological distension of its membranes. When this distension has reached a certain point, the membranes become attenuated, and their power of resistance somewhat diminished, so that the distension no longer remains stationary, especially as the intraocular pressure of the myopic eye is generally increased. The myopia increases with this progressive distension." With regard to the frequency of this affection,

"Dr. Cohn, of Breslau, published in 1867 the results of an examination of the eyes of 10,060 school-children. He found a constantly-increasing number of myopic pupils from the lowest to the highest schools. The following table gives the percentage of near-sighted pupils in the various schools:

Elementary school	6.7 per cent.
Intermediate school	10.3 "
High-school (Realschule)	19.7 "
Colleges (gymnasia)	26.2 "

"In the high-schools one-half of the first class were found to be myopic. In the colleges the statistics were more dreadful. Here in the sixth class 12.5 per cent. of the pupils are near-sighted, while in the first class there is the enormous percentage of 55.8 of myopic students. Lately, Erismann has published carefully-prepared statistics of the refraction of pupils in the schools of St. Petersburg. Four thousand three hundred and fifty-eight scholars were examined. Of these, 30.2 per cent. were myopic. Here, as in Cohn's tables, a comparison of the different classes shows a startling increase from year to year in the number of myopes. Among children of eight years of age, 10.2 per cent. were found to be myopic. Among the pupils of twenty years, myopia was found in 40 per cent. of all examined."

These statistics ought certainly, as Dr. Derby says, to attract the attention of the great near-sighted public, who will find in his pamphlet also a description of the simple surgical operation which he recommends as a "prophylactic measure in progressive near-sight."

—In the last Annual Report (for 1872) of the Commissioners of Emigration of the State of New York, we find a "Circular Letter addressed to the Governors of the several Southern States on the subject of Labor," which we heartily commend to the consideration of the "several governors," and sincerely hope that it will meet with a response commensurate with the desire of those who wish well to the South. That the future growth and prosperity of that section depend largely upon the direction thither of some portion of that tide of emigration now so steadily setting westward admits, we suppose, of little doubt. In no other way do we see so fair an opportunity of effecting a complete and lasting cure of existing evils as by an infusion of fresh blood in large quantities. It cannot be denied that at present there seems to be little disposition on the part of our newly arriving friends to pitch their tents in any of the late slaveholding States. This is a fact borne out by the table of "avowed destinations of emigrants" in the Castle Garden report of last year. Out of 294,581 "emigrant" passengers arriving in New York during the year, only 3,017 declared a preference for the "South"—the term, in this instance, including fourteen States, beginning with Maryland and ending with Texas, together with West Virginia, Arkansas, Tennessee, and Kentucky. If we subtract the number going to Maryland and Kentucky, we have only 1,172 to be absorbed into twelve States, and this in spite of all the efforts, well and ill devised, and more or less organized, which the South has officially made to allure immigrants. It is not easy to assign to half-heartedness, a mistaken land policy, a corrupt administration of public affairs, the lack of schools, the absence of a nucleus for foreign colonization, the part which each along with other causes has played in rendering these efforts fruitless. Due allowance made for them, some defect may still be imagined to have existed in the various Southern schemes of emigration, and we cannot do better than refer to the success of Michigan as an example worthy of study and probably of imitation.

—In 1869, the Michigan Legislature passed an act for the encouragement of emigration, and appropriated $7,500 per annum to be expended in this direction, giving the governor the power to appoint two persons—one to act as a Commissioner of Emigration, to reside in Germany, and the other to be a local agent, resident in New York. These agents have been at work nearly two years; and of the nature of this work some idea will be had from the following extract from the last message of the governor:

"During the past year," he says, "there has been issued at Hamburg a second and third edition of a pamphlet containing a map of Michigan, with a description (in German) of its climate, productions, and other advantages; the publication at the same place of a small monthly paper (in German) devoted to the same purposes, and furnishing general information useful to emigrants, has been continued by the commissioner. Both publications have been gratuitously circulated in large numbers in Germany, Austria and Denmark. . . . The local agent has devoted his time to receiving forwarding, and sometimes accompanying to the State persons arriving at the port of New York."

It may be worth adding that both these agents are native Germans, now residing in Michigan, and that the salary of the commissioner is $2,500, while that of the local agent is $1,500—these salaries, with every other expense, being met by the legislative appropriation. These efforts resulted last year in bringing 12,340 young and able-bodied men and women into the State, against 5,930 in 1870; and the ball having now been fairly set in motion, there is every promise of a rapid increase. Considerable facilities have been afforded the immigrants by the State in location and purchase of lands—new homes have been laid out for their especial benefit, and the terms of payment have been made as easy as possible. We cannot now enter further into the details of the subject, but enough has been stated to show that emigration can be and is controlled and directed by the use of a moderate sum of money in the hands of honest and efficient agents, and some such plan is well worthy adoption by the governors, legislatures, or peoples of the "several Southern States."

—The Philadelphia *Public Ledger* has long been noted among American newspapers for the large number of "deaths" which it contains. In a copy now before us there are, for example, sixty-odd of these notices, each accompanied by a notification as to the time and place of burial. A few, by the bye, are accompanied also by some verses of the order common in this kind of poetry, and some of which have for many years done duty in the same column. Having thus unusual facilities for mortuary research, the *Ledger* has recently turned its attention to the local longevity which it has chronicled, and its investigation has perhaps thrown a ray or two of light on the vexed centenarian problem. It begins with the statement that during the first six months of this year it has announced in its obituary department no less than 328 deaths of persons who had reached or surpassed the age of eighty years. This is against 359 for the corresponding figures of last year. The reader will now have a clearer idea than we were able to convey to him a moment since of the extraordinary number of entries regularly made in the *Ledger's* record of mortality. Of these 328 persons the men numbered only 122, leaving the women, as is usual in this matter, in a majority, they numbering 206. Further examination strengthened the evidence in favor of the excessive longevity of women, "as the women who lived beyond ninety are much more numerous than the men." Thus, of persons dying at the age of ninety there were ten women to four men; of persons dying at the age of ninety-one, four were women and one a man; of persons dying at ninety-two, seven were women, two were men; at ninety-three, the men got the better, and the count stood three men and two women; but at ninety-four there were no men and four women; at ninety-five, one man and four women; at ninety-six, one man and two women; at ninety-seven, one woman and no man; at ninety-nine, two women; at one hundred, one woman; at one hundred and one, also, there was one woman; at one hundred and two there was one; and at one hundred and three there was one. Of the whole forty-nine who surpassed the age of ninety, only thirteen were men; thirty-six were women. Of the centenarians and supra-centenarians in this list the writer gives but an extremely slight account, and sets them down with no apparent distrust of their claim and with no evidence of its truthfulness. It probably would not have prepossessed Sir George Cornewall Lewis in their favor to learn that the lady who reached the great age of a hundred and two began her career in County Antrim, Ireland, and that she who died in her hundredth year came to Philadelphia, as a widow of seventy years, from the County of Derry. Neither of these, we may suppose, had written evidence to support her pretensions. The woman who is said to have been one hundred and three years old appears to have been an American, and there may be competent testimony of her having attained the great age assigned her. She was an inmate of the Penn Widows' Asylum. On the other hand, in rebuttal of Sir George's theory that no man can live a full century, we observe in the English journals a statement that the Registrar of Airdrie, Scotland, reports that "among the deaths is that of a centenarian who, at the taking of the census, stated his age as 101, so that at his death he was aged 103 years. He was born near the port of Menteith, in 1770. At one period of his life he was extensively engaged as a railroad contractor. He was exceedingly intelligent and communicative. His widow is in her ninety-third year."

—The *Pall Mall Gazette* is fortunate enough to possess a Paris correspondent who has a thorough knowledge of the country from which he writes. Indeed, his knowledge of French politics, history, and manners is so minute that one might almost suspect him of being a Frenchman, were it not for the tone of his letters—a tone of thoroughly Anglo-Saxon contempt for all "Latin races." In one of his recent letters he discusses the influence of the institution known as the "tribune" in the French Assembly. He says that "any one who has frequented the debates in a French Assembly will understand that France is greatly indebted for the bad working of her parliamen-

tary institutions to that mischievous pulpit of claptrap oratory—the tribune." We may easily understand how this must be by reflecting what would be the result if in any English or American parliamentary body, whenever a member rose to make a plain, brief statement of fact, without oratorical flourishes, the other members, or a few of them, could, by mere dint of noisy shouts of "*à la tribune, à la tribune,*" drive him from his seat into a large rostrum occupying a commanding position, and compel him by this flank movement to make a tremendous stump-speech on a subject for which stump-speaking was out of place, or else cow him into silence. "The tribune is a terrible deterrent to members who have only a few practical remarks to offer, and a baneful encouragement to shallow bores who love to dribble words without any meaning in them." Generally, the shouts of the members bring the speech-maker to bay, and the more his opponents try to drown his speech, the more his own party applaud, while the deputy goes on gesticulating more and more violently, after the manner of his race, and becoming more and more inaudible as the noise increases. A practice has also arisen which the *Pall Mall* correspondent thinks highly objectionable, of "victualling the tribune before beginning operations. For some time this odious practice was confined to orators not merely long-winded but of the illustrious sort; and so long as this was so, no fault could be found. But it is a different matter to see a dreary ranter and a long-necked bottle mount the tribune in company, and to feel that before that ranter can be got rid of the long-necked bottle must be emptied to the dregs." The practice of victualling ought to commend the institution of the tribune to the attention of our politicians at Washington.

—Earl Stanhope and Lord Houghton have for some time been endeavoring to secure the official recognition by the English Government of English men of letters, art, and science, and late last month the matter was the subject of debate in the House of Lords. The proposal was that a new order of merit should be instituted, or that the Order of the Bath, originally military but afterwards extended so as to embrace civil servants of the state, should be still further extended. The arguments in favor of the project were such as have been often heard and often answered, the newest thing said being a somewhat mischievous remark of Lord Houghton's, that "Mr. Thomas Carlyle's writings had influenced not only the philosophy but the practical statesmanship of our time, and had even affected the structure of the English language." Could this last proposition be made good, Mr. Carlyle's chances of receiving the honors of the new order would hardly be improved. Lord Houghton cited two other writers as having been enormously influential—Mr. Mill having been powerful just after Mr. Carlyle's popularity reached its zenith, while just before Mr. Carlyle's rise the age was moulded in Lord Houghton's young days by "the moral and philosophical influence of Coleridge, under whose genius the literature of the time was almost transformed." Lord Granville, in replying to Lord Stanhope, urged the difficulties of selection, the jealousies which would arise, the likelihood that the prime minister would not know how to perform the task of pronouncing upon literary, artistic, and scientific claims; and, after similar reasoning from Earl Grey and the Earl of Harrowby, the matter dropped.

—To many thoughtless persons it will not be apparent why a musical composer or his publisher should be at the trouble of preferring one set of words to any other set. The music has always seemed to be their first and only care; and for their course in that particular they have usually had two or three excellent excuses. For one thing, the public has for years bought words irrespective of their having any sense or feeling. For another, the same public, when listening to singers, has always showed that, while it cared something for the music, as regards the words it was content to catch the meaning of one word out of forty. It is so rare for a singer to show the least respect for the meaning of the language used by the writer that it is only at intervals of ten or twelve years that any one of us actually understands so much as a verse or a line of a verse sung in his presence. Poets suffer more at the hands of singing artists—a tuneful but not the wisest or best educated of races—than dramatic authors suffer at the hands of actors. This is a strong statement; but, as everybody knows, it is warranted by the facts. An intelligent perception of what the poet means, a feeling apprehension of the sentiment of the song, an attempt to express this meaning and sentiment, are hardly ever found in our singers, male or female. Instead of these we get from them vocal gymnastics and personal display; and as the vast majority of us cannot judge of such matters as poetry, and as to most of us the feats of the vocalist also are very wonderful things and altogether beyond us, our singers have a double chance to evade without our reproof the endeavor at reaching the true excellence of their art. M. Charles Gounod and Mr. Littleton, his publisher, may or may not hold opinions like these; but they have just been having a severe quarrel over the merits of two rival sets of words which had been offered to accompany a song of M. Gounod's composing. Mr. Justice Denman would seem to have thought that one song was much the same thing as the other; for he remarked that in both there was "a deal of allusion to shades and flowers and breezes, and all that sort of thing"; but to M. Gounod one appears so much better than the other that in the heat of discussion he indulged in statements so careless that Mr. Littleton brought an action for libel, and had him fined forty shillings. M. Gounod writes to the *Times* a brief but significant note, the tone of which shows that two days after the trial of the action, one of them the Sabbath, he had not yet got into a condition of coolness. His cause has not been heard, he says; his principal witness was not examined; he is a stranger, and his incompetency as a speaker of English threw obscurity over the questions put to him and the incomplete answers which he could make; and finally, he declares that the forty shillings fine and the costs of suit he is determined that he will never pay. He has heard that no appeal lies in his case; but he appeals to the *Times* to print his letter and show the public how he has been treated, which the *Times* accordingly does.

MR. BUXTON'S THOUGHTS.*

MR. CHARLES BUXTON was an excellent man, a high-minded politician, and a warm friend. He possessed a certain literary talent, had published a work of thoughts about politics, and left behind him, prepared for publication, a book of thoughts upon things in general. His death deprived his country of one of a class of public men of whom there are at no time too many, and caused profound grief to a large number of attached acquaintances. His friends have naturally published a memoir commemorating Mr. Buxton's virtues, as well as the book to the composition of which he had devoted part of many years. With Mr. Buxton as a private man and a politician, we have at present no concern. If we said anything at all about him in these capacities, we should certainly say nothing except in his praise. He was the inheritor of a name famous in the annals of philanthropy, and throughout life did credit to the name he bore. Occasionally he took up tasks a little beyond his strength, as when he joined in prosecuting Governor Eyre, and yet scrupled at indicting him for murder. But he was the consistent advocate of enlightened humanity in an age when humanitarianism has fallen into discredit, and the ceaseless assailant of oppression among a generation more and more inclining to the belief that might is right. We are concerned with Mr. Buxton not as a man but as an author. We pay a tribute to his honest and manly character when we criticise his works as freely now he is dead as we should do if he were living. The nature of his 'Notes on Thought' is described by himself in the following lines, written in September, 1860: "My idea is to look steadily and thoroughly into the world around, and to write down what I observe in it in the briefest words." The six hundred and eighty-four notes constitute, therefore, Mr. Buxton's mature reflections on the world and on life. They are the reflections of an honest, educated English gentleman. You can see in every line the trace of what is termed "thoughtfulness," and indeed the most descriptive title for the book would be 'Thoughts of a Thoughtful Man.' Mr. Buxton, no doubt, was not, and never pretended to be, a man of originality or genius; but he was highly educated, he had seen a good deal of the world and of mankind, and from his youth up seems to have never missed an opportunity either of thinking a thought or, we must add, of at once putting it down on paper. The very fact that he was like, both in character and in position, to hundreds of educated gentlemen gives a certain value to his 'Thoughts,' and thus affords an opportunity of examining the theory that "thoughtfulness" is a virtue much to be cultivated, and of seeing what are the results to which educated thoughtfulness leads.

"It is a daily surprise to me," writes Mr. Buxton, "to see how shallow, poor, barren-minded men may still be, after the most prodigious amount of education—all the education that can be given, not by Eton and Oxford alone, but by Parliament, society, travel, reading, pictures, talk. But the truth is, there is one path to wisdom, and only one, the path of *thought*." This sentence gives the theory on which Mr. Buxton's work, and a hundred like it, are composed. Mr. Buxton, Mr. Helps, "A. K. H. B.," and a hundred other essayists of very varying calibre, write down their reflections, and publish them to the world under the assumption that the great object of life is to encourage thoughtfulness, and that if a man be but "thoughtful," he is certainly on the path of wisdom himself, and most probably is competent to guide the public along it. Now, the truth of this assumption is open to the gravest doubt the moment you examine what "thoughtfulness" really means. No one ever terms a man "thoughtful" about any topic which he has studied or of which he is a master. It would be ridiculous to talk of Mr. Grote's being a "thoughtful" writer on the history of Greece, to

* 'Notes on Thought. By the late C. Buxton, M.P.' London: John Murray.

praise Mr. Mill's "thoughtfulness" about logic, or to term Herbert Spencer a man who had thought much on sociology. When you praise a man's thoughtfulness, you really mean not that he is master of any subject, but that he is given to reflect upon matters which most people let pass without reflection. It should again be remarked that no one dreams of applying the term thoughtful to persons whose forte lies in the transaction of practical affairs and in dealing successfully with the difficulties of actual life. None, we presume, ever talked about the thoughtfulness of Lord Palmerston and the Duke of Wellington, yet nobody doubts that on many topics they must have thought, and thought hard, and that their ideas were as well worth having as that of the most thoughtful writer or politician to be found in England or America. Thoughtfulness, in fact, is generally merely a name for a tendency to reflect upon common things and form little theories about them. Now, is it true that this tendency to reflection is the "one path" to wisdom? It is very hard to see how it can be so. The study of science, of literature, of politics, any pursuit which forces a man to clear away his ignorance and to strengthen his mind by hard, consecutive mental labor, tends at least to make him wise in one department of speculation or life, since it certainly frees him from errors and often invigorates his whole mind. But thinking of itself, thinking which does not involve any increase of knowledge, theorizing, in short, about ordinary everyday events, would not seem to most rational per ons a very hopeful mode of finding out wisdom. The remarks on the minor matters of life which are best worth reading or best worth remembering are not the observations of men who have made these minor matters their concern, but are made by persons who have turned a mind trained in some regular pursuit to the occasional examination of lesser things. Bacon's 'Essays,' Johnson's 'Conversations,' Coleridge's 'Table-Talk,' contain a host of notes, thoughts, or observations bearing on all sorts of occurrences. But the thoughts of these eminent persons derive their value not from the fact that their authors had attained wisdom by the cultivation of thoughtfulness, but from the very different fact that they brought minds of rare power and severely trained to bear occasionally on the lesser problems of life. Take your shallow, poor, barren-minded man, provide him with a note-book, and bid him be thoughtful, and you will have started him in a path far more likely to lead to priggishness than to wisdom. You have very probably done him a considerable injury, because you have led him to think that the habit of reflection can produce fruits which are brought forth by study or by the experience gained in active life. Thinking is very good if you have something valuable to think about. But mere thoughtfulness about things in general may leave you at last uninstructed in anything in particular, and imbued with the fatal belief that thought can supply the place of knowledge, and little things become great, because you can expend upon them a great deal of reflection.

Though we possess but a very limited faith in the merits of thoughtfulness, we own to having hoped that Mr. Buxton's 'Thoughts' might have some merits of their own, for it seemed hardly possible that the reflections of a man of more than average ability, who had associated with all the leading statesmen of the day, had seen some of the best sides of English life, and had taken part in the discussion of important questions, should not be interesting and instructive. We confess that after reading the work from beginning to end we can find little interest in it other than that which is derived from perceiving how very commonplace are the speculations of highly educated men, and can gain from it no other instruction than the lesson that mere thoughtfulness avails nothing to any one who has not mastered some particular topic about which he can think with effect. There is nothing, indeed, more curious about the whole of the 'Notes' than the utter absence of any information by which any one's knowledge can possibly be increased. We doubt whether the most sedulous reader can honestly assert that Mr. Buxton has taught him a single fact which he did not know at the moment he opened the book. It perhaps may be said that Mr. Buxton has at least this merit, that if he does not teach any new truths, he does not propagate errors, and we are willing to admit that his education and training do, as a general rule, keep him from making specific assertions about questions which he has never studied, and induce him to confine himself for the most part to the enunciation of platitudes which no one can contradict, because for the most part they are truisms not worth contradicting. But occasionally he leaves the safe high-road of platitude and pursues the much more dangerous path of historical or political speculation; and whenever Mr. Buxton takes this hazardous step, he gives the most curious impression of the laxity of ideas prevailing amongst educated men. Thus, in note 165, he ventures to hazard an historical theory about feudalism, and enunciates amongst other things that "there is one stage through which every 'nation' will be found to have passed—the stage of feudalism, in which society is an agglomeration of clans or chiefs to whom it owed service, and who gave it protection. This stage has long since been left behind by most European nations, lingering latest, perhaps, in the Scotch Highlands." Now, it is funny enough that a gentleman who probably was in the habit of reading current works on history should confuse clanship, which depends essentially on a real or supposed connection of race, with the feudal relation, which depends on totally different principles; but the confusion becomes still more absurd when he adds that "clanship begins, like most human relations, with a bargain." If Mr. Buxton had reflected on the foundation of the not very uncommon relation of father and child, he would have come a good deal nearer understanding the basis of clanship than he gets by starting from the quite incongruous notion of a bargain. But once having lost his way among "Feudal Barons," "Zemindars of Oude," "Front de Bœuf," and "Cedric," "South Africa" and its "Head man with despotic power," he flounders on from blunder to blunder, and cannot recover his footing until he lights upon the familiar topic of a bargain over which he can moralize and tell us how "nature beautifies all her works." But it may be said that Mr. Buxton was not bound to understand the subject of feudalism, though he certainly would have done much better not to have written about what he did not understand. Let us take him on a topic on which he is more at home. He thus writes of the Evangelicals: "The Evangelicals have their faults, and great ones, but it is a plain matter of fact that they set going the philanthropic movement which abolished slavery and the slave-trade, mitigated the penal code, remodelled our jails, spread missionaries over the heathen world, and wrought by education and other means a great improvement of the working-class in England. It is right and good to abuse them, but still they have done such a work as the world never saw before." We do not wish for a moment to detract from the immense credit justly due to the religious party here eulogized by Mr. Buxton, or to deny that at one time they did untold services to the cause of humanity; but to attribute to their efforts the whole philanthropic movement which marked the latter part of the last and the beginning of the present century, is simply to exhibit the utmost laxity and confusion of thought. Bentham, Romilly, Brougham, Rousseau, Voltaire, and a host of other persons belonging to different societies and countries must, in common fairness, be credited with their share in a movement of far too wide a character to be described as the work of any one religious party.

Mr. Buxton's admirers may, however, urge that inaccurate views of history, or a lax mode of expression when carelessly reviewing movements which he had never very carefully analyzed, do not substantially detract from Mr. Buxton's reputation as a keen observer and judicious critic of men and manners. We have no disposition to grudge him whatever reputation is his due, and gladly set before our readers a few samples, as it seems to us fairly selected, of the sort of thoughts with which a book which must be taken as the mature fruit of Mr. Buxton's experience is crammed:

"A nation does wisely, if not well, in starving her men of genius; fatten them, and they are done for.

"A large family party is rather too much like a flight of tomtits—everlasting twitter, but no conversation; gregariousness without companionship.

"Proverbs are potted wisdom.

"Cursed be chatterboxes, they are the pest of society. Blessed be chatterboxes, they are the salt of dull lives.

"A successful career has been full of great blunders.

"One of the ill effects of cruelty is that it makes the bystanders cruel. How hard the English people grew in the time of Henry the Eighth and of Bloody Mary!

"Silence is the severest criticism."

We will not undertake to assert that these maxims and the like will be of no benefit to any human being. Every one who has attained mature years must have passed through a stage of life when maxims had a strange impressiveness, when Bulwer seemed a profound and original thinker, and Tupper was felt to be not devoid of wisdom. To young gentlemen and ladies in search for maxims to guide them through life, Mr. Buxton may, we hope, be able to perform the part of a well-educated and gentlemanlike Tupper. He will supply them with thoughts which, if they are never new, are generally true, which are expressed without vulgarity, and are not defaced by obtrusive egotism.

AMERICAN CHURCH MUSIC.*

II.—MOTETS.

As we have seen, the American psalm-tune of the present day is actually inferior to that of the previous half-century. A gradual falling-off in nobility and strength, and the steady employment of a set form of cadences

* 'The Coronation: a Collection of Church Music. By Theo. F. Seward and Chester G. Allen. New York.' 1872.
'The Standard. By L. O. Emerson and H. R. Palmer.'
'The American Tune-Book. Ditson & Co.'
'Millard's Collection of Popular Music. By Harrison Millard.'
'Baumbach's New Collection of Sacred Music. By A. Baumbach.' 1871.
'Buck's Second Motette Collection. By Dudley Buck.' 1871.

and familiar melodic phraseology have at length brought the psalm-tune into the low estate in which we now find it. It has been persistently written down to the capacity of the people until the people have ceased to regard it with any respect, and are seeking in other forms of music a higher inspiration. In fact, it could not be otherwise. The legitimate use of the tune for several stanzas of a hymn renders it impossible for the music to correspond to the dramatic demands of each separate stanza. It must suffice if the general emotional type of the whole hymn is reproduced in the music. And since all the hymns may be classified into a very few well-marked emotional types, such as bold, animated, tender, noble or grand, commonplace, etc. (see Prof. Bailey's preface to Hillard's Readers), and any hymn of a given class may be sung to any tune of the same class without violating the fundamental proprieties, it follows that a comparatively limited number of tunes is regarded by congregations generally as sufficient for their wants. It is true, indeed, that music is the especial language of the emotions, and that the seven characteristic types given by Prof. Bailey are multiplied by the composer to an almost infinite gradation of shades. Yet these delicate shades are unappreciated by the average musical amateur, and, in the matter of psalm-tunes, must always remain so. For the fact that no hymn has an emotional uniformity through all its stanzas leads the chorister to look indulgently on the discrepancy that must exist between some of them and the tune; besides, the average chorister has sung so much meaningless music, and gone through so carelessly whatever good music he may happen to have used, that his taste is of little value.

In the motet, on the other hand, the conditions are more favorable to an artistic result. No interchange of different sets of words to the same music is permitted or possible. The music conforms itself at once to the peculiarities of the text. Instead of reducing all texts to a few dead-levels of emotional type, the art of the composer is to seize on each slightest change of sentiment, and, by the cunning application of music, heighten and intensify the dramatic contrast. Moreover, the words being always uttered to the same musical phraseology, the singer enters by degrees more and more into sympathy with the composer's understanding of the text; and if the music is dramatically true to the words, we have in it the most effective commentary possible. This is admirably illustrated in Handel's "Hallelujah," "Lift up your heads," "Behold the Lamb of God," and in Mendelssohn's "Thanks be to God," "He watching over Israel," and, indeed, by every masterly chorus that has made its way among the people. But it is not true, as one writer has said, that "music is the appropriate drapery of truth." Music is the appropriate drapery of any truth which requires drapery —that is, which has an emotional atmosphere. A proposition of Euclid is true, but it has no feeling in it. Handel had a healthy instinct in this respect. Consider the pleasant hopefulness of "And the glory of the Lord shall be revealed," and the assured belief of "for the mouth of the Lord hath spoken it," and the deep sadness and pathos of "And the Lord hath laid on him the iniquity of us all." On the other hand, see what difficulties he had with "For as in Adam all die." It was not Handel's fault; it was the text's.

The imperative demand of a motet is for truth to the chosen text. This truth must also be expressed in phraseology suitable to religious worship. And so we come to speak of the ecclesiastical style. There is a sense in which a motet must be ecclesiastical; that is, it must not be intrinsically a march or quickstep, or a mere love-song. But as for mannerism in phraseology, they, like the peculiar turns of the pulpit and the minister's "holy tone," are properly enough dispensed with. When we have the music expressed in a contrapuntal spirit, which is essentially an intelligent and dignified spirit, and in rhythmic forms not provocative of dancing, we have enough of the ecclesiastical style. Whenever the composer has a mastery of the art of expression, and the depth of soul to penetrate to the very heart of the text, the style may be considered safe enough.

Dr. Lowell Mason was very successful in the composition of short motets or sentences suitable to the ability of choirs as they at that time existed. They are remarkably faithful to the general spirit of the words, and were, doubtless, as elaborate as the times permitted. Good specimens of his work are "And ye shall seek me," p. 379 'American Tune-Book,' and "O praise God in his holiness," p. 390 of the same work. It was not his theory to concede to the weakness of the flesh or the vanity of soprano singers; hence we find few or no solos. They were simply "sentences" which a well-disposed choir might introduce at the opening of public worship. In those days organs were not common; the sentence was the beginning of the artistic use of music in American churches. In some of his longer works he was less fortunate. His popular "Jerusalem, my glorious home" was too monotonous, and this, as we shall hereafter see, is the fault into which composers always fall when they confine themselves to metrical texts for motets. Only the picturesque and dramatic poetry of the Bible affords a composer the readiest inspiration.

In the 'Coronation' we find on p. 338 an anthem, "Rejoice in the God of Israel," which illustrates a prevalent American type of "sacred music." This piece is in effect a brass-band march. Its entire phraseology, rhythm, harmony, and melody are of the military band. It is not half as ecclesiastical as the secular part-songs of Mendelssohn. The real faults are a poverty of invention and want of skill and taste in expression; the composer has not penetrated to the spirit of the text. He has only seen deep enough to perceive the general air of hope and rejoicing that the text contains. Consequently, he has thrown himself into an elevated emotional state (probably such as he may have had in boyhood when on his way to "general training"), and has poured out his feelings in song.

In Mr. Emerson's motets we do not find this pronounced secular savor. The melodies are flowing and not unsuitable to the text. The writer impresses us as a man with a decided natural aptitude for music, but always hampered by an inadequate mastery of the means of expression—a deficiency which he has not sought to supply in the only possible way, namely, by extended studies under a competent teacher, but by repeated blind experiments—a feeling-around after a fortunate turn of expression. His "Guide me, O thou great Jehovah" is one of the most popular quartette anthems, and is really effective to a wonderful extent, considering its inartistic construction. It is too monotonous in key, and the phraseology of the accompaniment is awkward, and, if played on the organ literally as it stands, fatal to the artistic success of the solo. His other hymn-anthems nowhere reach so high a flight as this.

The next three books on our list are written to subserve a higher artistic use, and are therefore open to a higher criticism, although, be it observed, simplicity or the reverse is not an element of importance. A work may be simple exceedingly, and yet be noble and refined. In Mr. Millard's book we find an endless number of popular airs set to hymns for church use. One of the worst cases is Flotow's "Lost, proscribed," set to "Come, thou Fount of every blessing"—a melancholy and tender ditty employed as an invocation to the Holy Spirit. The associations of these pieces are enough to debar them from church use even if they were in sympathy with the text, which they are not. In Baumbach's collection we find a great deal of a better sort. A few pieces ought not to have been inserted, they are so trivial and secular. And in adapting the "Tannhäuser March" for use as a festival anthem, Mr. Baumbach has perpetrated some of the most peculiar accentuation of words we were ever fortunate enough to meet.

But in Mr. Dudley Buck's motets we have the first well-considered effort at providing American choirs with a repertory of suitable and enjoyable music. In point of style it is sufficiently ecclesiastical. It is throughout dignified, though not falling into the peculiar mannerism of the older English Church writers. In choice of texts Mr. Buck has been singularly happy, and they are treated with a great deal of individuality. The unaccustomed singer will be very likely to find some of the modulations abrupt, but in these cases there are such good reasons for their employment that the ear speedily becomes reconciled to them. As good examples of happy treatment, we may refer to "The God of Abraham praise," one of the best pieces for church use to be found anywhere. Another is the quartette piece, "Hark, hark, my soul," where we have a hymn-anthem embracing four stanzas, yet not monotonously treated. "Arise, shine!" is a notable example of a thoroughly effective and satisfactory church piece. The *obligato* organ accompaniment to the unison, "For behold darkness shall cover the face of the earth," is highly orchestral in its effect, yet never for a moment secular. The selected pieces are very fine; yet the life of the book is in Mr. Buck's own pieces, and taken together they form a valuable contribution to American church music. They show for the first time in books of this kind a comprehensive and plastic control of the resources of choir, solo-singers, and organ for the edifying illustration of Scriptural texts.

THE NORTH AMERICAN FOR JULY.

THE articles of most literary interest in the July *North American* are Mr. Gryzanovski's and Mr. Ellis's, the former treating of Schopenhauer's pessimism, and the latter not only reviewing Mr. Sibley's 'Graduates of Harvard University,' but also adding something from Mr. Ellis's own store to the accumulation of knowledge which we owe to Mr. Sibley's microscopical painstaking.

Schopenhauer's greatest merit, says Mr. Gryzanovski, consists in his having remained faithful to speculative philosophy at a time when the reign of philosophy had passed away. His ethics, though good, are based upon a rotten metaphysical foundation; his philosophy has fundamental errors; and his pessimism may be considered as flowing from his

natural disposition, from the way in which the elements were mixed in him, rather than from accurate perception and just reasoning; but he never hushed his metaphysical cravings; he never gave himself up to the frivolities of existence, nor allowed himself to be absorbed by the exigencies of a life of labor and ambition, and he always professed his allegiance to what is good and beautiful and true—an allegiance which, if it is unfelt and unpaid, human society would become impossible, and individual life would not be worth the having.

This, it will be seen, is metaphysics in the large view, and, as Mr. Gryzanovski appears very willing to admit, it is not metaphysics of this kind from which the scientific men and the positivists turn with aversion and with considerable outcry and not a little of what seems like blindness and arrogance. That there may be a failure on their part to feel intimately the connection between metaphysics in this aspect and metaphysics in the aspect which repels them, is their misfortune, and perhaps, in some degree, their fault; but it is a failure which is a condition of their proper success. Only, while conceding all this, Mr. Gryzanovski has not the least intention of conceding the extreme demands to which philosophy, art, poetry, and religion have of late years equally been compelled to give ear as the laboratories have challenged each:

"Science is not a building-ground, but a mere brick-yard. Its results are building-stones, not buildings; and even mathematics and formal logic are scaffoldings rather than houses. Who can build without stones or without scaffoldings and plumb-lines? But the bricklayers and the carpenters ought to know what they are before they aspire to be builders and masters, and ought to become conscious that they belong to the very lowest grade in that lodge of freemasonry whose masters are to build a temple greater than Solomon's. In the meantime, it may be highly desirable that the brick-yard should be left undisturbed by metaphysical intruders. Philosophy can afford to wait until science shows signs of fatigue or distress. Nay, more, science has the strongest claims on our gratitude and admiration. If it has led to nothing better than Agnosticism (which, after all, is an improvement on Atheism and Materialism); if it denies the existence and, *a fortiori*, the immortality of the soul; and if it has reduced morality to a mere system of social dynamics—we ought the more readily to acknowledge our obligation to co-operate with those fearless and sagacious workers who obtained these results, and whose greatest wrong does not lie in these results, but in the presumption of their finality. Many of those who profess these doctrines are men of warm hearts and open minds, men who would be metaphysical enough to die for their country, and to own allegiance to all that, according to their lights, is good and beautiful and true."

This language seems to us to embody well a necessary truth, and to have been written in a spirit of justice not at all obscured by the evident combativeness.

Mr. Ellis's article will of course be particularly liked by Harvard men, and it has attractiveness for all students of the early times of New England and of the nature of the men who founded the Massachusetts commonwealth. To think of the university of our day, and look back upon it in its day of small things, when one of its principal aims was to breed missionaries and "convert the wild Indians," is to turn a leaf in the lesson that man proposes and God disposes, and to be reminded how different often is the disposition from the intent. It is perhaps rather a melancholy sort of interest that attaches to old records like this, but to whoever knows the College yard in Cambridge it is genuinely interesting to know that what Gookin here says, writing it two hundred years ago come next year, refers to the first brick building erected under the authority of the College. Gookin had been commissioned by the General Court of the Colony to govern and oversee the Indians, and it is to Charles II. that he makes his report:

"One thing falls in here fitly to be spoken of, as a means intended for the good of the Indians, which was the erecting a house of brick at Cambridge, in New England, which passeth under the name of the Indian College. It is a structure strong and substantial, though not very capacious. It cost between three and four hundred pounds. It is large enough to receive and accommodate about twenty scholars, with convenient lodgings and studies; but not hitherto hath been much improved for the ends intended, by reason of the death and falling off of Indian scholars. It hath hitherto been principally improved for to accommodate English scholars, and for placing and using a printing-press belonging to the College. This house was built and finished [probably in 1655] at the charge and by the appointment of the Honorable Corporation for propagating the Gospel in New England."

Mr. Ellis devotes a paragraph to the history of the ante-collegiate school, presided over by Mr. Nathaniel Eaton, about whom he is what Mr. Eaton would have called "exercised" a good deal, but whom our readers may be better pleased to associate in memory with the famous examination of Mrs. Eaton touching and concerning her way of keeping a boarding-house for the unhappy sub-freshmen of those days. This has always seemed to us to atone for quite a number of Mr. and Mrs. Eaton's shortcomings, though we confess the humor of it, besides being unconscious, is rather suggestive of Dotheboys Hall, and sets in a strong light the exceeding unluckiness of the boarders and lodgers.

Besides these articles, there is an anonymous article entitled "The Session"; one by Mr. J. M. Bugbee—a clerk, we think, in one of the public offices—on the great fire and the old Fire Department; one by Dr. W. O. Johnson on "Modern Medicine"; and one by Mr. Gardiner G. Hubbard on "Proposed Changes in the Telegraphic System." Of these, Mr. Bugbee's and Mr. Hubbard's will probably receive most attention, and for a portion of Mr. Hubbard's we bespeak the attention of the press, both the dependent and the independent. It is an incident, generally intelligible, in the current volume of American history—the history of the power of monopolies:

"Mr. Orton has said that 'he would undertake to produce an American journal, printed one thousand miles from the Atlantic coast, that should contain more news from all parts of the world in a single issue than could be gleaned from the London *Times* in a week,' and that 'the press are perfectly satisfied with the situation.' A statement of the arrangement by which the press obtains these low rates will show that in one point of view the press pays very dearly for them. The Associated Press of New York, in connection with the Western Union Telegraph Company, collect the news from Europe, and from all parts of our own country, forward it to some convenient centre for collation, preparation, and distribution, and then transmit it to the various press associations in all portions of the country. These associations are therefore dependent upon this double-headed monopoly formed by the Telegraph Company and the Associated Press of New York. No new associates are admitted into any press association without the assent of every other member. The news is delivered under an expressed or implied engagement that the receivers shall neither encourage nor support any other telegraph corporation; that they will protect its interests, and will not criticise the telegraph news. Thus an offensive and defensive alliance is organized for the protection of the Telegraph Company on the one hand, and of the Associated Press on the other, by which, in effect, that press is subsidized. The Western Union Telegraph Company can afford to furnish news at low rates to have the support of the press in its extortions upon the whole people; and the associations pay for this by defending the power which sustains their exclusive privilege of furnishing news to the public. The arrangement which Mr. Orton boasts of is therefore simply a combination to victimize the public for the sake of which the Associated Press sacrifices its character and independence.

"From time to time members of the press have advocated a postal telegraph, or have criticised the telegraphic reports, but they have quickly felt the power of the Telegraph Company, and their fate has proved a sufficient warning to others not to offend in like manner. The most noted are the *Herald* and *Alta California*, both of San Francisco, and the *Petersburg Index*, of Virginia. The California papers, the one in 1868 and the other in 1872–73, offended by advocating a reform in the telegraph service. They were promptly punished—the *Herald* by having the rates raised from six to fifteen cents per word, and the *Alta* by the entire loss of the despatches. The Telegraph Company assign as the reason for cutting off the *Alta* that they had great difficulty in collecting their bills. The Petersburg paper criticised the reports, and for a time lost its despatches. The Telegraph Company can raise or reduce the rates; and though they make contracts with the various associations, they are generally terminable at thirty days' notice. Its control over the press is therefore absolute. It has the power of life and death, for the telegraphic news is the vital breath of the daily newspapers. Such a power cannot exist without its exerting a pernicious influence on public affairs, and every observant public man has long perceived the demoralizing influence of this powerful but subtle agency."

Mr. Hubbard argues strongly for Government control of the telegraphic system, but, whatever the value of his remedy, no one who knows anything of our telegraphs—of the fortunes made by them and the power wielded by their owners in Congress, in the press, in trade and speculation—will fail to be impressed by his facts and figures.

Bostonians should flee Mr. Bugbee's article, which gives but a sad account of the centre and umbilicus of the earth. The person who said that if Boston was the Modern Athens, it must be the Athens of Snug the joiner, Bottom the weaver, and Starveling the tailor, will get more comfort out of Mr. Bugbee than Dr. Holmes's old gentleman will get. A poor fire department, inefficiently commanded; a method of governing it which seemed to have been most ingeniously devised to multiply outlay and divide responsibility; a city for years in crying need of an ædile: this is a part of the picture before us. Mr. Bugbee's incidental sketches of the Mayor, the chief of the Department, and the powder-men are vivid and effective.

The writer of the political article seems to be a moderate and careful writer. His view of the Crédit Mobilier business would, a few months ago, have struck people as being too moderate by far; it will perhaps still seem so to people who, without having any specific evidence to support their belief, regard the Crédit Mobilier disclosures as making known not a tithe of the corruption existing in Washington and among our public men generally, but as rather pointing to it than unveiling it. That such is the general belief, we think there can be no doubt; that it is correct in the main, we for our part must think. Still, the writer in question seems to us to have reason on his side in the particular matter in hand.

Life, Journals, and Letters of Henry Alford, D.D. Edited by his Widow. (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1873.)—Dean Alford ac-

complished two things in life—an edition of the 'Greek Testament' and the foundation of the *Contemporary Review*. The latter we ascribe to him as the editor and master-spirit during the first years, when it was taking shape and gaining position. We should also consider this his more important work, although it was not so considered by him, and is not so considered by his biographer. We do not learn anything specific with regard to the plans he formed and the difficulties and vexations he had to endure in this work. They are only alluded to vaguely and generally, though we know from other sources that they were great. The plan of a magazine which should be in the hands of Church clergymen, but should shrink from no discussion whatever, was a bold one. It could count from the outset on the opposition of the vast majority of ill-informed and bigoted traditionalists in the Church, and this opposition or even animosity was not wanting. Dean Alford was not the originator of the project, but he carried it out faithfully in the position which he took. The influence of the magazine has been widespread on both sides of the water.

The task which the Dean early undertook was to labor for a more learned acquaintance with the Scriptures of the New Testament amongst the clergy, and a more correct popular knowledge of them amongst the people. To estimate justly the work which he did on the New Testament, whether critical or exegetical, it is necessary to bear in mind the state of Biblical learning in England when he took up this task. It is scarcely too much to say that it did not exist. It was much to Alford's credit that he recognized the importance of this branch of study and set out to work for it. His early writings show the man bred in Anglican traditions, and nothing more nor less than a good Anglican parson, with such scholarship as Cambridge esteemed and rewarded. From this standpoint he took in hand the work of editing the New Testament as classical text-books were and still are edited in England. He had, however, sufficient scholarly instinct to recognize his masters. He went to Bonn for German in order to use German authorities. As a natural and necessary consequence, his plan was greatly altered. It expanded and took new shape under his hands. He found out how far he was behind German scholars in the same department, and how inadequate his plan was to set before students of the New Testament the existing status of the science. He often refers disparagingly to the first edition of the first volume. He had undertaken the task without any conception of what it involved. He limited himself afterwards to collecting and digesting for English readers the fruits of German scholarship—doing in text-criticism and exegesis just what Stanley has done in history.

Here we have the exact measure of his work. It is of some value as a compendium of German learning. When it is original, it is very weak. It is not a contribution to Biblical science as that science stands before the world to-day, but it has been an incentive to Biblical study in this country and in England, and it has brought the results of German scholarship to many who would not otherwise have become acquainted with them. As Biblical learning progresses, students of it will desire to go directly to the highest authorities, and the form of the encyclopædia must give way to special treatises. The works of the text-critic, the exegete, and the dogmatician or systematizer must be separated, and each will require undivided attention.

Alford never threw himself into popular movements like Stanley or Maurice, nor emancipated himself from his education like Davidson. The trammels of his education and his dogmatic prepossessions were the element of weakness in his work where it was original. Thus, in a letter to Bishop Colenso he says (p. 356): "It seems to me that there are two ways of approaching this subject, first, from the *unbelieving* point of view, proceeding thus to argue from the improbability or discrepancy of details to the unhistorical character of the whole. . . . Secondly, from the *believing* point of view, proceeding thus to argue from the acknowledged historical character of the whole to the existence of a key to difficulties of detail, provided we could thoroughly understand all circumstances regarding them." Evidently the first is the method without a *petitio principii*, and the second is the method with one. It shows how difficult it is for a man, even though he be honest, industrious, and zealous, to become scientific, if he starts with a dogmatic or scholastic bias.

It has been asserted that the ideal of family life is more fully realized amongst the English clergy than amongst any other class of men. The book before us might be cited as another piece of testimony to the truth of that statement; and we may add that the affectionate regard of the widow for her husband has done not a little to swell her book far beyond its just proportions, and that the matter in surplus is very frequently of no interest whatever to the reader. It is, however, to some extent a book meant for a coterie, as books about clergymen are apt to be, as well as a book meant for a certain religious following and for the larger public.

A Harmony of the Four Gospels in English, according to the Authorized Version, corrected by the best critical editions of the original. By F. Gardiner, D.D. (Andover: Warren F. Draper.)—Dr. Gardiner is professor in a Baptist Divinity School. It is seldom that even compiled matter proceeding from a representative of an exclusive sect is treated with candor enough to seem worthy of examination if the subject is remotely related to the grounds of exclusion; and the book here spoken of is unnecessarily unfortunate in avoiding even the appearance of fairness upon several controverted topics. Thus, the author mentions twenty-one names of "authorities" who think that "Judas went out before the Institution of the Lord's Supper," but does not mention any names for the contrary opinion. Also, he rehearses a list of authorities for the hypothesis that the "public" life of Jesus lasted three years, but gives no list of those who hold to a shorter period; and yet among the last is one (Tischendorf) whose text of the original New Testament Prof. Gardiner appears to have adopted as the basis of his work (it is not stated what text is actually followed; possibly one is extemporized), and whose harmony he almost copies.

If Tischendorf's harmony had been wholly copied, such a translation would at once have commanded a place among standard exegetical books. But an eclectic mixture of Tischendorf, Robinson, and Thomson must run the gauntlet of stern examination, if indeed it be worth examining at all, while a lack of candor is *prima facie* evidence that it is not.

It may be worth adding, that the argument for the shortest period, the "Bipaschal Hypothesis," has recently been restated by Mr. Edmund A. Sears in his 'Fourth Gospel the Heart of Christ' with a consistency which commands respect.

A Critical Greek and English Concordance of the New Testament. Prepared by Chas. F. Hudson, under the direction of Horace L. Hastings, Editor of the *Christian;* revised and completed by Ezra Abbot, LL.D., Assistant Librarian of Harvard University. (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.)—This book is a condensed pocket edition of the 'Englishman's Greek Concordance,' omitting and adding matters of great value. Both these works are of rare accuracy, surpassing Cruden's in this respect as much as they do in practical usefulness. The 'Englishman's Greek Concordance' is a book adapted to render the study of Greek unnecessary in New Testament investigation, because it exhibits all the texts where each Greek word occurs, giving at each reference one line of context according to the common version, and italicizing the word or words translating the Greek word under exhibition. For example, suppose one finds that the passage, "The kingdom of God is *within* you," is rendered by Noyes "in the midst of you," and by Folsom "among you"; he looks up in his 'Greek Concordance' the Greek word here differed about, and he finds one other occurrence of it in the Gospels: "Cleanse first *that which is within* the cup and platter"; the words italicized are the ones used in translating the Greek term *entos*. The inference is obvious, and is drawn so much more clearly than historical and philological arguments can be that anybody but a pedant would prefer this method in the large majority of questions. For corroboration, the words "among" and "midst" could then be looked out in the English portion of the 'Concordance,' when it would be found that a different Greek term, *mesos*, regularly corresponds to them. It is worth noting that the words under discussion were addressed to a Pharisee. As the same Greek word has often been very variously rendered in the English Bible, one has only to glance down the column of quotations, and imbibe the idea common to all the various English words used in the different circumstances, and a more trustworthy impression of the sense will be received than from a lexicon.

Mr. Hastings's condensation omits from under each Greek word the quotations of the texts wherein it occurs, leaving only the bare references, thus obliging the reader to look up all these references for himself, and making the book look Greek instead of English. The compensation is that the references can be looked at in any version one chooses, and that the book is very small. The loss is much greater than if all the quotations were struck out of Cruden's Concordance, because the latter has no lexical use, as the same word occurs in each of the quotations grouped. The lexical value of Mr. Hastings's book is crippled in that the collation of contexts is rendered very slow, whereas it is instantaneous in the 'Englishman's Greek Concordance.' In exchange for this loss, much valuable critical matter is very compactly furnished, such as the testimony of the oldest MSS. to the genuineness of the Greek words in the references, and a supplement giving those readings of Tischendorf's present (eighth) edition which differ from those of his previous edition. All owners of his seventh edition who do not wish to pay over $20 for the eighth, can thus possess themselves of its amendments by buying this 'Concordance.' In the introduction, a description of the most important editions of the New Testament text is given in an uncommonly brief and available form.

Regesta Pontificum Romanorum inde ab A. post Christum natum MCXCVIII. ad A. MCCCIV. Edidit Augustus Potthast Huxariensis Westfalus. Part I. (Berlin. New York: L. W. Schmidt.)—This important work was briefly announced in No. 355 of the *Nation* (April 18, 1872), but its publication has been delayed nearly a year, partly by the press of state documents at the royal printing-office, and partly through the desire of the author to impart to it the highest finish in accuracy and in completeness. Not content with the conscientious labor of ten years, nor with the approval of the Berlin Academy, which awarded to his manuscript the prize of two hundred ducats, and gave a further *honorarium* toward its publication, he has gone over again the microscopic work of verifying dates and references, in order that no error of transcription should escape his eye. As "custos" of the Royal Library of Berlin, he has had its vast resources at command, and has also enjoyed exceptional privileges for drawing upon other libraries. It was at the instance of Dr. Pertz, the Royal Librarian, that Dr. Potthast undertook the immense task of analyzing all the authentic utterances of the Popes of the Middle Ages—from Innocent III. (1198) to Benedict XI. (1304)—and preparing a digest of these in chronological order; but what was at first designed only for the convenience of scholars, now proves to be most opportune for controversialists who would track the Papacy through all the assumption, the arrogance, the weakness, and the contradiction which have paved the way to infallibility. It is curious, as one turns these pages, to see with what manifold topics and interests the Popes of the Middle Ages were occupied, and with what lofty assumption they meddled with all matters and persons, great and small.

The work is handsomely printed in quarto. At the top of each page is a heavy ruled line, above which is the running title of the Pope and his period, and directly under it the year or years of the documents upon the page, thus: Innocentius III., 1198–1216, and beneath, 1199, 1202, or whatever the year may be. The left-hand margin is ruled in two columns, and here is found the date and place of each document, and opposite to these a digest of the document, with a reference to its sources, and the opening phrase by which such documents are wont to be quoted. The documents are also numbered consecutively. There will be twenty parts of one hundred and sixty pages each.

The Origin of all Religious Worship. Translated from the French of Dupuis, Member of the Academy of Inscriptions and of the National Institute of France during the first French Republic. Containing also a description of the Zodiac of Denderah. (Boston: J. P. Mendum. 1872. 8vo, pp. 433.)—The translation in the year 1873 of a French work published nearly a century ago, and which has not before found a translator, is certainly a bold undertaking; and one cannot help wondering whether it is that Mr. Müller has actually discovered a hidden treasure, or that former translators showed better judgment in letting it alone. In either case, this edition of Dupuis's 'Origine de tous les Cultes' deserves notice, if only as a curiosity, and that in two points of view—as presenting a theory of mythology which in many respects anticipated that established by subsequent enquirers, and as reflecting with great truthfulness the tone of thought of a generation which had a mighty influence upon human history. Scientific value as a treatise on mythology it of course has very little, in spite of its unquestionable learning and many excellences of detail. In its day it did good service in preparing the way for the scientific investigations of the present school; but one who should have recourse now to books of this class for information on the subject of which they treat would be, like Mr. Casaubon, "living in a lumber-room, and furbishing up broken-legged theories about Chus and Mizraim." We have said that M. Dupuis's views coincide in many features with the now established views. They agree, that is to say, in their interpretation of the myths, but differ world-wide as to their genesis of the myths. Nor is this so slight a difference as might appear—it is, in fact, a fundamental and essential one. The difference is just that between the poet and the astronomer in looking at the sky. Mythological science derives the phenomena of mythology from the pictures and legends excited by the view of the heavens in the minds of a simple and imaginative community. M. Dupuis, being himself a learned astronomer, derives them from the facts of astronomical science. In his view, mythology was not developed, but created; his authorities are not the unsophisticated legends, but the later poets and logographs.

The second aspect in which this book is interesting is as an outgrowth of the temper of mind of the French revolutionary epoch. While reducing Hercules and Perseus to sun-myths, just as Max Müller does, the main object, after all, is to apply the same theory to Christ; the twelve apostles, like the twelve labors of Hercules, are the twelve signs of the zodiac. Further, the book ends with a general protest against religion, as the mere creation of fear and superstition. Now, it would be too much to say that this aspect of religion is wholly obsolete in a generation which has witnessed the career of the International Society; but it is not too much to say that the scientific study of religion of the most radical type has completely moved away from this ground. Prof. De Gubernatis, as coolly as M. Dupuis, identifies the Virgin Mary, in some of her aspects, with the moon, and declares frankly that "when we shall be able to bring into Semitic studies the same liberty of scientific criticism which is conceded to Aryan studies, we shall have a Semitic mythology." Prof. Tiele, of Leyden, considers Abraham to have been a sun-myth. Thus the modern science of mythology is not afraid of the views here presented, but its very foundation and starting-point is the doctrine which is here utterly denied—the necessity and universality of religion. In this point of view, too, therefore, the book has no interest for the present generation, except that of curiosity. In the controversies of the present day it would be of about as much service as a firelock of the seventeenth century at Sadowa.

A Dictionary of Synonyms of the English Language. (New York: G. P. Putnam & Sons. 1873.)—This little work, as we infer from several indications, was prepared in Glasgow. Its Scottish origin might be suspected, indeed, from its occasional introduction of words now peculiar to that dialect, as, for instance, the verb *busk* in the sense of "dress." It is a fair enough and useful enough volume, so far as it goes, though it cannot pretend to anything like the completeness or value of the work of Soule (Little, Brown & Co., Boston) on the same subject. The author, indeed, has made the common but most unfortunate mistake of attempting to do two or three things besides the particular thing in hand. A book of synonyms ought to be that, and nothing more; for no one who consulted it at all would consult it for any other purpose. But in this the roots, definition, and pronunciation of each word—matters entirely foreign to the subject—have been lugged in, and take up about half the amount of space in the volume, which in itself is none too large for its legitimate object. These have necessarily swelled its size without at all increasing its value; for nothing satisfactory, in the way either of derivation or definition, could well be packed in so small a compass, not to say anything of the fact that neither has any business there whatever. For illustration, to a man seeking for a synonym for *busy*, it will be of no special advantage to learn, as he will here, that it is derived from the Icelandic *bisa*, to work, more especially as it comes directly from the Anglo-Saxon *bysig;* nor will it benefit him perceptibly in the immediate object in view to find that the primitive meaning of the Latin word from which *candid* comes is "white," however curious or interesting such a fact might be to one studying words with a different purpose. All the additional information thus imparted has necessarily led to the sacrifice of the usefulness of the work for the special object for which it was made, and this is the more unfortunate in this particular case, as the book is one of a series of small educational manuals which are valuable only so far as they confine themselves to their legitimate objects.

Miscellanea Genealogica et Heraldica. Edited by Joseph Jackson Howard, LL.D., F.S.A. (Monthly Series. Parts XXVIII. and XXIX., April and May, 1873; pp. 345 to 372.)—In July, 1866, Dr. Howard issued the first quarterly part of this magazine, devoted "exclusively to transcripts from original and inedited documents relating principally to genealogy and heraldry." In this form he published nine parts, making one complete volume of 363 pages, with its index. Parts x.–xiii., 260 pages, carried this quarterly issue to March, 1870, when it was discontinued and a new monthly publication was substituted. In its present form, as above noted, twenty-nine parts have appeared. The 'Miscellanea' differs from Mr. Nichols's admirable 'Herald and Genealogist,' mainly in the fact that it is composed of transcripts of documents with but the briefest of notes. It contains numerous grants of arms, extracts from wills and parish records, and similar documents; sources of information unaccompanied by any attempt to construct pedigrees therefrom. There are indeed numerous pedigrees in the book, but these are all formal documents, authenticated by some herald, past or present. Much of its contents can have but slight interest or value for the great body of American genealogists, and yet it is to be commended as a contribution to that English history in which we have a share. Occasionally the reader here will find some bit of information of local interest. Thus, in the last part there is the will of Rebecca Draper of Lewes, 1696, who gives £10 to her sister Frances Crippins of Boston, New England. Again, some curious searcher has copied from the registers at Waltham Abbey and Nazing, in Essex, a number of dates relating to the Eliots. Among them, as was well known, are the immediate relatives of our Rev. John Eliot, the apostle to the Indians, though he was born in another parish. From time to time, other interesting notes and queries have appeared, and the magazine may well become a channel of intercommunication between genealogists on both sides of the Atlantic.

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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

JULY 14, 1873.

THE week has developed nothing of importance outside of the gold speculation, which made considerable headway. The money market remained quiet, with the daily rate ranging between 3 and 5 per cent. The demand for commercial paper continues good; first-class names, having from thirty days to four months to run, pass readily at 6 to 6½ per cent.

Foreign advices are favorable. The Bank of England rate of discount was reduced to 5 per cent. on Thursday from 6 per cent., at which it had been standing the last few weeks. The Bank gained £38,000 in specie last week, while the French indemnity payment to Germany on the 5th inst. caused a loss of 43,000,000 francs in specie to the Bank of France.

The weekly statement of the city banks was slightly unfavorable on Saturday as compared to that of the week previous. The increase of $6,563,100 in liabilities was not quite offset by a corresponding gain in legal tenders and specie, which was $1,268,500, and, as shown by the figures given below, is equal to a net loss of $372,275 in reserve.

The following is a comparison of the averages for the past two weeks:

	July 5.	July 12.	Differences.
Loans	$286,905,800	$288,174,500	Inc. $1,268,700
Specie	33,551,400	34,658,000	Inc. 1,106,600
Circulation	27,276,200	27,291,800	Inc. 15,600
Deposits	232,369,400	238,916,900	Inc. 6 547,500
Legal tenders	48,168,000	48,329,900	Inc. 161,900

The following shows the relation between the total reserve and the total liabilities:

	July 5.	July 12.	Differences.
Specie	$33,551,400	$34.658,000	Inc. $1,106,600
Legal tenders	48,168,000	48,329,900	Inc. 161,900
Total reserve	$81,719,400	$82,987,900	Inc. $1,268,500
Circulation	27.276,200	27,291,800	Inc. 15,600
Deposits	232,369,400	238,916,900	Inc. 6,547,500
Total liabilities	$259,645,600	$266,208,700	Inc. 6,563,100
25 per cent. reserve	64,911,400	66,552,175	
Excess over legal reserve	16,808,000	16,435,728	Dec. 372,275

The operations in the stock market seem to be mostly confined to the brokers themselves, who, in the absence of outside orders, feel that they must do something to "turn an honest penny." The tone of the market has been steady and the amount of business fair for this time of year. The large operators are generally absent from town, and we see no reason to anticipate much activity until the hot weather is over and they have returned. The dealings in Chicago and Northwestern are notably larger than for some time past. It will be remembered that this stock was successfully "cornered" last fall, when the price was run up to 230. Since then the stock has all lain in the hands of Gould and his friends, who engineered the "corner," and outsiders of course were indisposed to buy while the stock was so situated. Lately there have been indications that parties were willing to take hold of the stock below 70, and the result is that transactions have taken place during the past week amounting to some 43,000 shares.

The following shows the highest and lowest sales of the leading stocks at the Stock Exchange for the week ending July 12:

	Monday.	Tuesday.	Wed'day.	Thursday	Friday.	Saturday.	Sales.
N. Y. C. & H. R.	102¾ 103⅜	103⅜ 104⅛	103⅜ 104⅜	103⅜ 104	103¼ 103¾	103⅜ 103⅝	59,000
Lake Shore	95⅝ 96⅛	96 96⅜	96 96⅜	91⅜ 96¼	91⅜ 93¼	9? 92⅛	44,900
Erie	62¼ 62⅜	60⅜ 62⅜	61½ 63	60⅜ 62¼	60½ 61	59⅜ 60¼	46 200
Do. pfd	71½ 73	72⅜	73	72 74	72	....	....
Union Pacific	25⅝ 26⅜	26⅜ 27⅜	27¼ 28⅜	27¼ 28⅛	27⅜ 28¼	27⅜ 28	66,200
Chi. & N. W.	71 71⅝	69½ 71	68⅜ 69⅞	64¼ 69½	64⅜ 69⅜	69 69⅝	43,200
Do. pfd	81¾ 81¾	81½	81½	81 81¾	81	....	1,000
N. J. Central	105½	101½ 103	102½	103 103	103	....	400
Rock Island	109½ 110⅜	110½ 111⅜	110⅜ 111¼	110⅜ 111	110¼ 110⅜	110 110⅜	34 700
Mil. & St. Paul	51⅜ 51⅞	51⅜ 51⅝	52⅜ 52¾	52¼ 52⅜	52⅜ 52½	52⅜ 52¾	10,200
Do. pfd	73	72¾ 73	73¾ 73⅝	73	73	....	1,700
Wabash	68⅝ 70	69¾ 70¼	70¼ 70¾	69⅝ 70¼	69¾ 70¼	69⅝ 69¾	20 500
D. L. & Western	98	98 98¼	98¼ 98⅜	98⅜ 99	99⅜	99⅜ 100	5,600
B. H. & Erie	2⅜	2½	2½	2⅜ 2¾	2½ 2⅜	2⅜	2,700
O. & M.	39 39⅝	39⅜ 39⅝	39⅜ 39⅝	39¼ 39⅝	39¼ 39⅝	39½ 39⅝	27.7 0
C. C. & I. C.	28½ 29	28⅜ 29½	29¼	28¾ 29⅛	29 30⅛	30¼ 30⅜	9,800
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The reduction of the bank rate of discount in London had a favorable effect upon the price of United States bonds, and the higher price of gold as well as the investment demand here have brought about an advance of one per cent. in this market. The investment demand is reflected in the increased enquiry for registered bonds of the different issues.

The interest due previous to July 1 upon the bonds of the State of Louisiana are now being paid at the office of Messrs. Winslow, Lanier & Co. Transactions in State bonds have been limited in amount, and prices remain pretty much unchanged.

The demand for railroad bonds continues good, especially for those of the old roads in good standing. All the Union Pacific bonds are stronger; the scare caused by the injunction against the payment of interest to certain Crédit Mobilier holders of the first mortgage bonds having apparently passed away.

The following questions were asked of every person presenting coupons for payment:

"1. Do the coupons which you now present belong to either of the persons named in lists Nos. 1 and 2?

"2. Are they the coupons of bonds which were distributed as dividends or allotments of profits to shareholders of this Company directly, or by the seven trustees under the Oakes Ames contract, or the Davis contract, or through or by the Crédit Mobilier of America; and if so, to whom do they belong?"

Lists Nos. 1 and 2 referred to included the names of parties who received the bonds as dividends on Crédit Mobilier stock.

The recent specie shipments have aided materially the bull speculation in gold. The clique have succeeded in carrying up the price to 116⅛. The range of price has been between 115⅛ Monday and 116⅛ Friday. The total amount of gold shipped during the week ending July 12 was, in round figures, $4,000,000.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 24, 1873.

The Week.

IT may not be generally known that there is in existence a Senatorial Transportation Committee, appointed in the last session of Congress, whose duty it is to report at some time upon the transportation question for the benefit of Congress and the public. Where this Committee is or what it is doing we do not know, though it is now stated that it proposes to have a conference with the farmers to find out what their grievances are. This would be a highly sensible thing for the Committee to do, considering the suspicions which in certain quarters are entertained about their labors, and considering also the present proportions of the farmers' movement. There are, it is said, between four and five thousand Granges already established, with a membership counted by hundreds of thousands—all probably voters. The farmers really hold the balance of power in the great agricultural States between the Republicans and the Democrats, and it is, to say the least, important to know what they want. A *Tribune* correspondent, writing from Chicago, says that in Illinois the Granges are not political bodies at all; that the management of the campaign against Judge Craig was conducted by a totally different organization, known as the State Farmers' Association. The object of the Granges is "the promotion of the intellectual and material interests" of the members; the State Farmers' Association, on the other hand, is a "local party formed expressly for the purpose of electing men to office who shall represent the agricultural interests of the State, and to secure the passage of such laws as they consider necessary to protect them from extortion." This distinction rather loses its force, however, when we are told that perhaps a majority of the State Farmers are also Grangers.

The new Illinois railroad law seems to be an admitted failure. Nobody pretends to know what its remote effects may be, but at present it threatens to divert trade from Chicago. The railroads have found a way of avoiding its operation with regard to "through freight," by making the tariff on the merchandise while it is within the borders of Illinois conform to the law, and charging nothing for carrying it the rest of the distance. The confusion that will be caused when five or six different States get their legislative machinery in motion may be imagined. There is some talk now of bringing the matter before the Supreme Court of Washington, in the hope that the action of the Illinois Legislature may be declared unconstitutional, though on what precise ground does not appear. Even if it were, the trouble would not be over, for the causes of the farmers' movement are very deep—so deep, indeed, that the farmers do not themselves more than half understand them. Another *Tribune* correspondent has interviewed a "prominent railroad man" in Chicago, who says very truly that though the farmers have some cause to complain of the roads, the sweeping charges of extortion now made are unfair. What this gentleman says about the freight tax is worth careful attention: "The amount that ought to be paid for transportation is fixed in New York and not here. The price of corn and wheat in Chicago, except when the operators get up a 'corner,' is governed by the price in New York. Sometimes it is high enough to enable the farmers to pay us a good price for freight, and then we make a profit. At other times it is so low that if we were to charge a fair price for transportation, the farmers could not send their grain to market at all." It seems that there are in Illinois only four railroads paying regular dividends, and only one as much as seven per cent.

What with the little tempest up in Manitoba and the new disclosures about the Canadian railroad transactions, the affairs of the Dominion have this week been rather more prominent than our own. The Manitoba trouble has continued to show its ludicrous as well as its serious side, the latter aspect being for the most part turned upon the unfortunates who have got themselves into the keeping of the British lion, who in certain matters and in certain places is not the menagerie animal that in other places he has of late years been reputed. Our consul in that region, a Mr. Taylor, appears to be the natural successor as a publicist of the late Miles O'Reilly, the same who discovered the rule of international law that establishes "the right of hot pursuit"—that is, your right when your enemy is fleeing before you, and you are, as the Irish jurists say, "hot foot" after him, to cross any and all boundaries of countries contiguous to that in which the pursuit began, and to deal with him exactly as you would if you had collared him in your own land. Based on a similar great principle is Mr. Taylor's theory that, under a common-law rule giving you the right to seize and hold fast any absconding man whose surety you are, you have the right to invade for that purpose the soil of any and all sovereign states, especially of such states as also know the blessings of the common law. Mr. Taylor, for loudly expressing this opinion, and his opinion that the Manitoban authorities did not know what they were doing and were all wrong, has been made the subject of a fierce attack by the prosecuting officer of the Crown, and, so far as known, has been near seeing the inside of the same jail in which the so-called kidnappers are confined. The Governor of Minnesota, meantime, has exerted himself by letter to secure mild treatment for the prisoners, and there is good hope that all will be arranged, and that this little lesson in international law may do our northern frontier residents some good. They ought not to need it so soon after the war; but they talk as if they had not been committing a really grave offence. Perhaps they might point, as one or two of our own journals are pointing, at the way in which our State Department and War Department have suffered Colonel McKenzie, unrebuked, to invade by force of arms the friendly soil of our Southern neighbor.

It is repeating what is not much better than gossip, but, apropos of this Mexican business, there are rumors of a manifest-destiny policy, favored at Washington by the Secretary of War, who is reported to feel, on this subject, something of the imperfectly-enlightened General Rawlins's fervor. It will be recollected that the other day General Belknap, in presence of the West Point cadets, made a speech looking in the manifest-destiny direction, and that General Sherman in a few moments made another, in which he said very bluntly that we wanted no more of Mexican territory, nor indeed did we want what we have got, and he would like to hire Mexico to take it all back. It is now hinted that, if nobody else knew why General Sherman made this remark, Secretary Belknap, for one, did.

The principal exposure of the week has been that of the Brooklyn Trust Company, following immediately upon the death of the president, Mr. E. S. Mills. This Trust Company was a rich concern, had the confidence of the community, and was a legal depositary for funds the title to which might be in dispute. The management of the Company seems to have been of a bad though common enough character, Mr. Mills having been allowed to overdraw his account to the amount of $146,000, and the trust funds being largely invested in worthless Georgia "Bullock" bonds, and in bonds of a railroad of very low standing, of which Mr. Mills was one of the directors, and part of which he had a contract to build. The deposits amounted to about $2,200,000, and on the death of Mr. Mills the company suspended payment. One of the trustees, City Judge Alexander McCue, at once secured the appointment of a receiver, it is said, without due notice, and indeed without any authority, the case not being one in which a receivership is allowed by law. The trustees at once resorted to the

usual tactics to stimulate the confidence of the public, by assuring every one that the Georgia bonds had been, and that the railroad bonds would be—if the public only would keep still and not talk about the affairs of the bank at all—perfectly good. This has not done much to restore public confidence. Mr. Mills's death, which occurred while bathing, was at first supposed to be a suicide, but seems not to have been.

The sudden death of Chief-Justice Chapman, of the Massachusetts Supreme Court, leaves an important office vacant in that State, and no doubt, by making possible all sorts of promises to all sorts of people, will be likely to render the approaching Butler campaign even more exciting than it would otherwise have been. The enemies of Mr. Dawes, by way of a reason for his silence on the question of the day, circulate the story that it was intimated to him some time ago that in case of a vacancy on the Supreme Bench—the chances of Judge Chapman's death being already a matter of speculation—it might be found that no one was so well qualified by character, intelligence, and profound learning to fill the post as himself. Probably their enemies are also circulating the same story about a number of different gentlemen. No office-holding politician of note has as yet come out in opposition to the General, and the influence of the Custom-house is undoubtedly on his side. It is useless at this early day to attempt to predict the result. In this city the struggle is watched, we are sorry to say, with a malicious sort of enjoyment, the average New Yorker having received so much abuse from the press of Boston for the shameful mismanagement of his domestic affairs under the reign of Tweed and Fisk, that he finds it a relief to know, and to be able to publish it to the world, that even in Massachusetts, among the children of the Puritans, there may be sin and error too.

In this era of journalistic enterprise, it seems strange that no newspaper has yet thought it worth while to send a commissioner to report upon the journey of Mr. Schofield to the Sandwich Islands, to discover what he is doing there, who he is seeing, what promises he is making the poor deluded Lunalilo on the part of the Government of the United States, and so on. We learn from a gentleman living at Honolulu, and likely to be well informed, that "negotiations for the cession of Pearl Harbor" to the United States and for reciprocity "are still impending," and that Hawaiians fear this as a step towards annexation. Our correspondent does not think this a necessary consequence. He says that "the planters and business men have wanted the islands annexed any day, but it makes no difference whether they are enriched by removal of sugar duties or not, for, rich or poor, they don't 'carry' the nation. The Hawaiians themselves will not be starved, intrigued, or bought into laying aside their national independence, and American diplomacy may as well act on that theory. They may still more republicanize their form of government, but in forming any foreign relations they would cling to 'state rights.'" The native population, however, is declining, and the islands are now and have for a long time been actually governed by Americans and Englishmen. They are sure to fall a prey sooner or later to England or to this country, but the method and time of acquisition are a matter of considerable importance to all of us.

Things look so badly for Sir John A. Macdonald, the late Sir George Cartier, and other members of the Canadian ministry, that the Governor-General, Lord Dufferin, is reported as more fully than ever intending to dissolve the Dominion Parliament on the ground of palpable bribery in the last general election. If we are to take for true some additional disclosures made by Mr. G. W. McMullen, who acts much the same part in this Canadian scandal that Colonel McComb acted in our Crédit Mobilier scandal, there is every reason why Lord Dufferin should take this step. This will not greatly surprise any one who knows the nature of Provincial politicians, who have very little left to learn of ours; but before we take too much of this rather forlorn comfort, we should remind ourselves that while we had the Crédit Mobilier all to ourselves, it is our side of the line which furnishes two of the parties to this new game of corruption; though, to be sure, it is our compatriots who were choused. Of these, one is Mr. McMullen above-mentioned, and the substance of his addition to his former charge against the Ministry and Sir Hugh Allen, who threw McMullen and his friends overboard after buying up the Canadian officials with the Americans' money, may be tolerably well judged by this taste of it: Sir Francis Hincks, being approached by the projectors of the new line of railroad, was asked what he thought would be a fair sum in payment of his services, influence, and so forth. He replied that he did not care at his time of life to take bonds, and that he thought about $50,000 in cash would be about fair. He wished also a two-thousand-dollar clerkship for his youngest son. All of this it is fair to Sir Francis to say that he positively denies under his signature; but he admits the correctness of many of McMullen's statements, though he puts a different construction on some of them.

So long ago as July, 1871, McMullen was communicating with Allen and the Canadian Premier in reference to the proposed road. The Premier favored it; but another member of the Cabinet, Sir George Cartier, opposed it in the interest of the Grand Trunk road. Sir George's position was, however, flanked by Allen, who showed Cartier that the French party, in which lay Cartier's political strength, had been sufficiently purchased by Allen to make it necessary for Cartier to yield, which he did, and in return he took a good deal of money from the railroad people, with which he paid his election expenses. At about this time, also, Sir John A. Macdonald had money, and so had Hincks—"an indefinite loan of $10,000"—and others; Mr. Langevin, for example, was promised $25,000 for his influence in carrying the elections, and Mr. Ouimet, Attorney-General of the Province of Quebec, got $6,000 for "services at Ottawa." Copies of telegrams and letters from Macdonald, Cartier, and the Ministerial Election Committee, give definite proof that these men had a great deal of the railroad's money; and if Sir Hugh Allen is to be believed, he paid out first and last, as he told his American associates, nearly $400,000. But meantime, it had become necessary, or was thought or pretended to have become necessary, to throw a sop to the patriotic feelings of the Canadians by excluding the Americans from all participation in the enterprise, and so they were informed. Much negotiation took place, and at first they were to be kept out ostensibly, but kept in really, and the accusation is that to this device the Ministry was privy and consenting. At last, however, they definitely discovered that they had lost all hold of the Company, and, as now appears, they are endeavoring to inflict four hundred thousand dollars' worth of political and other ruin on the Canadian officials and on the great Canadian railroad and steamship magnate, who has hitherto seemed to show himself a great deal too sharp for them.

The English Ministry have been driven in their new Judicature Bill into abolishing one of the most venerable features of the British Constitution—the appellate jurisdiction of the House of Lords. The House, as our readers know, was the court of last resort for all cases not colonial or ecclesiastical, and one of the most curious scenes in London was the hearing of appeals by the two or three old "law lords" who in this dry business represented the whole body of the peers—the lay members usually abstaining, by honorable usage as well as from laziness, from meddling in what they did not understand. The scandal of having work of such importance imposed on aged volunteers has, however, been long apparent; now at last the bill reforming the judiciary and establishing a real Court of Appeals made up of lawyers has passed. At first it was only intended that this court should hear English appeals, Mr. Gladstone fearing the feelings of the Scotch and Irish would be hurt if they had to come into an English court; but the bar of both countries have protested against their exclusion, and insist on being relieved from dependence on the peers. So the whole of this curious mediæval mixture of legislative and judicial power goes by the board, and the Scotch

and Irish bars obtain at least two fresh judicial appointments, each of considerable dignity and emolument.

The only other event of importance in the English news is the presentation of a petition to the Archbishops by 482 clergymen, asking for the establishment of auricular confession. The answer of the Archbishops appears to have been of a mild, deprecatory, and soothing sort, and has accordingly aroused intense indignation in the Evangelical section of the Church. The Archbishops have actually taken the matter into consideration, in order to see what the Rubric says about it. So at a great meeting held in Exeter Hall, and presided over by Lord Shaftesbury, he proposed, amid tremendous cheering, to "let the Rubric go to the winds," whatever that may mean, and, growing more excited, proposed, if the Church of England wavered in her principles, to "let her go" too. He asked one question, as a sort of touchstone, on which we should like to see an article in a woman's-suffrage organ, and that is, whether the friends of the confessional were willing to appoint "female confessors"? This was met by great applause from the audience, who are evidently in the gall of bitterness on the question of the equality of the sexes.

Apropos of the sex question, there comes the news that the Scotch Court of Session, composed of, we need not say, twelve old males, have decided that ladies are not entitled to matriculate or attend classes in the University of Edinburgh. The plaintiffs were medical students, and have shown themselves in every way worthy of the privileges they claimed; but the judges, far from taking that enlarged view of the common law by which Mr. Wendell Phillips interprets the duty of college managers, decided that the University was for men only. The Russian Government has been acting in a similarly illiberal spirit with regard to the Russian lady students at the University of Zurich. It has denounced them in a circular, which appears to be calumnious, charging them with bringing seeds of demoralization back to their homes, and orders them to return on pain of certain disabilities.

Lord Westbury, honorable as were his parliamentary services in reforming legal administration in England, and brilliant as was his success at the bar and in office as Mr. Bethell, Sir Richard Bethell, the Solicitor-General, and the Attorney-General, will perhaps best be known as the man in whose person the English Lord Chancellorship was more scandalized than by any man who had held it since Lord Macclesfield's day, now one hundred and fifty years ago. Not that intervening chancellors were impeccable; numerous deep topers, profane swearers, and loose livers of various kinds have sat in the seat of Bacon, Jeffreys, Macclesfield, Thurlow, Eldon, Wedderburn, and the other keepers of the royal conscience. But of all those none has been accused of corruption in office till in 1865 Lord Westbury was censured by the House of Commons for a nepotism that wore something of the look of rapacity, and was removed from office in Lord Palmerston's last ministry. Yet it is generally admitted that his punishment was disproportioned to his offence, and that indeed he might never have been censured at all, but that there was an opportunity, which very many were naturally and justly anxious to seize upon, of punishing the arrogance of the man and making old scores even. He was probably one of the most truly and genuinely arrogant-minded men that have lived in late years, and the well-known remark upon a domineering manner as revealing a domineering disposition—that it would have been indecorous and insolent as between the Almighty and a black beetle, characterizes very well his general demeanor towards his fellowmen. Add to this that he had the art of saying severe things in a gentle manner which was suggestive of a sincere pleasure in seeing the blood follow the knife, and the possibility that the vote of censure may have referred to other things than the Leeds registrarship becomes a near possibility rather than a remote one. Innumerable stories are told of his sarcastic bitterness. Lord Westbury's downfall had no breaking effect upon him, and, indeed, a weaker man might have borne up under it; it was recognized that he was to some extent sacrificed to the exigencies of a party about to go before the country in a general election, and which hesitated to weight itself with the defence of a man whom the Opposition were attacking at such a moment and with so popular a cry of onset. At the beginning of a session, after a success at the hustings, his fate might well have been different. He was, altogether, no unworthy member of the company of able men whose names adorn the rolls of the English bar and bench.

Affairs in Spain go from bad to worse, but the Carlists have, within the last two weeks, been gaining ground rapidly. General Cabrinetty, who was one of the best officers at the disposal of the Government, was surprised, defeated, and killed, and his artillery captured, about the 9th or 10th inst. Since then, they have been following up their success steadily, and are apparently receiving recruits very largely both from the army and the peasantry. There can be little doubt that by this time the officers of artillery have gone over to them, and if so, there is every reason for believing that short work will be made of the mutinous battalions of the Republic, and that Don Carlos will be in Madrid before the close of the summer. He is receiving strong support in arms and money from the Legitimist and Clerical party all over Europe, and, as a proof of his confidence in his own fortunes, crossed the frontier on Tuesday, the 15th, and took personal command of his forces. It augurs badly for the Republican cause that the news came on the following Friday that a severe action took place before the town of Igualada, at the close of which the Carlists entered and "sacked" the place. It only needed these small successes, in the present demoralized condition of the people, to give Don Carlos the character of the coming man, and draw to his standard not only all Conservatives, but all lovers of a quiet life.

In the meantime, the "Republicans" seem to be doing everything that can be done by mingled folly and imbecility to help him. We gave a fortnight ago a list of the ministries Pi y Margall tried to form. He kept on trying, and with steady failure, until the 20th, when he, like Figueras and Castelar, was thrown overboard, and a new man, Salmeron, set to work. He on that day formed a Cabinet, and made a speech breathing out the usual threats against Carlists and other disturbers; but while he was talking some patriot exploded an Orsini bomb at the door of the Chamber, we presume by way of enlivening the proceedings. The Cortes then went to work to debate the new constitution, the resemblance of which to Nero's fiddling while Rome burned will be apparent when we say that Barcelona, Carthagena, Malaga, and Alcay have been the scene of insurrections of a more or less sanguinary character; that the army only exists in small mutinous detachments; that the most experienced generals left refuse to command in the north; and that the crews of five ironclads have revolted and run off with the ships. For whom they will declare of course nobody knows; but in the meantime the Government has proclaimed them "pirates." As everybody is doing what he pleases, four provinces, Andalusia, Murcia, Valencia, and Catalonia, have declared themselves independent cantons, not choosing to wait for the new federal constitution which the Madrid sages are draughting so laboriously, and which will probably furnish wadding for the Carlist guns. No such spectacle of moral and political disorder has, we think, been witnessed since the fall of the Roman Empire. Amid all the anarchy of the various French Revolutions the army has remained faithful and obedient, and has finally worked order out of chaos; but in Spain nothing seems to remain to remind one that there is such a thing as a national will and a public force. Under such circumstances Don Carlos, wretched a creature as he is, ought to win, because his victory will be the triumph of human intelligence and co-operation over brute confusion and blindness.

"CONSTRUCTIVE PUBLICATION."

THE press throughout the country has been engaged for some time past in discussing the prosecution of Mr. Dana, editor of the *Sun*, for an alleged libel on Mr. A. Shepherd, one of the members of the new government of the District of Columbia. The libel published in the *Sun* was, in brief, a charge of perjury and corruption in office, and the object of the prosecution, which was managed by the United States District Attorney, Mr. George Bliss, was to have Mr. Dana transported to Washington, to be tried there before a police court, which has, by a recent act of Congress, jurisdiction of the offence. Bringing to their aid the old rule of the English law that the offence of libel is committed not merely in the place of publication, but in every place where the libel is circulated, and copies of the *Sun* having of course been circulated in the District, one A. B. Williams went before the Police Court of the District of Columbia, made a complaint under oath charging Mr. Dana with the publication of the libel in the District, and with his oath an "information" was filed. Certified copies of the papers were sent on to New York, where they were laid by the United States District Attorney before United States Commissioner Davenport. It is hardly necessary, perhaps, to mention this fact, because any one who is at all familiar with the politics of New York knows that when Mr. Bliss lays papers of this sort before any one, he lays them before Mr. Davenport, both of these gentlemen being prominent members of the same political organization, called by its enemies the "Custom-house Ring," and by its friends the "Republican party." Before Mr. Davenport Mr. Bliss had it all his own way. The Commissioner, though still young, is quite a Rhadamanthus, and he had no sooner seen the defendant than he evinced the greatest disgust and scorn, broadly hinted that if he did not admit himself to be the editor of the *Sun*, he would send him off to jail at once, and seemed to be strongly inclined to send his counsel with him. In fact, throughout the hearing, he appeared impressed with the belief that a United States Commissioner is a judge of last resort, with a general criminal jurisdiction of the kind usually exercised by drum-head courts-martial. However, he finally relented sufficiently to allow the law to take its usual course, and the case was then brought before Judge Blatchford in the United States District Court.

Into the details of Mr. Bliss's argument before Judge Blatchford it is unnecessary to go. It was in brief this: The libel having been (constructively) published in the District of Columbia was an offence against the United States. The Police Court, by the Act of Congress of 1870, had jurisdiction of this offence, and therefore, under the Judiciary Act of 1789, it was the duty of Judge Blatchford to order the removal of the defendant to Washington for trial. We must pause for an instant, however, to notice how different was the reception of Mr. Bliss's argument by Judge Blatchford's Court from that accorded it by Mr. Davenport. The Attorney of the United States in a United States court is usually listened to with attention and respect, and this was probably what Mr. Bliss expected to receive. For some reason or other, however, Mr. Bliss was treated throughout this case by all concerned with unmitigated contempt. In the course of his opening argument, he made an attempt to anticipate the line of reasoning likely to be followed by the defence, saying that it "was assumed to be extraordinary" that a person charged with libel "should be asked to prove" the truth of his charges "in the community where the evidence is to be obtained," and declared derisively that "you hear them tell that it is something 'unprecedented,' a 'grasp of despotism,' and all that," when Mr. W. O. Bartlett, of counsel for the defence, at once denied that he had used any such argument, and Mr. Bliss, on attempting to reply, was sharply reproved by Judge Blatchford, who asked him whether "it would not be well to wait until he heard the ground of the other side before he attempted to say what it was." To this Mr. Bliss answered that he had been requested by the leading counsel on the other side to state in opening what his ground was—a reply which seems to have been considered palpably irrelevant, and the game was begun again by Mr. W. O. Bartlett, who warmly enquired of Mr. Bliss whether the insertion of the phrase in the information, "against the form of the statute," was "a mere blunder of theirs in pleading" or not. To this searching question Mr. Bliss was able to make no reply, and Mr. Bartlett proceeded to deliver an argument which it is unnecessary to examine at length; it was rhetorically of the "American Bastille" order, and began with this fine exordium:

> "If your Honor please, this is an application for the performance of one of the most grave and serious functions which it ever falls to the duty of a judge to discharge. You are asked to commit a citizen of the State of New York to the hands of an officer of the Government of the United States, to be transferred to the District of Columbia, and consigned to a dungeon there, and his liberty staked upon the opinion of a police court of that District. It so happens in this case that the man whom you are asked to deprive of his liberty is one of the most distinguished citizens of this great State—a gentleman who, in the extent of his learning and the variety of his attainments, has few, very few peers upon the American continent—a gentleman the purity of whose private character the most malignant enmity has never assailed. Yet, sir, if he were the most obscure, unimportant, unlearned, and illiterate citizen of New York, the question would be equally grave, because, in the possession of civil rights, all men here are his peers and the peers of every man, even of the President of the United States."

Mr. Bartlett having finished his speech, and having suggested that his learned assistant, Judge Shipman, who is a sound lawyer of much experience, gained as a United States Judge, "would present more at length the questions on which he (Mr. Bartlett) had lightly touched," adding that he had merely "skimmed the mountain-tops," but that Judge Shipman would "descend into the depths of the valleys, and bring up some further truths," his learned associate, Judge Shipman, declined to do anything of the kind, and sat still, upon which the fun with the District Attorney began again. Judge Blatchford, having first sternly asked Mr. Bliss whether he had anything further to say, decided the case out of hand in the simplest way imaginable, on the ground that the Constitution of the United States expressly provides that the trial of all crimes shall be by jury, and the Washington Police Court not having any jury, the defendant could no more be taken before it than he could be taken out of the country. The District Attorney then rose to make a suggestion to the Court, but the Court would not hear him, and intimated pretty strongly that the nature of his opening argument had convinced it that no argument of his could have any effect on a properly trained judicial mind. Mr. Bliss made two or three more attempts to address the Court, which were listened to with that sort of impatience with which a judge might be supposed to listen to suggestions of points of law from the prisoner in the dock, and at last had the pleasure of being informed by Judge Blatchford that he had thought it unnecessary to make any further examination or write any opinion, as the propositions of Mr. W. O. Bartlett seemed so plain that no consideration or study could bring him to another conclusion.

The first reflection that this decision suggests is that, if the powers that be wish to have a censorship of the press established at Washington, as no doubt they would be very glad to have, all that need be done is to have an act passed providing the usual machinery for criminal trials—a jury, and then, as every paper published in the country goes to Washington, to have the editors or publishers indicted and brought on to Washington for trial whenever it seems advisable. Mature reflection, however, will, we fancy, convince most people that the danger of any such monstrous attempt at an invasion of the liberty of the press as this is unlikely, for the very good reason that it is impracticable. There are published in the United States five or six thousand newspapers and periodical publications of all sorts; of these, the most powerful and the richest are almost all hostile in a greater or less degree to the existing Administration. They have been accustomed for two generations to the most unbridled license in political discussion, and they are just as much an integral part of the American system as the judiciary or the Executive itself. Under these circumstances, in case of any serious conflict between the man, or rather the party, "on horseback" and the press, we cannot but believe that the latter would soon assert its independence. Mr. Bliss has managed to

make the whole affair so ridiculous that it will probably be some time before another editor is attacked.

Still, though we do not regard the proceedings taken by the unfortunate District Attorney as likely to lead to a regular censorship of the press under authorization of an Act of Congress, it cannot be denied that the attempt may, on the eve of an election, be considered worth making by the Administration, and may give individual newspapers and editors a great deal of trouble. In the present disorganized condition of public opinion, such an attempt might or might not be publicly denounced. Whether it were or not would depend greatly on the popularity of the newspaper attacked. The Ring in New York very nearly succeeded, without any public remonstrance, in getting an act passed by the New York Legislature practically giving them power to incarcerate for an unlimited time and fine for an unlimited amount any editor or publisher opposed to them. If we consider for a moment what would be the effect of Judge Blatchford's implied opinion that, had the Washington Police Court been provided with a jury, Mr. Bliss might have carried off Mr. Dana to Washington for trial, we see the importance of the matter. There are in this country thirty-seven States and ten Territories, and in these forty-seven there are some fifty or sixty United States judicial districts. Every leading newspaper in the country circulates in most of these jurisdictions, so that if a libel published in New York is also published constructively by circulating it in Washington, it is not less published in Boston, San Francisco, New Orleans, and Philadelphia. That is to say, in each of these cities and in a thousand other places, the crime of libel is committed. More than this, it seems to be clear that with each copy of the paper circulated an additional crime is committed. At any rate, it is obvious that, in this state of the law, every time a New York editor "exposes a fraud," he commits an act which it only needs a properly drawn Act of Congress to make a crime in fifty different jurisdictions, and to subject him to fifty different indictments, fifty different arrests, fifty different involuntary journeys from Maine to Georgia, from Alaska to Texas, and fifty different sentences in as many different courts. That this should be law in any civilized country we cannot believe; but if it is, we sincerely trust that some case may come before the courts before long in which it will be authoritatively laid down. Libel is certainly a grave public offence, and every fair means ought to be open to slandered persons to vindicate their reputations in court; but to suppose that in this day and generation Government is to be allowed to hunt editors and publishers through the country on the ground of "constructive" publication, to drag them away from their homes, and deliver them into the hands of distant and perhaps venal courts (there was no reason in the world why Mr. Dana should not have been prosecuted in New Orleans instead of Washington, for his paper has been quite as libellous about affairs in that State as about affairs in the District of Columbia)—to suppose all this is to make a supposition so monstrous that we should have hardly thought it likely to be entertained even by Messrs. Bliss and Davenport.

THE BROOKLYN DEFALCATION.

THE failure of the Brooklyn Trust Co. has called forth a good deal of moralizing, and yet it has not all been by any means, as it seems to us, what the occasion either suggests or demands. The two things in the affair on which the press has fastened most eagerly are the overdrawing of his account by the President to the extent of over one hundred thousand dollars, and the lending of large sums of money on Georgia State bonds and bonds of the New Haven, Middletown, and Willimantic Railroad, which some of our contemporaries characterize as "crimes." Indeed, the *Evening Post* speaks of Mr. Mills's speculating in real estate as if it were one of the worst acts of which a man could be guilty. We are certainly not going to defend Mr. Mills's conduct; the consequences of his sudden death settled the moral judgment we must pass on it. No manager of a financial institution should so manage it that his death must force it into bankruptcy, whether his acts be honest or not. It is an offence against morality, and one of a very serious kind, for anybody, if he can possibly avoid it, to carry on business of a fiduciary sort in such fashion that his death may ruin people. But then, when we come to condemn Mr. Mills, or anybody similarly situated, we ought to be a little careful both in selecting our points for reprobation and in selecting our language, if we wish our opinion to have any weight or to furnish anything in the nature of a contribution to morality. In the first place, there was nothing improper in Mr. Mills's speculating in real estate. Nearly everybody in New York has done it, more or less; nearly all the rich men in New York and nearly every other city in the Union have done it largely. Indeed, some of the greatest fortunes in the country and in the world have been built up by speculation in real estate, and we know of no reason, and have heard of none, for considering this an illegitimate mode of making a fortune. If it be, some of the most respected persons in New York are really disreputable persons.

But then, it may be said, he ought not to have speculated with other people's money without their knowledge and consent. This is perfectly true; and it is here that we touch on the sore spot in his unhappy case. No judgment on him, however, on this point is just which does not take into consideration the usages of the society in which he lived. He did not in the ordinary sense of the term use other people's money. He did what we fear a great many financiers do every day—overdrew his account at a bank in which he had a heavy interest. This has resulted most disastrously, but the atmosphere in which he lived was not such as to lead him to regard it, when he began it, as a breach of trust; and we fear this must be said, in spite of the positive prohibition of the charter. This was foolish and reckless and, in the president of a trust company, very reprehensible, but it is useless to call it a "crime," or to compare it to ordinary theft. It was, we have no doubt, though of course we speak without knowledge, what many managers of financial institutions in this city do nearly every day on a smaller scale. They overdraw their accounts more or less, and as long as their credit is good, and they feel that they can return the money on demand, they have no qualms of conscience whatever about it, and look upon it as nothing but what is called "a loan on call," such as men in Wall Street are making every day. This is a loose way of doing business, doubtless, but it is a way of doing business by no means uncommon. One hundred thousand dollars very likely seemed not at all a formidable sum to Mr. Mills. With his large possessions and his great financial backing, we suppose there was no particular reason why it should; but then death converts many trifles into hideous ruin. The loans on the bonds were simply, as far as appears, errors of judgment, and, as regards the Georgia bonds, were approved by a finance committee.

Now, the reason why this loose mode of doing business exists, and why so many upright men fall into it, and incur the risks to which Mr. Mills has become a victim, is obvious, and it reveals the real nature of the evil of which the Mills tragedy is an illustration. Great banks and insurance companies and trust companies, and other institutions whose business it is to handle vast sums of money, are *nominally* managed, and ought to be *really* managed, by boards of directors; but in practice their management is left wholly, or all but wholly, to one officer—sometimes the president, and sometimes the cashier. The responsibility thrown on him is consequently heavier than should be imposed on any one man, and the temptation to which he is exposed is greater than average human virtue can bear. Indeed, we do not think we exaggerate when we say that no human virtue can stand it unshaken for many years through all the vicissitudes and trials of American life in commercial circles. Men's characters change as years roll by, and their circumstances change greatly, so that seductions which at one time have no power, a few years later may have a great deal. Nor is it misfortune always that breeds temptation. Success, with its attendant audacity and hopefulness, breeds it just as often. Now, why is it that directors do not do their duty, and share in the management of the institutions which they father in the eyes of the public? The

answer is very simple. They have not the time. If you start a bank or an insurance company or trust company, and put on the board of directors unknown men or poor men, you may take it for granted that you will get no business. People will not entrust funds to their keeping, no matter what certificates of character you may produce for them. Nothing but the possession of money is in the commercial world a guarantee either of honesty or sound judgment, and this conclusion of the commercial world is no brutal and baseless prejudice, but a fair and lawful induction from ages of experience. That those who have made large sums of money for themselves are the fittest persons to take care of large sums of money for other people, is an impregnable maxim of sound finance. But the number of rich and well-known men is in every community but small in proportion to the population and the volume of affairs. Moreover, in a community like ours, they are sure to be busy, and terribly busy, and to be tolerably advanced in life. They have large masses of property of their own to look after, and most of them keep up the habit of "operating" and taking ventures down to the day of their death, and many are even such villains as to speculate in real estate. With all this burden on them, at a period of life when the nervous force begins to fail, they are incessantly solicited to allow the use of their names in boards of directors, and their relations to each other and to the community are such that they cannot refuse. So that there is hardly one of them who is not on a dozen boards and committees, and is not nominally responsible for vast transactions of which it is physically impossible for him to have more than the slightest knowledge. Consequently, whenever a bank or trust company fails, the chances are ten to one that we find the directors as much astounded as anybody else to find that some one of its officers has walked off with the greater portion of its capital. The newspapers expend their regulation column of morality on "the defaulter"; his friends prepare a petition for his pardon; and one or two of the directors are interviewed by a reporter, and declare that they are deeply mortified by what has occurred, and that they trusted the delinquent as they would have trusted their own father, and the whole affair is forgotten in a few days.

Now, what is the remedy? Of course there is the old remedy, on which we have to rely for the extirpation of so many abuses and the righting of so many wrongs—the growth of mankind in grace. But then, as the warmest optimist must confess, this is slow in its operation. Few of us have time to wait for man to become as good as he ought to be. Those who have property to preserve are, therefore, forced to resort to artificial means of supplying any lack of integrity he may still exhibit, and there is doubtless a certain lack of integrity in pretending to take charge of people's affairs for them and not doing it. How shall we awaken the consciences of our busy and useful rich men into a sensibility to this fact? It is difficult to see any way to this but in a stringent increase of pecuniary responsibility on the part of everybody who pledges his reputation for the soundness of any institution or enterprise. This might help in some degree to mend matters, but yet we doubt whether it would do much. The spirit of trust in friends and associates is too strong to be chilled much by anything short of penal legislation. If every director of the Brooklyn Trust Company had known that he would lose all his property if Mr. Mills overdrew his account, we doubt much if he would have looked after Mr. Mills's account a whit more carefully; but we dare say that if he knew he would go to jail if Mr. Mills did anything wrong, he would insist on knowing what he was about. But then, could we get financial institutions managed at all if board meetings were attended by policemen ready to carry off the members if the accounts were not straight?

THE COLLEGE RACES.

SPRINGFIELD, MASS., July 19, 1873.

Of all the spectacles offered the visitor to Springfield this week, the first to occur that was at all exciting was the foot-race on Thursday morning. As for Tuesday's rowing match between Mr. John Biglin and Mr. Ellis Ward, it came to an end almost before it had well begun, Ward's sudden sickness disabling him entirely. And, indeed, had both the men pulled through and crossed the score, the vast majority of us congregated in the city would have cared very little for this exhibition of professional skill. Beyond knowing that a boating man must lie about in the sun without any shirt on, so as to sunburn his neck and back till the newspaper correspondents report him to be browner than any of his competitors, most of us were unlearned in the art of pulling a shell outrigger; we were not able, then, to get much pleasure from watching for a minute or so the diverse methods of two oarsmen working at their trade for money—and oarsmen who were persons in most respects nowise interesting or admirable. Residents of New York might perhaps have contemplated one of them with some degree of interest. Of the five hundred dollars which he was to win he, we learned, was to have one hundred dollars for his share, while his backer, a relative of his, was to have four hundred; and the latter remarked to a member of the press, to whom he imparted this information and other information relative to other pecuniary transactions, that he did not wish the facts imparted to be made known, as, though formerly a "sport," he was "now in the political arena," to use his own expression—as indeed he is, having last autumn been elected upon the reform ticket. In general, the movements of these gentlemen gave little concern to anybody except a very ill-looking importation from this city of gentry of reforming proclivities similar to those above indicated; and everybody will hear with satisfaction that the Rowing Association has voted that professional trainers shall no longer be employed by the colleges.

The single-scull race on Wednesday between Mr. Swift of Yale and Mr. Dutton of Cornell University, was also an affair that attracted little attention, and occasioned little excitement except among the personal friends of Mr. Swift, who have good reason to be pleased with him. The spectators were few, the persons who had authority to appoint the day and hour for the race having ingeniously contrived to go wrong in this instance, as in nearly every other matter, from first to last, that required some organizing ability. They named the same time set down for the base-ball match between the Philadelphia "Athletics" and the equally distinguished "Boston" nine; they laid out the course at an unreasonable distance from the city, while the base ball men were within five minutes' walk of the Massasoit House; and they failed to provide a referee, or even to get together a majority of their own members at the starting-point. The upshot of their management was that the race was delayed for an hour, and the few who went down to see it waited impatiently in the heat, and developed a temper ill-suited for enjoyment. I must say here that the intentions of these committee-men were of the best, and that their courtesy throughout was unfailing, and in striking contrast with the behavior of most managers of most affairs similar to this; but in such matters nothing supplies the place of experience and administrative talent, and unless in future there is the same pains taken to secure a good central executive officer that is taken to secure a good referee—and the referee is, on the whole, the much less important personage—intercollegiate regattas will be vastly less pleasant and popular than they ought to be. And in further mitigation of the confessed incapacity of the collegiate committees, I may say that it was fully equalled, so far as I could observe, by the other authorities and managers, all and sundry, who were put to the test of the regatta week. Perhaps I should make an exception in favor of the State Constabulary force, which astonished the city police by making upon the gamblers and other sinners one of those familiar descents which have so great an effect in diminishing wickedness, and also in enhancing the repute of the invincible and incorruptible State Constabulary. But the exception can easily be made by any one who considers it required. None, I think, will be made in favor of the local committees, the hotel-keepers, and others upon whom the visitor was in a great measure dependent for information and comfort. The breaking down of the hotels under the unwonted pressure was a sight to see. One's worst enemy, if of an irascible temperament, might have been punished for the hostility of a lifetime by being set down at a Massasoit House table on Thursday to get his breakfast and dinner and tea. The national ability to keep a hotel I never saw so sadly discredited. The art of colonizing guests; the perhaps more difficult art of declining to take a man's money for a dinner when you have no dinner to give him or only a dinner at the end of half an hour and at the hands of a distracted though double-feed waiter—these arts the principal hotel-keepers of Springfield seem never to have learned. If I perhaps seem to make too much of these things, I need only ask the reader to remind himself for a moment of the final outcome of this general inefficiency. Half a dozen crews of fine young fellows, who for months have been practising vigorous self-denial; who have been working hard in honorable emulation; who at last have very gallantly rowed a beautiful race, are told at the end of it that nobody know

where they were at the finish; that some say one of them was ahead, some say another, some say another, some say another; that really the place of the three leading crews only and that of the last crew of all can be fixed. Worse still, if there be a worse in the case of so great a hardship, the men who are declared to have won the race are told that, had the surveyors of the course known their business, it is certain that another crew and not the declared winners would have taken the prize, and that, though they may take the flags, they were in reality beaten. For management such as this there may be forgiveness, but there is no excuse.

To return to the single-scull race. The few spectators of it saw something which very scantily repaid them for their ride down the Agawam road. The dust there was heavier than I ever anywhere else saw it. The square in Old Cambridge in time of drought was nothing at all to it—or rather was a place of streams and water-brooks in comparison. It was literally as difficult at times, and at times of frequent recurrence, to see the carriage that might be in front of you as to see distinctly before you in a driving snow-storm at dusk. The enveloping cloud filled mouth, nostrils, eyes, hair, and lungs, and incorporated itself with the texture of one's garments. I speak of this road to advise every one, pleasant as is the view of river and valley and cultivated New England which it commands, to keep far away from it on any similar occasion, unless it has been wetted down by a two days' rain after the dryness of the Massachusetts June, or unless the city of Springfield shall have done something to make it endurable. Going down this atrocious thoroughfare to a point from which the finish of the two-mile course was distant a long half-mile, we could see at about six o'clock two single-scull boats coming down the beautiful river, which was as smooth between its green banks as a strip of blue steel. One of the two, so far in advance that at first we hardly believed it to be racing, we soon made out to be manned by an oarsman who, sure enough, wore the regular Yale blue. This was Mr. Swift, a Senior of the academic year just gone, who passed us pulling a long, rather slow stroke, and evidently rowing well within his capacity. Laboring some quarter of a mile behind Swift, and also rowing a slow stroke, came the red and white Cornell colors. As Dutton rowed past, occasionally pausing or half pausing, looking over his shoulder at his antagonist, and then settling down again to his hopeless task, I recognized in him a Cornell man whom in the morning, at the meeting of the captains at the Cornell headquarters, I had contrasted with the youthful representatives of several of the other crews. His apparent age and maturity, in which he did not greatly exceed others of his fellows in the Cornell crew, suggested the thought that a contest between men like him and oarsmen of twenty and nineteen was a contest between men and youths, between bone and gristle, and that the chances in such a struggle must be heavily against the crews sent up by Harvard, for instance, or Trinity, or Columbia. But I knew that a better instructed eye might probably judge otherwise; and the testimony of the single-scull race I found myself accepting readily as corroborative of such a judgment. Mr. Dutton rowed the two miles in about a minute (59 sec.) more than Mr. Swift's time, which was 14 m. 54 sec., and which is said to be the shortest time in which a course of that length was ever rowed over by any unprofessional oarsman in America.

The institution of a prize for collegiate pedestrianism is understood to have been a device of Mr. William Blaikie's; that it is under the patronage of the proprietor of the *Herald* is more generally known, that journal having some time since made the fact known to the several continents and islands. Mr. Blaikie has recently been led to the conclusion that Americans are defective in legs and in lungs, and at this writing he energetically holds the belief that not boat-racing itself, though boat-racing has come to be so much an affair of the calves and thighs, is half so likely as pedestrianism to deliver our countrymen from their bondage to the horse-car and sedentary complaints. He has therefore bestirred himself and has been mainly instrumental in adding to the aquatic contest this terrestrial feature, and he entertains the hope and expectation that in years to come the runners will be very numerous. Still more reasonable than it is would this expectation be were the conditions imposed upon the contestants less onerous in one or two particulars. The rule which requires a winner of the cup to enter himself at the end of the year and win it a second time before he can hold it as his own, will assuredly repel some men who would compete were the first decision final, and who, by the way, would as soon compete for a cup of one-half or one-fifth the value as for the cup now given, of which the value is five hundred dollars. There should also be more than one prize.

Thursday was a damp day, not too warm, but warm enough in its dampness to be close, and not damp enough to keep the dust of the ill-kept race-course at Hampden Park from rising beneath the wheels of the trotting sulkies. It was a trying atmosphere for the runners, of whom three appeared before the judges' stand at the ringing of the bell. Five had entered, representing respectively Amherst, Cornell, the McGill University in Canada, Dartmouth, and Harvard; but the two last-mentioned had withdrawn, for reasons not positively known to me, but I believe the Dartmouth man was taken sick. Other alleged reasons that may or may not have had weight perhaps deserve a word here. It is said that objections were made to the entry of Mr. Bowie, the Canadian, on two grounds. One was that the terms of the invitation included only colleges in the United States, "in America," not meaning in Canada. The second was that Mr. Bowie is a professional runner, or at least "had run for money." The decision seems to have been that, in the first place, although "America," as used by our provincial friends and their English fellow-subjects, is a term into which they have imported some little ambiguity, Canadians may nevertheless compete. In the second place, Mr. Bowie, as I am assured by his friends, is so far from being a professional runner, that he is a gentleman of some fortune, who has this year taken second honors in law in his university. He has at different times run in races, and whenever he has won he has taken the offered prize—purse or medal.

The race was quite a pretty sight. The men came to the score in very light undress, and all were bareheaded except the Canadian, who at first wore an ordinary straw hat, which, however, he soon threw aside. He had a very businesslike look, although he was by no means so great a favorite with the audience as he was with myself—I, to tell the truth, having overnight been informed of his achievements in Canada on foot and on snow-shoes, and strongly advised by my informant to "make a dollar" by betting against the popular favorite. The favorite was such mainly, I think, because the reporters had got hold of him earlier and more frequently than of the others, and had given full descriptions of his being every day blanketed, sweated, and rubbed down, like a race-horse, and of his every day losing a certain amount in weight, although, after having been rinsed off with alcohol, he ate very large quantities of meat and, if I recollect right, potatoes. But he was still too heavy-looking when he came to the line; of his gait and carriage a description will not be needed by the reader who has observed the gait and carriage of a certain eminent pianist, of Russian origin, who has recently been among us. It was not a movement suggestive of swiftness. Very different in appearance was the man next him, the Canadian. He was of a very trim figure, slight but well-proportioned; his limbs were light and clean, and his rosy, provincial complexion showed that his spareness was not the result of sudden training down, but that he was of a naturally lean habit. The third runner had a promising look, but in comparison with the light compactness of the Canadian's figure his appeared rather loose-jointed. Each held in his hand a little roll of grass or paper upon which to clench the fingers easily, and at the word "go" they started, the pace seeming rather slow. It took them round the first half-mile, however, and in front of the judges' stand again, in two minutes and forty-nine seconds, the Amherst man leading, as he did almost all the time, though the Canadian and the Cornell man each were at one time and another in advance. They all kept pretty well together, the Canadian jogging along contentedly, Mr. Phillips of Cornell working more with his hands and shoulders, and Mr. Benton moving with a long step and with more of what the horse-fanciers would call action. So they went round the course three times, the crowd becoming more and more interested, and pressing forward on the track regardless of the warning of the judges and unheeded by any policemen. As the last half-mile is two-thirds done, Bowie, who is ahead of Phillips, suddenly passes Benton, and all three run hard. Only for a moment, however; for Benton, seeing his lead gone, and perhaps distressed, turns from the course and is out of the race, and Phillips and Bowie come up at a great rate, Phillips running in a manner to call out admiration for his courage and his speed. At a few rods' distance from the line I saw Bowie turn his head to see what had become of Benton, and as his eye fell on Phillips close behind him, he turned his face to the goal again; his hands, which had been on a level with his heart, he dropped straight and stiff by his side, and in a flash he was across the line. Phillips came in but a second and a half behind him, the winning time being 11 minutes and 18½ seconds. Bowie has made the same distance in the recorded time of 10 minutes and 40 seconds; and if every one did not run faster when alone than when somebody is running against him, I might give some very remarkable figures as to the practice time of the other runners. Those who witnessed this race will agree with me that with proper care as to track, entries, and prizes, it can be made a very welcome addition to the sports and spectacles of the regatta week.

Rowing down the river on Wednesday morning, and riding along the bank in the afternoon, it was possible to see more of the crews, both individually and as "teams," and it was more interesting to see them, than when they flashed along over the course in the struggle of the following day. In the old-time regattas this was not so. At Worcester, in the days of turning races, we could stand at the distance of a rod or two and see the beginning;

the eye could follow the boats all the way up to the place of turning; we could watch them as they came down along the mile and a half home; as they passed the stand going up or down, the very faces of the men and each motion could be distinctly seen, and the finish, like the start, was in full view. In the straight-away race little of all this can be done. Along the Springfield course there are half a dozen points where one may take a position on the high bank, and, looking down on the floor of the river, can follow for several minutes the course of the fleet of boats, and, for half a minute or so, can see the individual actors in the struggle. A thing long to be remembered I can easily imagine this sight to have been, and probably those spectators who contented themselves with this were wiser than the vast majority, who instinctively insisted on witnessing the last of the struggle, or trying to witness it. Really to do so was not easy, and the spectator reminiscent of the Beacon course along the Boston mill-dam, or of the course on Lake Quinsigamond, must have wished much for the one or the other of them as he looked from either the east or the west bank across some half a mile of water, and tried in the cloudy dusk to distinguish purple and white caps from lavender, or light-green and white from light-blue and white, or tried to make out whether Harvard, just under his feet, was ahead of Yale, away over towards the western shore, or was behind.

Nothing in the race itself, so far as I could see it, made so fine a picture as some of the practising which I saw on Wednesday, when several of the crews could be seen, each by itself, trying their boats in starts and in spurts, as I saw the Harvard Freshmen crew, and afterwards the University crew, under the momentary tuition of Mr. Blaikie. The performance of the latter crew was, to my uninstructed eye, perfection; it certainly was a beautiful thing to look at as the boat, under the impulse of the six oars moving like clockwork, went through the water at a rate that would have astonished the oarsmen of a dozen years ago, when sliding seats had not been thought of, nor hardly shells themselves; when college crews were not above rowing half their races in lapstreaks, and when twenty and twenty-one minutes was no very bad time over a three-mile course.

Before coming upon this crew we had been to one and another of the quarters, and also seen several of the crews on the water or embarking. First, we found the winners of two years ago, the Massachusetts Agricultural College men, standing under the tall trees at the foot of the steep bank of the river, watching one of the Ward brothers, a blue-shirted gentleman, looking something like an unlettered Connecticut deacon, who was oiling the grooves of the sliding seats, and otherwise caring for the boat. Like most of the other unprofessional boating men whom I saw at Springfield, these young fellows, with one or two exceptions, had the somewhat gaunt and anxious look which compels one to think that, full of spirit and determination and strength as they all are, they have not yet learned their business in the matter of eating and drinking and otherwise training themselves for a race. The lack-lustre eye and thin cheeks of at least one of the crew were ominous of the fate that was in store for them on Thursday, and seemed, to my mind, to justify the prediction of a skilled observer that the Aggies, as they are called—or the "Amherst Agricultural" as distinguished from the "Amherst Intellectual"—could not reach the score among the first three boats, and that with very little encouragement a man might reasonably bet that they could not be among the first five. One of their men, however, was probably the most accomplished boatman on the river. "If I had five more like him," says their trainer, with whom we have fraternized and are smoking a cigar, "we could take care of this race." A sort of a Yankee Bunsby this Mentor and Palinurus was, with a dry sageness, obvious and sound and unpretending, like the weather-wisdom of elderly farmers, whom he much resembles. One thing he could tell us, he said; if we had not been at Saratoga Lake when he and his brothers beat the Tyne crew and the Taylor-Winship crew, we had never seen a race. The first men in the world were there—by which he seemed to mean the Taylor-Winship crew, the Tyne crew, and his own, but perhaps not the Biglins. Only one thing was wanting to that race, he said—the Nova Scotians were not there; and upon this head he spoke with brevity, indeed, but with a sobriety and an earnestness which irresistibly suggested that it was sincerely a grief to him that the Nova Scotians were absent, and that perhaps it was as well for them that they were not present on that occasion. There never was anything like it, he said; at the end of the five miles all the crews were right together. As for to-morrow's race, the Harvard boys would win it. They had advantages over his crew as regards opportunity for practice, and, what was more, for becoming accustomed to boats.

This interview had been preceded by the embarkation of the crew. Dressed in their oldest clothes, this solemn little company carefully lifted their boat down the bank and into the water, and placed it cautiously broadside on beside the float. The captain, taking off his shoes, dips them into the river to wash off the sand and mud, and after the water has drained out of them through a dozen holes, he places them inside the straps of his stretcher and gives the word, "Two and four," upon which two men take their places in the boat, a bystander or two holding her in place by the blades of the oars, which are lying in the rowlocks. Next "three and five" seat themselves, then bow and stroke, and then cautiously sidling out, in a second or two the almost invisible craft is going at racing speed down the river, and by-and-by we are driving down its bank and watching them and their competitors on the water. Or we are taking a look at some of the men on land, for some of them are not now at work, and do not intend to be till to-morrow. "Are your men going to be on the water to-day?" we ask one of the trainers. "No," he says, "they're goin' to church;" and his tone—which smacks of the Bowery, and suggests that he is not a nice companion for the young—indicates that he considers that "no kind of conduct."

Of the races themselves I cannot say very much. We saw the Yale freshmen most handsomely beat the crews from Amherst and Harvard, the latter faring very much as the Cornell man fared at the hands of Mr. Swift the day before, and Amherst faring somewhat better but not well; and we saw the finish of the University race, though most of us could make out but little of it with distinctness, so long had the race been delayed, so dark was it getting, and so imperfect were the means of distinguishing one crew from another. This latter is a thing that very badly needs correcting. But that Yale was pulling most excellently we could distinguish; that Harvard had crossed the line first we thought we saw; but that there was an oddity about the finish flags was certain, especially to those who had examined the course the day before, as the captains and judges ought to have examined it; that every boat that started was in at the end could be seen by those who stayed to count them all. Instead of that our party counted half a dozen of them, and then made for our carriages "across lots," so as to drive off early and keep out of the throng that blocked the road to Springfield and cumbered the ramshackle ferry-boat and bridge. A race splendidly rowed by the contestants and shamefully bungled by the managers, is what every one who saw it will pronounce it to have been.

THE NEW RÉGIME IN FRANCE.

PARIS, July 4.

THE elasticity of the French mind is truly wonderful. A few weeks ago it seemed as if everything was lost. One of my friends, who is perhaps now the first bibliophile of Paris, sent all his precious books to England, so that they should not fall into the hands of the Commune. "We are drifting into the legal Commune" was a sentence in everybody's mouth. M. Thiers appeared to all the Conservatives like the image of Death on the walls of Basle, conducting priests, girls, old men to the same fate. Now the nightmare of radicalism and Communism is almost forgotten. French society is again in an easy, happy mood, and everything is rose-colored. Radicalism and even republicanism have always had a somewhat factitious importance; if it had not been for the complicity of M. Thiers, the former chief of the constitutional party, the Republican cause would long ago have been abandoned by all except zealots and by the working-men, for whom the Republic is the synonym of the destruction of the present social order.

The new Government of France is hardly conscious of its overwhelming force. It represents the end of the revolutionary period, and it is considered by the French nation as the preface of a constitutional monarchy. It is even now, under the name of republic, a real monarchy. MacMahon is the king; he reigns, and does not govern. He is a soldier, and is contented with receiving foreign potentates. He will show to the Shah of Persia all the splendors of Paris and of Versailles. He goes to reviews and holds a court. The political work is confided to the Duke de Broglie and to his colleagues; and the majority in the Chamber is no more a shifting majority, as it was in the days of M. Thiers; it is a solid, compact, invincible majority, which draws every day more Republican waverers to its side. Gambetta is nowhere, obliged to recite banal phrases on the anniversary of General Hoche, as an actor repeats a familiar song. M. Grévy has vanished. The man who so long presided over the stormy debates of the Assembly can now be seen in his shirt-sleeves at the Café de la Régence, playing cheerfully at his favorite game of billiards. M. Thiers keeps still a few ends of the broken strings which he had in his hands, but his glory is gone, and everybody will tell you that he is "played out," to use an American phrase.

The present Government is somewhat in the position of a man who does not know how to use his strength. It can make mistakes—it has made mistakes; some Ministers have not shown themselves equal to the situation. M. Beulé, who made himself a reputation as a scholar, has not so far proved that a good Hellenist can become a good home-minister; but with all this there never was such a strong government. Prince Bismarck has tried to discourage Marshal MacMahon; he has written to him with his own hand a

very overbearing letter on the subject of the Alsace and Lorraine banners which are displayed by some pilgrims (for with the fine season the fashion of pilgrimages has set in again); but the ill-will of a minister who has every reason to regret M. Thiers has only given more prestige to the general of Woerth and Sedan. The Duke de Broglie is not very popular with the diplomatists; but the *hauteur* which belongs to his race does him good service in the Chamber, and he was covered yesterday with almost deafening applause when he said to Gambetta, who had advocated again a dissolution of the Chamber: "I don't wonder that M. Gambetta wishes this Chamber to die; he would not have allowed it to come to life; but as it was born without his permission, it can live also without his permission." What the French people admire in their rulers above everything is authority. M. Guizot had this authority, this *hauteur*, and it helped him during ten years. The Emperor Napoleon III. had it; there was power even in his silence. M. Thiers never had the true attitude of a statesman; he talks too much, he is too elastic, too malleable, too fond of intrigue; and it will, I suppose, always be a wonder how he destroyed, in the course of two years, his own power and the confidence which a distracted country had placed in him at a most critical time in her history.

The Duke de Broglie and Marshal MacMahon appear to me to be both endowed with this consciousness of power which is so necessary to the rulers of this nation; and if they can keep united, the new administration will promptly destroy every vestige of the revolutionary work of its predecessors, and prepare France for definitive institutions. One of my friends in the Chamber said to me yesterday: I am almost afraid to see the temper of the Assembly; our extreme legitimists, our *chevau-légers*, as we call them, are almost moderate now in comparison with the numerous deputies of the Centre, of the neutral political zone, who have so long been influenced by M. Thiers. They feel that there was no necessity for all the faults they have committed in order to please him, no necessity for temporizing and conciliating the radicals, for denouncing the treaties of commerce with England and Italy; they see that France is left alone in the world, and has no real alliance; that the radical doctrines had been spread with the permission and connivance of the Government in every town and every village; that the home policy and the foreign policy have both been weak, illogical, and powerless. Their anger against M. Thiers is equal to the confidence they once had in him. They can hardly bear with patience his occasional return to the Chamber. More than four hundred deputies vote now together on every question, and public opinion, influenced by this tremendous show of power, is forcibly drawn back towards a thoroughly Conservative policy.

Every government, however, has a germ of decay; this germ, under M. Thiers, was radicalism; in the new administration, we may call it clericalism. Most of the new Ministers are men with strong religious opinions; but religion and clericalism need not go together. The Duke de Broglie, who is the leader of the Liberal Catholics, and who has often been attacked by M. Veuillot, the leader of the Ultramontanes, is conscious that his real weakness lies in the fact that many minds do not make the distinction I have just suggested. He has been very anxious not to appear clerical; he has maintained several Ministers abroad who are noted for their irreligious opinions, and I may name M. Fournier, a notorious partisan of the abolition of the temporal power, who nevertheless remains in Rome.

The Liberals cannot but see that there is a religious revival in France, and they can hardly object to it, as it springs from some of the noblest sentiments. I have spoken to you, on various occasions, of the numerous pilgrimages, of the perpetual flow of travellers to holy shrines which had long been deserted. There is no doubt that this religious phenomenon is a sort of protestation of the national sentiment; when everything has failed on earth, men's eyes turn naturally to heaven. The mystic light which guides many a humble heart to Lourdes, to Notre Dame de Fourvières, to Peray le Monial, and such places is the same which once guided Joan of Arc to Blois and to Orléans. We may find also in this religious revival a protest against the crimes of the Commune. How was it that the fury of the Communists was chiefly directed against old and disarmed priests? It is a strange mystery; but is there anybody, whatever be his philosophical or religious opinions, who can meet a priest in the streets of Paris without seeing in his *soutane* the livery of martyrdom, and without feeling a sort of involuntary pity?

For all these reasons, the tide of religionism, if I may use the word, has been constantly rising since the war and the Commune; but any interference, any help of the state, instead of favoring this spontaneous revolution, would be more likely to stop it; it would interrupt the work of grace. The Government and the Assembly were unfortunately called upon, a few days ago, to give an opinion on a singular decree of the Préfet of Lyons concerning the civil interments which take place in that town. Lyons is divided between Catholics and unbelievers, equally fanatical. There are as many as sixty or seventy civil interments every month; that is, interments which take place without the assistance of any priest. Walter Scott tells that even in his youth it was not uncommon to dispense with a minister at the funerals, such was the horror among the Calvinistic Scotchmen of the Catholic theory of prayer for the dead. The sentiments of the Lyonnese Radicals is not the same; they are not afraid of insulting by their prayers the power of God; they believe in no God, they do not believe in the immortality of the soul; they are pure materialists. Their funerals had become a public scandal, as they were made occasions for political manifestations in the most populous quarters of the town. The "Society of Free-Thinkers" undertook all the expenses, collected money to cover these expenses at the gates of the cemeteries, and positively hunted for corpses in the hospitals and in the poor families of the towns. The new Préfet, a very energetic man, one M. Ducros, put a stop to these scandals; but he somewhat overstepped the limits of the law, as he obliged every "declaration" of a death before the registrar to be accompanied by a declaration of the religion in which the deceased had died and would be interred. He decided that all the civil interments should take place at six o'clock in the morning in summer, and at seven o'clock in winter, and marked the routes of the processions to the cemetery. This he had a perfect right to do as charged with the police of the town and the cemeteries; he can make the strictest rules for all interments, but the Code Civil does not allow him to make any distinction between interments of one kind and interments of another kind. The law which instituted the French registry makes no mention of the religious faith either at the birth, or at the marriage, or at the death; and there is no doubt that if one of the interested parties refused to make this declaration, and if the whole matter were brought before the Council of State, the decree of the Préfet of Lyons would be annulled.

Political bodies do not act in the same spirit as judges; the law-makers are not the best interpreters of law, and the Chamber endorsed th e decree of M. Ducros by a large majority. The Government felt that it was on dangerous ground. The Ministers did not represent the measure as applicable to the whole country; they pleaded the exceptional character of Lyons, still under a state of siege, and the political character of the civil interments in that town, the scandalous conduct of the "Society of the Free-Thinkers," and so on. The Chamber made a decisive reservation for the liberty of conscience and of religious worship; but it is not the less true that if to-morrow a respectable man of the Littré stamp died in Lyons, and ordered his friends to bury him without the assistance of a priest, as he had dispensed with this assistance all his life, he would be taken to his grave at an exceptional hour —at the hour, as a Catholic paper said, when all the refuse of the town is carted away.

The Lyons incident is not so important in its actual results as in the fact that it has impressed on the Government a clerical stamp. It is in the nature of the clericals, as it has been of the Radicals, to be more and more exacting. They will ask a heavy price for their support, and it will require much courage in the Duke de Broglie to keep them within bounds. It is long since I foresaw that the religious question would play as important a part in French politics as it does in the politics of the happy little kingdom of Belgium. There are two parties in Brussels, the Catholics and the Liberals, and the King acts between them as a sort of arbiter. But a long use of liberty has accustomed the Liberals in power to be tolerant to the church, and the Catholics in power to be tolerant to the heretics of all shades. We are not so advanced in France; and if the Belgians gain from us by copying our fashions and our manners, and robbing us of our books and dramatic pieces, we shall gain much by copying their constitutional habits.

RENAN'S ANTICHRIST.

II.

PARIS, June 21.

AFTER the persecution of the Christians under Nero, the church of Ephesus became for a time the centre of the new religion. The refugees from Rome fled to Asia, and the atrocities of Nero, mixed up with the traditions of the anti-Pauline and Jewish Christians of Asia, became, so to speak, the ground from which sprang the Apocalypse. At this very time, the Jews in Judea had been seized with a sort of moral fever, which M. Renan can only compare to the malady of the French mind during the Revolution.

"The causes of the crisis were ancient, and the crisis was inevitable. The Mosaic law was the work of exalted utopians possessed with a powerful socialistic ideal, and the least political of men; like Islam, it excluded the notion of a civil society parallel to the religious society." He says, a little after-

wards: "A nation which devotes itself to religious and social problems is politically lost." Judea, as a part of the Achemenid Empire, had been rather quiet; it remained so under the Ptolemies; but the revolts began under the Seleucides, when Antiochus Epiphanes attempted an Hellenic propaganda, and insisted on having statues of Jupiter everywhere. The Jews cared little for their political independence, but no race was ever so attached to its religious institutions. The Jews never formed a true nation, they always were internationals; the synagogue, the temple, the congregation, was and is their only centre of attraction; their true king is the doctor of the divine law—the prophet. Between the Romans and the Jews there was a complete, an incurable antipathy, as Rome represented a purely civil society, without any admixture of theocracy, a rational and secular government; the Jews had their own divine law, which was irreconcilable with the Roman law.

Renan describes in vivid colors the state of Jerusalem: 1. "The Roman party, composed of epicureans and voluptuaries in possession of the highest dignities of the church;" 2. "The Pharisaic middle classes, of the Josephus type;" 3. "The zealots, fanatics, mendicants, who fed their imagination's with prophecies, in a state of abnormal exaltation;" 4. "Brigands, robbers, ready for plunder;" 5. "Dreamers who were quietly praying, holy and devout personages."

The zealots, the low churchmen, formed the only active party; amidst the corruption of the high churchmen and the cowardice of the Pharisees, they were sure to become, in a crisis, the masters of the city. The popular mind was full of Messianic prophecies; the zealots did not conceal their contempt for their Roman rulers. Florus abandoned the town, and retired to Cesarea. "It was a very culpable act; an armed power owes it to the city which it occupies, and where there breaks out a popular revolt, not to abandon it to its own fury before having exhausted all the means of resistance." Florus once gone, it became evident that the Roman troops could only re-enter Jerusalem through fire and blood. M. Renan throws here some indirect blame on those who quitted Paris on the 18th of March, and in many a passage the zealots and the Pharisees remind him of the Communists of Paris and of the Conservatives who remained the inert spectators of the horrors of the Commune.

In five months the insurgents had become masters not only of Jerusalem but of Judea and Galilee; the Greeks and Syrians of the East resented the triumphs of the Jews as a personal insult. They were loyal to Rome and intensely hostile to a church who threatened all the old temples with destruction. Horrible massacres began at Cesarea, all over Syria, at Alexandria, at Cyr; the Roman legate, Cestius Gallus, soon arrived with an army, and laid siege to Jerusalem. He was defeated, and this victory exalted the zealots almost to frenzy. The Jews began really to believe that the work of Augustus would soon be destroyed, that the last days of Rome had come, that the Messiah would soon appear.

Vespasian, meanwhile, was preparing his campaign against Judea. He first invaded Galilee, slaughtered the whole population, and then arrived in Judea. In this intense fever, which augmented every day, the position of the moderate party was no longer tenable. Bands of plunderers, after desolating the country, had fallen back on the capital. Those who fled before the Roman arms came in their turn and brought famine with them. There was no effective authority; the zealots ruled; all those who were suspected of "moderatism" were massacred without pity. So far, war and its excesses had respected the barriers of the temple. Now zealots and brigands lived in the holy shrine; all the rules of legal purity were forgotten; the floor was soiled with blood. In the eyes of the priests, there was no greater crime. For many devout people, this was the "abomination" predicted by Daniel which should come in the holy temple on the eve of the last days.

All this history of the siege of Jerusalem, the details of which have been left to us by Josephus, reads like a nightmare. Everybody has heard of the *physiological* moment predicted by Prince Bismarck, when famine, anarchy, fear, fury, would drive Paris mad. The Commune was the climax, the true physiological moment. It only came after the great catastrophe. In Jerusalem it came before. The old sacerdotal families were killed. Jerusalem was in the hands of demons; during its long siege, Vespasian heard the news of the death of Nero. The conscience of mankind had at last revolted against the imperial murderer. The East had not rebelled; it was more occupied with the siege of Jerusalem than with anything else; but Spain and Gaul gave the signal of revolt. The legions one after the other made their *pronunciamiento*. They proclaimed Galba as Emperor. Nero saw at once that he was lost, and his only care seems to have been to prolong as much as possible the drama, the issue of which he knew beforehand, and to save his head and his body from the outrages of the executioners. When he had received the fatal wound from the hands of a friend who consented to kill him, as he had not the courage to strike himself the blow, the centurion arrived, and Nero, dying, told him, "You come too late"; he added, "This is where fidelity is come to." Fidelity! how could he pronounce the word who had consciously been unfaithful to the most radical instincts of human nature, who had killed his mother, his wife, his tutor, his friends, who had outraged all the laws of Rome?

The Apocalypse, which seems at first the work of a wild phantasy, is better understood when you place its origin in the interregnum between Nero and Vespasian, when the whole world seemed convulsed, when not only the Roman Empire seemed tottering, but all sorts of meteors, earthquakes, volcanic eruptions, astonished and frightened the nations. A false Nero had appeared. The true Nero had died too easily to satisfy the hatred of the Asiatic churches. Why could not the enemy of God appear again and die a sublime death in the eyes of God and the angels? This desire was father to the Appocalyse. The author addresses himself to the seven churches of Asia. He writes in Patmos, which was a naval station between Rome and Ephesus. The sombre enthusiast, thrown on its shores, has no eye for the calm majesty and peace of the Archipelago, for its azure sky; his eye is filled with awful visions.

Renan's interpretation of the long dream of John must be read in his book, and I cannot follow all its details. The four-and-twenty elders represent humanity. The lamb slain is Jesus, the paschal victim; the four beasts, full of eyes, represent, as in Ezekiel, divine attributes, wisdom, power, omniscience, creative force. The Lamb opens the book with the seven seals; the prophetic drama begins. As the first seal opens, we see the triumph of the Roman Empire, its apotheosis under the form of a white horse, with a crowned cavalier armed with a bow. The red horse means war, the revolt of Vindex, the revolt of Judea. The black horse with a rider who holds a balance means the famine under Claudius in the year 68 of our era. On the opening of the fourth seal comes the pale horse, Death. Then come the martyrs, who were slain for the testimony of God, when the Lamb had opened the fifth seal, and the signal for the earthquakes and meteors is given by the opening of the sixth seal.

All seems ready now for the consummation; but the fundamental idea of the Revelation is the constant adjournment of the final judgment. An angel imprints his seal on the forty-four thousand persons who belong to the tribes of Israel. The prophet shows us also the innumerable multitude of all men of all races who have been persecuted. The seventh seal is opened, but the consummation does not take place. There is a long silence; a new act of the drama begins. The seven archangels come forward with their trumpets. Every blast of the trumpet is a signal for some new phenomenon; earthquakes, shooting-stars, the invasion of the Parthians, which was thought imminent. We expect the end with the blowing of the seventh trumpet; but at that very moment begins a new drama. John looks on Jerusalem, and shows us only the temple preserved after long struggles. Two prophets will appear. At the sound of the seventh trumpet, the doors of the celestial temple open, and a new series of visions begins at once.

The church of Israel appears as a woman; before her is a red dragon; its seven crowned heads mean Cæsar, Augustus, Tiberius, Caligula, Claudius, Nero, Galba; the woman is delivered of a child, which is the Messianic faith, which the Lamb places next to God. All the following details apply to the dispersion of the first churches and to the persecutions. The first beast is the Roman Empire, which has conquered Israel for a while, but will be conquered in its turn. The second beast is Nero himself. By adding the letters of Nero's name in Hebrew, according to their numerical value, one finds the apocalyptic number of 666 (Neron Kaisar).

The scarlet woman, the new Babylon, is clearly Rome, which has corrupted the whole world, and persecuted the saints. The world, delivered from her, is ready for the Messiah. Nero, who has come to life again as the Antichrist, fights the last battles of idolatry. Satan, the old dragon, is seized and bound for a thousand years. The millennium begins.

Notes.

"OUR Country's New Era" is the title of an address delivered before the Society of the Alumni of Wittenberg College (Springfield, Ohio) at the college commencement, June 25, A.D. 1873, by Hon. Jacob D. Cox. That the United States have entered upon a new era is universally admitted at home and abroad, though as to what sort of an era it will be there seems the widest diversity of opinion. Between the philanthropists, who think it is going to be an era of peace and love; and the prohibitionists, who think that it can be easily made an era of temperance and all the virtues which flow from temperance; the capitalists, who look forward to an era of material development; the journalists, who anticipate a period of truth and justice; and the corruptionists, who look forward to an era of unlimited plunder, it is not

to be wondered at if, as Mr. Cox says, many a young man just graduated should say to himself, "True, we *are* at the beginning of a new era," or that he should have a vague idea that it is a glorious thing, and that we are somehow in a more imposing and noble attitude among the nations; or that he should "not stop to enquire what the new era means, nor whether it implies any new relations or larger responsibilities for himself." Nevertheless, as Mr. Cox says, he ought to ask the question; for his first business in life will be to do his part towards impressing upon the future of the country the answer which seems to him to be the true one. If from laziness or selfishness he finds none, that negative attitude will also be of weight. The answer which Mr. Cox would himself give we have no space here to state in detail; but that it contains valuable advice no one who has reflected at all on the present condition of the country would be likely to deny. Mr. Cox's name is well known as that of a consistent and earnest reformer, who made, though unsuccessfully, a long and manly fight against party rule at Washington, and who afterwards showed, by his refusal to "accept the results" of the Cincinnati Convention of last year, that his enthusiasm for reform was not maintained at the expense of his common sense.

—On one point, the extension of the national territory by acquisition of that belonging to the outlying "Latin races," Mr. Cox's advice strikes us as putting the matter in the true light, in fewer and more pointed words than we have anywhere else seen it put:

"When we talk, then, of annexing a foreign country, we must mean one of two things: either that we propose to treat the population practically as we have treated the Indians—drive them out and destroy them by one process or another—or that we mean to hand over to them a proportionate part of the power to rule the whole country, ourselves included. If we mean the former, we are only making a conquest, whether we do it by force of arms or by deluding the people of the country into the belief that they may find profit in it. I have already indicated my belief that our race is unequal to the task of peopling the tropic zone, and that it will there find in that regard a competition with nature that it cannot endure. If we mean, then, what I think would be the real outcome of annexation in that direction, simply to unite with ourselves old communities whose race-characteristics would not be materially modified, and on whom we should therefore exert no more modifying influence than we now do, the result would be that for every representation of such a state in the Senate, we should have given away a large fraction of the total legislative power of the whole country; and in the representation in the House, we should introduce a strong reinforcement of passion instead of reason, of restless desire of change instead of patient faith in constitutional progress, of disposition to appeal constantly to revolution—in short, of all the tumultuous, corruptible, and corrupting elements which have made the so-called Spanish republics a burlesque on self-government. And this we should call national glory!"

—Mr. Herbert Spencer has undertaken the preparation of a work on "descriptive sociology," consisting mostly of tables accumulated for his 'Principles of Sociology,' of which specimens received from Mr. Christern, of this city, are now before us. Some idea of the magnitude of the work may be gathered from the fact that in the case of each human society, Mr. Spencer's tables, with the accompanying quotations and extracts, exhibit a tabulated statement of its morphology, its physiology, and (if a society having a known history) its development. The collected extracts, on the other hand, are to be classified primarily according to the kinds of phenomena to which they refer, and secondarily according to the societies exhibiting these phenomena; so that each kind of phenomenon, as it is displayed in all societies, may be separately studied. Societies are to be divided into three groups. 1. Uncivilized societies; 2. Civilized societies—extinct or decayed; 3. Civilized societies—recent or still flourishing. Table IX. of Division I ("uncivilized races"), for instance, relates to the Sandwich Islanders. First comes their inorganic environment (climate, etc.); then their organic environment (vegetable, animal); then their sociological environment (adjacent tribes), physical, emotional, and intellectual characters. Then follow the tables, divided into structural and functional, each of which is subdivided into operative and regulative. The "structural regulative" is subdivided into political (*civil* [domestic (marital, filial) *public*] *military*), ecclesiastical, and ceremonial (*mutilations, funeral rites, laws of intercourse, habits, and customs*). Under functional, the regulative is subdivided into sentiments (*æsthetic, moral*), ideas (*superstitions, knowledge*), and language; the operative into processes (*distribution, exchange, production, arts, rearing*), etc., and products (*land-works, habitations*, etc.; *food, clothing, implements, weapons, æsthetic products*).

—A genius that was hardly "cradled into poetry by wrong" passed from the world when Hiram Powers died the other day. Few penniless youths have received earlier or heartier encouragement. First noticed as a watchmaker's lad in Cincinnati, he became among other things a repairer of wax-works in the same city, and then a maker of busts among the Congressmen at Washington, where he got a good deal of work and made some money. With the savings of this short but successful career in portraiture, and with some aid from Mr. Nicholas Longworth, his earliest patron, he went to Italy. Mr. Powers did not use the assistance of his patron to put himself at a good school, but quickly emerged as an independent producer in the lands of classic art, where Mr. Lister and Mr. Hawthorne show him intent to teach the Greeks rather than to learn from them. Virtually, Powers never lived in Europe; he is not known to have submitted himself to the estimates of Continental culture, or competed in Continental salons, or effaced natural self-esteem before Continental professors; he simply lived in that part of America which falls as a current upon the great travel-route in Southern Europe. It was easier in 1838 than it is now to be a Yankee prodigy, but the début of Powers with a statue of Eve showed real promise, and Thorwaldsen's generous approval was not misplaced. The next achievement, "The Greek Slave," designed to order for Captain Grant of the British Army, became a curiosity of popular and mercantile success. The original is at Raby Castle, having been bought by the Duke of Cleveland; a copy was next made by the Duke's permission for Mr. Corcoran, of Washington, and has been transferred with his gallery to the American nation; a third fac-simile was cut for Mr. A. T. Stewart, a fourth for the Earl of Dudley, a fifth for Prince Demidoff, and a sixth for E. W. Stoughton, of this city. The Slave was beyond doubt an historical achievement; in literature, it was taken up by Mrs. Browning, who was good-natured enough to go into a good deal of agony on the subject; in commerce, if we make a standard of the last sale of it (that with the Demidoff Collection, at 53,000 francs), Mr. Powers enriched the world with this single conception by about $63,600. His production subsequent to this masterpiece has never lacked popular success, whether in ideal subjects or portraits. In the tourist circles of Florence he has long had the advantageous position of the lion. In attempting the beautiful, Mr. Powers reached a repose which bears at first sight a resemblance to style; but what really distinguishes such of his subjects is their platitude of surface, imperfect vitalization, and want of charm. With his death, the moment comes when his fame must pass from rewards to work—a travail for very existence. In the mechanics of his art he was supreme; admirably adapted to take the head of a great marble establishment, he trained his carvers to perfection, while he almost took them off their feet with the spectacle of labor-saving American inventions continually applied to European laboriousness; no negligent work left his atelier. We are not apprised whether his discovery in modelling with soft plaster, and his ingenious forms of tools, go to the benefit of art at large. His inventiveness and mechanical faculty were very great, and are in themselves a fair claim to renown. His death, on the 27th ultimo, was at the age of very nearly sixty-eight; his birth, which occurred near Woodstock, in Vermont, having been on July 29, 1805.

—Among English books newly published or announced as soon to appear we find not many that are of great importance. Of religious books, the list as usual is rather longer than that of works ranged under any other head, even fiction yielding to theology and religion. Longmans announce 'The Chronology of the Bible and Historical Synchronisms,' by that able writer if not always safe theorist, M. Ernest de Bunsen; Macmillan & Co. will publish an octavo volume of 'Sermons Preached in Country Churches,' by the late F. D. Maurice; Mr. Stopford Brooke's 'Sermons Preached in St. James's Chapel' have reached a fifth edition; Bishop Colenso has published (Longmans) 'Lectures on the Pentateuch and the Moabite Stone,' with appendices on the following-named subjects: The Elohistic Narrative, the Original Story of the Exodus, and the Universality and Meaning of the Pre-Christian Cross; Mr. Mowbray, of Oxford, publishes a new edition of a clever and successful little anti-Evangelical squib called 'The Deformation and the Reformation,' which, besides some fun for the worldly, has in it not a few grains of profitable instruction and reproof for various sorts of Churchmen; what 'Common-Sense Theology' may be we do not know, except that it describes itself in its second title as 'Natural Truths in Rough-Shod Rhyme'; we mention it because of its going to England from Lewiston, Maine; 'The Eastern Church' is a popular essay on the history, documents, liturgies, and vestments of the Greek Church, has reached a second edition, and has a preface by Dr. Littledale; a revised edition of 'The Voice of the Last Prophet,' is the Rev. Edward Huntingford's 'Practical Interpretation of the Revelation of St. John the Divine'; translated from the German of Dr. Theodore Reim we have the first volume of 'The History of Jesus of Nazareth, considered in its connection with the National Life of Israel'; also from the German, the translator being Mathilde Blind, we have an authorized English rendering of the sixth edition of D. F. Strauss's 'Old Faith and the New: A Confession'; Mr. Max Müller has collected into a four-hundred page post octavo four essays entitled 'An Introduction to the Science of Religion,' and two essays entitled 'False Analogies and the Philosophy of Mythology.'

—Of books related on one side to religion, and on the other side to something else, we may mention two. One the *Bookseller* places under the general heading "Charlatanism." It seems to be something in the nature of "a friendly controversy between Moses Hull, Spiritualist, and W. F. Parker, Christian," in which Mr. Hull apparently conceives himself to have got rather the better of Mr. Parker, as it is he who publishes the account of the discussion. The volume bears the title, 'W hic: Spiritualism or Christianity?' and is a small duodecimo of 178 pages. This work, also, like the theology in roughshod rhyme, hails from this country, and is set down as coming from Boston and New York. The other book to which we have alluded as related to religious works is Mr. William Longman's interesting 'History of the Three Cathedrals dedicated to St. Paul in London.' We copy the rest of the title-page: "With reference chiefly to their Structure and Architecture, and the Sources whence the Necessary Funds were derived. With six engravings on steel, and nearly fifty woodcut illustrations." We have said that this 'History' is of interest to the religious reader, but to how many other and widely different classes of readers it makes appeal is readily seen when we bethink ourselves that no collection of play-books, no poetical collection including our dramatists, no library of prose fiction, no history of bourses and exchanges, no collection of our English essayists, can fairly be called complete unless it contains this description of the Old Saint Paul's that went down in the great fire of 1666, after standing, complete and incomplete, nearly six hundred years—from the time of the Conqueror to the time of Newton. Here is what Bishop Earle, writing in the middle of the seventeenth century, says of the middle aisle of the cathedral, "Paule's Walk," at the period when the strange desecration of it was at its height:

"It is the land's epitome, or you may call it the lesser isle of Great Britain. It is more than this, the whole world's map, which you may here discern in its perfectest motion justling and turning. It is a heap of stones, and men with a vast confusion of languages; and were the steeple not sanctified, nothing liker Babel. The noise in it like that of bees, a strange humming or buzz of walking tongues and feet: it is a kind of still roar or loud whisper. It is the great exchange of all discourse, and no business whatever but is here stirring and a-foot. It is the synod of all pates politic, jointed and laid together in most serious posture, and they are not half so busy at the Parliament. It is the antic of tails to tails, and backs to backs, and for vizards you need go no further than faces. It is the market of young lecturers, whom you may cheapen here at all rates and sizes. It is the general mint of all famous lies, which are here, like the legends of Popery, first coined and stamped in the Church. All inventions are emptied here, and not a few pockets. The best sign of a temple in it is, that it is the thieves' sanctuary, which rob more safely in a crowd than a wilderness, whilst every searcher is a bush to hide them. It is the other expense of the day after plays, tavern, and a bawdy house; and men have still some oaths left to swear here. It is the ears' brothel, and satisfies their lust and itch. The visitants are all men, without exception, but the principal inhabitants and possessors are stall knights and captains out of service; men of long rapiers and breeches, which, after all, turn merchants here and traffic for news."

PROFESSOR CAIRNES'S ESSAYS IN POLITICAL ECONOMY.*

PROFESSOR CAIRNES is well known in the United States as the Englishman whose masterly exposition of the origin of the late civil war did more than any other agency—though we admit that no agency did much—to enlighten public opinion in England with regard to the real nature and probable issue of the conflict. He is less widely known on this side of the water as an economist; but he has borne a very prominent part in all the momentous sociological discussions by which England has been agitated during the last fifteen years; and this in spite of a struggle with ill-health which compelled him to resign his professorship in Queen's College, Galway, and more recently a similar position in University College, London. The volume before us consists of a number of essays which have appeared in various English periodicals during the above period; some of them, as those on the gold question and on the land question in Ireland, being applications of political economy to problems of contemporary politics; and others, such as that on the *laissez-faire* doctrine, and the reply to M. Comte on the claims of political economy to be considered a science, are theoretical discussions, though of great interest. The articles on the gold question are pieces of work which exhibit political economy in its very best aspect. They are attempts, made soon after the discovery of the gold-fields in California and Australia, to forecast the probable effects of the enormous additions then impending to the circulating medium of the world on production and distribution; and the fact that Mr. Cairnes produces them fourteen years after their publication, and challenges an examination of his predictions "in the light of subsequent events," is as good an illustration as we could offer of the care and perspicacity which he has brought to the performance of his task. In fact, we could hardly put into the hands of a student a better specimen than these papers afford of the way in which an economist of the best class performs one of the most difficult of his functions—"the thinking out" of the probable course of a given set of phenomena. A considerable number of modifications might, we think, be made in his conclusions as to the effect on wages and profits of the increase in the volume of gold as regards this country, though we doubt if American experience affords any excuse for doubting his findings with regard to general tendencies. Some of his remarks on the curious inclination to protection wrought in the Australian mind by the gold discoveries, throw valuable light on the secret of the success of protective ideas in new countries. There is one point on which Mr. Cairnes has not touched, and on which he was perhaps not bound to touch, in estimating the cost of gold, and that is the proportion borne of late years by the results of gold-mining to the capital invested in it. This is a matter in which California has had some very valuable experience, which, so far as we know, no economist has yet turned to account. We believe the most careful observers in that region are firmly convinced that for the last fifteen years at least the Californian contribution to the annual product has been made at a positive loss, or, in other words, that the thoroughly aleatory character of the pursuit and the traditional influence exercised on the imagination by the precious metals has drawn into the search for them a far larger amount of capital and labor than it can remunerate at the average rate of profit and wages, or, in other words, that the average returns of this species of industry have fallen below those of every other in the State. This is a curious phenomenon which will repay more investigation than it has ever received.

The most important of Mr. Cairnes's essays are, however, three in which he seeks to define the position of political economy, both in the field of morals and in that of science—"Political Economy and Land," "Political Economy and *Laissez Faire*," and "M. Comte and Political Economy," in reply to the attacks of two classes of depreciators. The first is composed in about equal parts of humanitarians and labor reformers, and the second of scientific men of the Comte school; and for dealing with both, Mr. Cairnes has the prime essential of perfect candor. He extenuates nothing, and shirks nothing; but he shows some signs, as it seems to us, of a weakness which more than one economist of our day has displayed—in seeking to soften down the harsher features of the science, in deference to the popular demand for fuller play of the principle of love in the regulation of the social relations. He confesses that political economy has of late years fallen considerably into disrepute with progressive people, owing to the implacable opposition which many of its leading professors have offered to all attempts at legislative interference with free competition, and to their reckless preaching of what he considers the worn-out doctrine of "*laissez-faire*." *Laissez faire* he holds to be a rule of art, or a temporary expedient, and not a principle of science, and to have been a good enough rule in the days when it first began to be preached, when the world was suffering from overregulation and interference. But in these days of all but complete liberty, he holds that further reliance on it is positively mischievous, as either turning people's attention away from the benefits which may be conferred on society by government considered as the organized co-operation of the entire community, or as inspiring with hatred or distrust of economical science those who still have faith in the power of the community to better itself by active exertion. That he considers the rule wholly unsuited to our present exigencies he does not deny, and he points to the failure of free trade to fulfil the extravagant predictions of its early advocates in regard to pauperism, as an illustration of the folly as well as danger of too great reliance on it.

Political economy, he points out in an admirable passage, is not interested in and not connected with any particular form of government or mode of production or distribution. It, like all other sciences, is occupied with discovering and explaining the laws of the phenomena of wealth. It has nothing to say to the expediency of any system of legislation. What astronomy does for the phenomena of the heavenly bodies, what dynamics do for the phenomena of motion, etc., etc., that political economy does for the phenomena of wealth; that is to say, it expounds the facts of production, exchange, price, profits, rents, interest, and so on, but it does not say in what way it is best to produce or exchange any more than astronomy prescribes the hours at which we ought to go to bed or how to take care of our eyesight. Science as such has no practical end in view. All this is a much-needed discourse, and is addressed in particular to that large number of persons who fancy that political economy teaches that everybody ought to make as much money as he can, and that the shortest road to national riches is to let everybody make money in his own way without let or hindrance. But then, when Professor Cairnes rebukes political economists for ever abandoning a perfectly neutral attitude, or saying that political economy "sanctions" this or "condemns"

* 'Essays in Political Economy, Theoretical and Applied. By J. E. Cairnes, A.M., Emeritus Professor of Political Economy in University College, London.'

or "approves" that social arrangement, he makes too great an effort, as it seems to us, for the conciliation of unbelievers. It may be quite true the dicta of political economists on many points lead the working-men, for instance, to dislike and deride political economy and refuse to be governed by its teachings; but this seems to be a poor reason for pretending that certain social arrangements are not condemned by political economy, or that political economy has no lessons for the legislator. Undoubtedly it has, and if so, why not say so? There are social arrangements the results of which political economy enables us to predict will be evil. If it does so, we say political economy condemns them; if any class is so foolish as to abuse political economy on this account, it does not furnish us with an excuse for altering our phraseology. It is true we do not say that chemistry or physiology "condemns" the eating of bad food or the abuse of alcohol, but it is nevertheless true that it does so, and true in the same sense in which we say that political economy declares any man to be unwise who tries to keep down the premium on gold by prohibiting speculation in it. We cannot predict consequences of human conduct, even in economical matters, without borrowing the terminology of moral science; and unless political economy enables us to predict at least tendencies, whether bad or good, of what value is it? If a man were to hate astronomy because he disliked eclipses, we should let him rail; but we should not give up calculations, or cease to announce their results.

The Isles of Shoals: An Historical Sketch. By John Scribner Jenness. (New York: Hurd & Houghton.)—The author of this little work has judged rightly that the vicissitudes from which none of the settlements of man are exempt, are in the case of this barren cluster of islands as interesting if also as melancholy as they are generally apt to be. In the long interval between the height of their importance as a fishing entrepot and their present growing importance and almost exclusive value as a watering-place, the Shoals have seen their population shift from one island to another, decline with the fisheries, and, within a few years, after having for half a century been an object of missionary solicitude, afford no longer the shadow of a parish to even the most zealous saver of souls. Champlain first described these islands in print; Capt. John Smith named them after himself, and wanted to appropriate them, but did not succeed. They were loyal to the King against Parliament and the Protector, to the Church of England against the Puritans of Massachusetts Bay, to the mother country against the rebellious colonists. They have been under the jurisdiction of three different States, and though situated beyond easy reach of the sheriff and the tax-gatherer, generally left to their own devices of indifference and non-resistance to the authority of the main, worthless for agriculture, and of no value now for fish, they still owe a divided allegiance to Maine and to New Hampshire. The two men who, in settling a difficulty by a square stand-up fight, "agreed to heave the law one side," fairly represented the independent manners of the Shoals. Very early in their history women were excluded by statute from these islands, but they were brought there, honestly or dishonestly, as if no such law existed; and, after the Revolution, such was the moral decay that had set in, that the marital relation was often entered into without the sacrament of marriage, and annulled at the whim of the parties, without the sanction of a divorce. A missionary to the islanders, some time after the beginning of the present century, "found it impossible to make a record of their ages, as all memory on that subject had been lost; according to tradition, their very language had so degenerated as to be understood with difficulty by the people of the mainland." A meeting-house that had stood for seventy years was wantonly burned down by a gang of fishermen in 1790, so that, when another was to replace it in 1800, the Rev. Jedediah Morse recommended that the walls should be built of stone, as having "two great advantages over wood: the inhabitants *cannot burn it for fuel*, and it will be imperishable." The walls of this structure are still standing. It was used during week-days as a school-house; served at all times as a useful landmark; and occasionally was "turned to good account in the drying and storing of codfish." The Rev. Mr. Moody, pastor to the Shoals in 1822, reckoned that 31 male inhabitants and 16 hired men consumed six hundred gallons of rum in less than three months. In 1840 the cause of temperance was "slowly advancing. About forty belong to the Temperance Society, which excludes all intoxicating liquors."

This entertaining narrative is illustrated with a number of cuts and two folded maps—one of the Shoals, and the other "an exact copy" of the chart which accompanied Captain John Smith's 'Description of New England,' published "shortly after his arrival in England" from his explorations of 1614. Here the author is not quite exact, as his fac-simile map speaks on its face of Prince Charles "nowe king"—*i.e. post* 1620, and indeed, as the name Salem shows, *post* 1629. The fact is that Smith first issued his chart in 1616 (the date of his 'Description'), and altered it for succeeding editions so that it is found in *nine* different conditions. When Mr. Veazie, of Boston, reprinted Smith's 'Advertisements' of 1631, he grafted upon the original the latest form (date unknown to us), and it is this which Mr. Jenness has reproduced.

New England: A Hand-book for Travellers. A guide to the chief cities and popular resorts of New England, and to its scenery and historic attractions; with the western and northern borders from New York to Quebec. With six maps and eleven plans. (Boston: James R. Osgood & Co. 1873.)—A traveller's hand-book is nothing if not accurate, and the editor of this one very wisely requests "bona fide corrections or suggestions" from either travellers or residents. We shall endeavor to point out several mistakes he has made, premising, however, that we say nothing as to the possibility by revision and correction of making the book perfect. The mistakes we have noticed come thickly, and some of them are glaring. Until then it may be useful in indicating unfamiliar routes, and giving the traveller local information of a sort not generally accessible; still it is possible that by a total revision the errors may be weeded out, and the general plan of the book, which is certainly a good one, made perfect.

In the descriptions of the college buildings at Cambridge (p. 31), the Lawrence Scientific School is spoken of as "back of" Holworthy Hall; on the next page it is "opposite" the same hall; both these statements are, strictly speaking, true, but they are confusing, because it is difficult to understand how one building can be opposite and at the same time back of another. In fact, a street runs between the two. Again, on p. 31, Thayer Hall is spoken of as ornate—a ridiculous epithet, for the building is one of the simplest in the yard. Matthews's Hall, which is no more like Thayer than the two names are, is also called "ornate" on the same page; the epithet is correctly applied here. On the same page, Weld Hall is spoken of as "modern Mansard-roofed." It is, in reality, so far as it has any architectural character, Elizabethan, and there is not a brick in the building which could suggest to any one who had ever seen it the notion of Mansard architecture. On the same page we find "University Hall is the seat of the University Government, which consists of the President and six Fellows, with a second branch (Board of Overseers) elected by the Alumni"—a statement utterly misleading, for the only branch of the College government which has its seat in University Hall is the College Faculty; the Corporation (President and Fellows), as well as the Overseers, usually, and we think always, meet in Boston. We have never heard of their meeting anywhere else. On page 32, there is a description of Memorial Hall, which is said to be a "stately edifice now building, whose simple and massive architecture contrasts strongly with the Renaissance style of the other new buildings." It would be difficult to convey an impression of the extraordinary character of this comparison to a reader who has not been on the ground; it is very much as if a writer were to say that the simple architecture of the Town Hall at Newport affords a pleasant contrast with the Moorish arches of the old stone mill. These mistakes seem almost enough, but we must notice in addition the omission of any allusion to the college holidays. For a traveller who is making the tour of New England, it is quite as important to know on what day of the month Class day and Commencement fall as to be told that Margaret Fuller was "a fine linguist and conversationalist," and "became an enthusiastic transcendentalist," *but* was finally "wrecked and lost on the New Jersey coast."

In the account of Marblehead, the editor says: "At this town is laid the scene of Whittier's poem, 'Skipper Ireson's Ride.' 'Many years ago, Captain Ireson refused to take off some of his townsmen from a drifting wreck, because of the expense of feeding them all the way home. On his return, the citizens tarred and feathered him, and rode him, in one of his own boats, to Salem and back, he remaining silent and unresisting. Whence the refrain:

> 'Old Floyd Ireson, for his hard heart,
> Tarred and fea hered and carried in a cart
> By the women of Marblehead.'"

This, however, is not the refrain at all; the poem is written in the Marblehead "dialect," and there seems to be no reason why it should not be left as Whittier wrote it. Under the title "Marblehead Neck," it is said that "Massachusetts Bay was stocked with cunners (black-fish) by some Bostonians, and these delicious fish have propagated rapidly." It is hardly necessary to say that the cunner is no more like the black-fish than it is like the cod. The Marbleheaders have not a reputation for a very Christian or philanthropic spirit, and it is possible that some of the natives may have practised an imposition on strangers by persuading them that they were feasting royally on black-fish, when in reality they were eating cunners; how else the confusion can have arisen we cannot imagine.

We have no space to examine this 'Hand-book' at length. The mistakes we have mentioned were discovered casually in merely turning over the leaves. We have found several inaccuracies and omissions besides those we have mentioned.

Hap Hazard. By Kate Field. (Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 1873.)—Miss Field half disarms criticism by giving to her book its unpretentious title. But not all of its contents are unpretentious. Miss Field fearlessly undertakes to pass judgment on French morals, on the English system of government, on the character of the American man, on the rights of woman, on profuse expectoration, on the Tory party, and on a dozen or two other things concerning all of which she has a very decided opinion. This opinion, which is as likely to be right as wrong, Miss Field smartly rattles off in a manner not suggestive of the profoundest reflection, and the result of her utterances thus delivered is a peculiar book of a kind much in favor in some quarters. As for French morals, to speak of one or two of the matters to which Miss Field has turned her attention, they are bad, very bad. French dishonesty is "enough to spoil Anglo-Saxon tempers." French shopkeepers flatter and "lie" with unbounded effrontery. Every Frenchman looks on every woman he sees as a "probable or possible *fille de joie*." "As for Frenchmen, the less said the better," in regard to their professed respect for women. "The breeding of the Latin races is, as a rule, skin deep." Germans, on the contrary, can be sentimental over women; but try to imagine a German looking on a woman as an intellectual being! The attempt, we are given to understand, would be entirely vain; "woman in Germany is an inferior animal." As for the English system of government, Miss Field does not approve of it. She was present at the opening of Parliament a year or two ago, and when she came away, a woman said to her in the street, "For the love of God, good lady, sweet lady, help a poor woman who is starving. Buy a few flowers; do, dear lady." "This," says Miss Field, "is the cry that meets me as I leave the Houses of Parliament. I think of the men in gold-lace paid to do nothing; I think of the House of Lords; I think of the Seven Dials," and she is at once of opinion that the British government should be republican in form. In considering this class of questions, she evidently has been much impressed by Sir Charles Dilke and Mr. Auberon Herbert, both of whom she mentions in terms of warm praise.

Upon indiscriminate expectoration Miss Field is diffuse, and, as we might have been sure beforehand, she justly and severely condemns it; but for particulars, we must refer the reader to her chapter entitled "Ruminating Animals," which is entirely devoted to this subject. It may serve to show foreign commentators on American manners that we have a home-born party whose members disapprove of this habit as unreservedly as any foreigner can, and who, in the face of popular clamor, dare to be outspoken against it. Equally severe is Miss Field upon those Americans who, though they may not use tobacco, are deficient in other points of breeding, and, when travelling in Europe, give a bad and false impression of the rest of their countrymen and women. True culture and refinement Miss Field does not expect from every American; but at least Americans abroad need not be silly snobs and worshippers of rank, which Miss Field finds so many of them to be that she has been compelled to think now and again that we empty our "idiot asylums" into Europe. She has often been mortified very much by what she has seen and heard of the vulgarity of such Americans.

The manner of Miss Field's book is of a lively order, and may be described specifically as being that which the newspaper reader knows as "spicy" or "brilliant." Miss Field sees Mr. Cross, M.P., rise to ask Mr. Gladstone some questions, and Mr. Gladstone is said to be "Cross-questioned"; Mr. Brand has newly been elected Speaker, and he is "the Brand-new Speaker"; a great deal of expectoration is "the rain of terror"; poor wine "by any other name would be more sour"; the Empress Augusta is "Mrs. Kaiser"; when French shopkeepers flatter you, you feel like putting a pistol to their heads, and saying, "Dead silence, or your dead bodies"; when Mr. Disraeli's hair is to be described, it is

> "With each particular hair smooth to th' end,
> Like flax upon the yielding sticking-wax."

When the Fourth of July was celebrated by certain Americans in Paris,

> "Not a drum was heard, not a cannon roared,
> No horses ran away;
> But we did our 'level best' abroad
> To celebrate the day."

This is a way of writing which the reader usually finds best exemplified in the letters of lady correspondents at the watering-places in the hottest weather; but Miss Field is an adept in it, and perhaps the most eminent proficient.

Good Morals and Gentle Manners. For School and Families. Alex. M. Gow, A.M. (Cincinnati and New York: Wilson, Hinkle & Co.)—This little manual is intended as a "systematic text-book on moral and social law." Mr. Gow has endeavored to cover the whole ground, and if in the limits of 246 pages he has failed at all to accomplish his object, it is not on account of lack of earnestness or comprehension of the importance of his task. Mr. Gow is essentially an earnest writer, and in this hand-book he has prepared for the public a compendium of what he thinks the most authoritative opinions on a variety of subjects which have been treated of at different periods of the world's history by writers of considerable reputation, as, for instance, Moses, Confucius, Marcus Aurelius, Dickens, Franklin, Solon, Neal Dow, Washington, and Solomon, and on some others to which they gave but little attention. Besides the rules of conduct, Mr. Gow has given illustrations and applications of the moral and social law by means of anecdotes of all kinds; as, for example, in that part of his treatise which discusses the violation of good morals and gentle manners involved in the practice of whittling, he tells the story, or, as he might prefer to have it called, the parable, of the habitual whittler who on one occasion, when engaged in whittling away at a valuable shop-counter, was sharply reproved by a clerk, who, observing the outrage, quietly "walked around where he was sitting, and, before the whittler was aware of his intention, cut off one of his coat-tails with his scissors." This matter is very properly treated of under the head of "Rights of Property." Under the "Social Law" Mr. Gow has collected a number of rules, which are all the more welcome from the fact that we have never before seen them in print. We give a few of them: *Behavior at the Table—Undress.*—"Politeness requires that gentlemen should not come to the table without their coats, especially if covered with perspiration. The propriety of this rule is very obvious." Under the sub-title, *Coughing and Spitting at Table,* Mr. Gow says: "Some persons have so little regard for the proprieties of the table as to clear the throat and cough and spit upon the floor before commencing to eat. Such thoughtlessness is deserving of the severest censure." A very sensible rule is given under the sub-title, *The Butter-knife and Spoons,* which may be cited as a satisfactory solution of one of the darkest points in the art of good-breeding—what is to be done when there is no butter-knife? "If no butter-knife is provided, each guest should be careful to clean his knife carefully upon a slice of bread, that no stain be left upon the butter." Other directions are, never to use the fork for the purpose of picking the teeth at table, nor, when any lady or gentleman has finished eating, to tip the chair back on two legs; never, except at the request of the entertainer, to "take apples, nuts, or sweetmeats away from the table, as it might be supposed that you are not accustomed to such delicacies, and thought it necessary to lay by a supply for future use." Mr. Gow's book cannot fail, it seems to us, to have a wholesome effect in the amelioration of manners, and we trust it may have a wide circulation.

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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

JULY 21, 1873.

THE week in Wall Street has been quite active, especially in the Stock Exchange, where the recent change in the management of the Lake Shore road has imparted fresh activity to that stock, and led to enlarged dealings in Central and Hudson. The week wound up on Saturday with a lively turn in Erie, which will be more fully spoken of later.

The money market has remained quiet, with the rate three to four per cent. Commercial paper is in good demand and at low rates. Prime names having a short time to run have been negotiated as low as 5½ per cent. Paper having over three months to run passes less freely and at higher rates, according to the standing of the makers, varying from 6 to 7 per cent.

A further reduction of ½ per cent. was made Thursday in the Bank of England rate of discount, which makes it now stand at 4½ per cent. The Bank gained £37,000 in bullion last week.

The weekly statement of the Clearing-House banks on Saturday was unfavorable, and the loss of $2,384,400 in specie reflects the outflow to Europe. The statement shows that the total liabilities have been increased $1,279,200, and the total reserve has decreased $1,841,800, making a loss of $2,161,600 in the net reserve as compared to that of last week.

The following are the statements for the past two weeks:

	July 12.	July 19.	Differences.
Loans	$288,174,500	$289,878,100	Inc. $1,703,600
Specie	34,658,000	32,263,600	Dec. 2,384,400
Circulation	27,291,800	27,281,500	Dec. 10,300
Deposits	238,916,900	240,206,400	Inc. 1,289,500
Legal tenders	48,329,900	48,872,500	Inc. 542,600

The following table shows the relation between the total reserve and the total liabilities:

	July 12.	July 19.	Differences.
Specie	$34,658,000	$32,273,600	Dec. $2,384,400
Legal tenders	48,329,900	48,872,800	Inc. 542,600
Total reserve	$82,987,900	$81,146,100	Dec. $1,841,800
Circulation	27,291,800	27,281,500	Dec. 10,300
Deposits	238,916,900	240,206,400	Inc. 1,289,500
Total liabilities	$266,208,700	$267,487,900	Inc. 1,279,200
25 per cent. reserve	66,552,175	66,871,975	Inc. 319,800
Excess over legal reserve	16,435,728	14,274,125	Dec. 2,161,600

The stock market was active during most of the week, with a large share of the transactions confined to the "Vanderbilt stocks"—Central and Hudson, Lake Shore, and Western Union Telegraph. Pacific Mail, Erie, Union Pacific, and Milwaukee and St. Paul were also very active. In looking at the published list of prices given below, it will be seen that a general advance has taken place in nearly everything. The chief interest, however, centred in Erie, which advanced from 58⅝ to 65½ Saturday, in consequence of a "squeeze" in the cash stock. Certain foreign bankers had bought Erie in London, the price being relatively lower there than in this market, and had sold the stock here; meantime, they borrowed the cash stock to make their deliveries. This was all very well as long as the owners of the stock here were willing to loan it; but on Saturday they demanded its return, when it was discovered that there were no means of complying with the demand, and the aforesaid foreign bankers were obliged to go into the market and buy it, which put the price up very rapidly to 65½; meantime, as high as ¾ per cent. bonus was paid for the use of the stock till Monday, but even at this rate a sufficient amount could not be obtained. The London stock is on its way to this country, but its probable arrival is some days off, and in the interim nobody can say how badly the unfortunate Germans may be "squeezed." Delaware, Lackawanna, and Western is stronger, having rallied up to 102¼ early in the week from 99⅞, the price Monday. Michigan Central is a little stronger; the recent low quotations have tempted people to buy it, and the result has been that the price rallied up to 93½, at which it closed Saturday. Chicago, Burlington, and Quincy has also improved, and there are quite a number of orders in the market from investors. The stock is unquestionably low, and we can ascertain no reason why it should have declined below par.

The following shows the highest and lowest sales of the leading stocks at the Stock Exchange for the week ending July 19, 1873:

	Monday.	Tuesday.	Wed'day.	Thursday	Friday.	Saturday.	Sales.
N. Y. C. & H. R.	103½ 103⅝	103⅜ 103½	103½ 104⅝	104¼ 104½	104¼ 104⅜	103½ 104½	31,100
Lake Shore	91⅜ 92¼	92⅜ 92⅝	92½ 93½	93¼ 94¼	93¾ 94½	93⅜ 94	90,800
Erie	60 60½	60½ 61	59⅜ 60⅛	58⅜ 59¼	58 59¼	58⅜ 65½	114,700
Do. pfd	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Union Pacific	27⅜ 28⅛	28⅛ 28½	28 28⅜	27⅜ 28⅛	28⅛ 28⅜	28¼ 29	79,700
Chi. & N. W.	69⅝ 69⅞	69¾ 70½	69⅝ 70¼	69⅞ 71⅝	70⅜ 71½	70⅜ 70¾	43,800
Do. pfd	81½ 81½	81 8⅜	81⅜ 81⅜	82 83	82¼ 84	83¼ 83¾	1,800
N. J. Central	103½ 103½	103½ 103½	103¾ 103⅞	 104	 104	....	900
Rock Island	110¼ 110⅜	110½ 110⅞	110⅜ 111⅛	110¾ 111¼	111 111½	111⅜ 111⅜	20 100
Mil. & St. Paul	52¼ 52⅝	52⅜ 53¼	53⅜ 53⅜	53 53⅜	53¼ 53½	53⅜ 53⅜	79,700
Do. pfd	72⅝ 73½	74 74	74 74¼	74 74¼	74⅜ 74⅝	74⅜ 74¾	10,000
Wabash	69¼ 70¼	70¼ 71⅛	70⅝ 71¼	70⅜ 71⅛	71⅛ 71⅜	71⅛ 72⅜	25 900
D. L. & Western	99⅞ 101½	101¼ 102¼	101⅜ 102¼	100⅜ 101½	101⅜ 101½	....	10,700
B. H. & Erie	2⅜ 2⅜	2⅜ 2⅜	2⅜ 2⅜	2⅜ 2⅜	2⅜ 2⅜	2⅜ 2⅜	2 300
O. & M.	39½ 40	40 40½	40½ 40⅜	40¼ 40⅜	40¼ 41¼	40⅜ 41⅛	48 5 0
C. C. & I. C.	30½ 31⅜	31⅜ 32½	32½ 32⅜	32 32⅜	32½ 33	32½ 33½	31,100
W. U. Tel.	86½ 86⅜	86½ 87⅛	87⅜ 89¼	89¼ 91¼	89⅜ 90¼	88⅞ 90¼	156 700
Pacific Mail	37½ 38⅝	38⅛ 39⅜	37⅛ 38⅜	38⅛ 39½	37⅝ 38⅝	37⅝ 38⅝	80,700

The German Government has purchased $2,000,000 more United States new 5 per cent. bonds. This is in addition to the previous purchase of $10,000,000 reported. The market here for Government bonds has been very dull, and rendered so by their scarcity. The investment demand has been good, and has led to a larger business than usual in the registered issues.

The interest on certain Georgia State bonds issued under Gov. Bullock's administration, which were recently in default, is now being paid by the Fourth National Bank of this city. Business in State bonds at the Board has been dull, chiefly confined to Tennessees and Virginias, with market firm on Missouris and Virginias.

The gold market has been tolerably active. The "bulls" have the heavy recent exports of specie to help them in advancing the price, while the "bears" count upon the influence of the Treasury in trying to keep the price down as a sufficient reason for lower gold. The price has ranged between 115¾ and 116⅛. The total shipments of specie during the week amounted to $3,944,533, of which $2,938,121 was in American gold coin.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 31, 1873.

The Week.

THE "Liberal Republicans" are again hard at work in Ohio, and we have before us a circular of the State Committee, dated July 17, and signed by General Brinkerhoff, the chairman, calling on all "workers" of the party to present themselves in Columbus on the 30th inst., to join the Democrats in a mass convention, which is to take into consideration the fact "that corruption in appalling proportions pervades all the political avenues of the country." This is, no doubt, a very dreadful fact, but we question whether a consultation of Democrats and "Liberal Republicans" will do anything to better it. Corruption cannot be cured by reformers without principle, and the class of reformers who figure just now as Liberal Republicans belong, in our opinion, to that category. General Brinkerhoff, in particular, is one of the high-minded sages and free-traders who got up the Cincinnati Convention, and then fell to bellowing for the election to the Presidency of the greatest protectionist in the world, and one of the most active political "engineers" in the country. Anybody who, after this, pays any attention to General Brinkerhoff's "calls" must, it seems to us, be either a very simple person or a person greatly pressed for some occupation. Nobody who goes into a convention with politicians of this stamp can tell how it will end. They may open with prayer, and conclude, like the witches of old times, by worshipping Satan in the guise of a black goat. If we might offer advice to General Brinkerhoff, and General Cochrane, and the other managers who ran the unfortunate Mr. Greeley for the Presidency, it would be to retire for a year or two into strictly private life. They did enormous mischief last summer, the effects of which are still apparent; and there is, therefore, still something ludicrous in their anxiety about the "appalling proportions" of corruption, and the condition of our "political avenues."

The Chicago *Tribune* replies to the charge of immorality, or, to speak plainly, of fraud, which we brought against its new plan of ascertaining what are "reasonable rates of transportation," by quoting from a lawyer's brief a number of familiar legal propositions showing that corporations are the creatures of the state, and that if they do anything that the charter does not authorize, the state may eat them up. To which we reply that, in the first place, we do not believe that one railroad corporation in fifty has violated the law in its issues of stock; and that, moreover, from the moral point of view the position of "the people" would be no better if they had all violated it. In fact, if the law be against the corporations, the position of "the people" more closely resembles Ben Butler's in 1870 than we thought it did. Ben said, and Senator Morton said, that the United States were not legally bound by the declarations made in the House of Representatives, and by the Secretary of the Treasury, when the bonds were issued, to pay them in coin, and that they might be paid in paper all the same; which was quite true. But all concerned in paying them in paper would none the less have been knaves, because they had all stood by silent while the bonds were being sold, thus acquiescing in the construction put at the time of the loan on the terms of the contract. So also "the people" have stood by these thirty years while the railroads were issuing "fictitious stock," and while the holders were selling it in open market, without uttering one word of protest or warning against the illegality of the transaction, without ever mentioning Marshall or Story or any other great light of jurisprudence. Therefore to come forward now, after this stock has passed into the hands of innocent holders, and declare that it must be confiscated, in order to enable Western farmers to get their crops to market more cheaply, and thus relieve them from the consequences of their own neglect or indiscretion is—well, we hardly know what to call it. It strikingly resembles that mode of raising money known as the "panel game." We advise both "the people" and the *Tribune* to begin the study of the question, not by examining lawyers' briefs, but by reading their Bible, or some plain, sensible book on morals—say Paley.

There is not much news of importance with regard to the farmers. Ever since the election of Judge Craig they have been making strenuous efforts to show that the election is not to be taken as indicating any desire to strike at the independence of the judiciary. One method of proving this is by asserting that Judge Lawrence, the opposing candidate, defeated his own re-election by writing a letter criticising in a contemptuous manner the people's convention. A correspondent of the *Tribune* writes that, on reading this letter, the people went against Judge Lawrence to a man without regard to party. Another method of proof is by asking for the production of the pledges which Judge Craig has given. It is not common, however, for candidates for judgeships to sign written contracts in blood, selling their souls to the party which elects them at so much per term, and it ought to be remembered, too, that Judge Craig is said by some persons to be pledged to the railroads. Pledges of this sort are usually involved in the acceptance of the nomination. The activity among the politicians meantime is said to be agonizing. They are preparing themselves to go before the people in advocacy of farmers' rights in all sorts of ways. One prominent politician, General Samuel F. Cary, is said, by his enemies, to be practising sleeping on a hay-mow; another is vigorously at work with a reaping-machine; and a third, Mr. Ignatius Donnelly, is said to be tramping up and down his State in homespun "hickory" trowsers and without stockings. The political changes now going on will evidently in time give us a little of that picturesqueness the absence of which from American society we have all of us so often deplored.

The Boston meeting of the opponents of General Butler will at least call the attention of the respectable citizens of Massachusetts to the danger in which they now are, and to do that well would perhaps be an assurance of one more failure and break-down for Butler. Judge Hoar, in the course of his speech, related an incident which perfectly sets forth Butler in one of his many odorous characters, that of a criminal lawyer of a certain kind. It seems that a fortnight ago an informal meeting was held at Judge Hoar's office, for the purpose of considering how Butler was to be prevented from making prize of the primary caucuses. It was a secret conference, no reporters were present, and yet in the afternoon the *Traveller* contained what professed to be a true account of the meeting. It was observed at the time, said Judge Hoar, that while the conference was in progress three persons were observed coming from "the office of a person who has attempted to become the Governor of this State," and afterwards returning to the same room, one of them in the meantime, under pretext of finding a man with whom he had business, opening the door and looking in to see who were present. Judge Hoar's christening of Butler as "the Tichborne Claimant" will not, after this tale, seem too far out of order. But, indeed, fraud and eavesdropping are no new accomplishments of his. The conference of last Friday appointed a sort of rallying committee "to preserve the integrity of the Republican party," integrity probably being used in a double sense; and also a committee to prepare an address to the people. About half the members of the State Central Committee are understood to have fallen a prey to Butler; hence the need of these outside labors; for their success a vast majority of the people of this country, inside Massachusetts and outside, may rightly pray.

Before the committee have prepared their address we have one from a prohibitionist of the better sort, which will very well supplement the other document. It is the work of a clergyman of Mendon, the same man who, on the 4th of July, received from Butler the impudent and imprudent evasive answer to the question whether he was in favor of a prohibitory law. It is worth noting that in this contest with Butler, as in that of two years ago, it is a clergyman who does some of the most useful writing against him, Rev. Mr. Twining, of Cambridge, having hit him as hard before as Mr. Clark now. These are some of the objections which Mr. Clark urges, and doubtless to the true prohibitionist they will seem quite as forcible as to others: First and in general, we have the one objection to the new candidacy which the new candidate probably finds the most utterly unintelligible of all. On this occasion it takes the form "God is not dead;" He still is a lover of righteousness and decency, and it is well to remember that fact in political as in other actions. After this follow the specific points: In the first place, the Governor alone cannot enforce the liquor law, and Massachusetts neither wants nor needs the one-man military power. To execute the law properly, there must be the co-operative effort with an honest executive of the judges, municipal officers of all grades, prosecuting officers and jurors, and this, although Mr. Clark does not say so, it will be a long day before we anywhere see. In the courts themselves, he says, the law finds very great obstacles, and in the perfidy of officials. And were this otherwise, how can a single hundred constables, scattered among a million four hundred thousand people, and in the face of local opposition in many places, enforce a law so difficult of enforcement as the prohibitory law? Governor Washburn has gone further to make the law effective than any other governor; he came out in favor of it in his first inaugural address, a thing which any one who likes may try to imagine the "man of pluck" doing. Mr. Clark cannot. And had Mr. Washburn's suggestion been heeded, and apothecaries put on the same footing with other dealers in spirits, many places of sale now open would have been closed; but the Chairman of the Liquor Committee in the House got on stilts, and nothing came of the Governor's suggestion. Finally, Governor Washburn is a sober man, while Butler, the prohibitionist candidate *in posse*, drinks liquors himself, invites others to do the same, and, by purchasing them, tempts dealers to violate a statute which he will not say whether he favors or not. This is the nineteenth century after the beginning of the Christian era, and yet it is necessary, and in Massachusetts, to write letters and appoint rallying committees against a gentleman of this kidney.

The opinion of Judge Blatchford in the case of Carl Vogt, deciding that he must be surrendered to Prussia to be tried for the crimes of murder, arson, and robbery, committed in Belgium, has been overruled by the Attorney-General. Vogt is a Prussian, but the crimes with the commission of which he is charged were committed in Belgium. The United States has no extradition treaty with Belgium, but it has with Prussia a treaty made in 1852, which covers certain crimes (including those with which Vogt is charged) "committed within the jurisdiction of either party." The German Government set up the theory in the Vogt case, that though the crimes were committed in Belgium, nevertheless Prussia—inasmuch as it has a sort of constructive personal jurisdiction over its citizens wherever they may be, and is accustomed for this reason to try them for offences committed even on foreign soil, when the criminals can be caught—was entitled to his extradition, on the ground that the crimes were committed "within the jurisdiction" of Prussia, according to the terms of the treaty. Judge Blatchford, on this ground, held that Vogt must be surrendered; but the Attorney-General decides the other way, saying that no one ever before heard of such a construction of the term "within the jurisdiction," that the practical result of such a construction would be that the jurisdiction of Prussia is coterminous with that of the entire earth, and that the jurisdiction of a country is really coextensive with the territorial area which it practically controls. The decision seems perfectly sound, though it will naturally puzzle the German Government to know why such a case, finally to be decided by the Attorney-General, first went through Judge Blatchford's court.

The Crispins have had a convention in Boston, at which a rather dismal account was given of the condition of the organization. At Lynn, its cradle and headquarters, there were two years ago 2,500 names on the roll; now there are only 1,500. There were not enough delegates at the convention to form a quorum. Worse than all, the officers have largely embezzled the funds, and the body has been torn by internal dissensions. Indeed, it is on its last legs. The causes of the decline assigned by the delegates are, as usual, the abuse of power. The organization attempted interference with individual liberty—a thing which human nature in that latitude would not tolerate; in other words, it became unbearably tyrannical. The only large trades-union which has maintained itself successfully for years is the Amalgamated Engineers in England, and it owes its success to the extraordinary care with which it has abstained from over-interference. There is no doubt that such organizations might, if properly conducted, do great good, but either the resources open to the working-man in America are too numerous to allow of the necessary cohesiveness, or the supply of administrative talent among the working-men is not sufficiently great. The Crispins certainly revealed little or none.

We were wrong, it seems, in treating as of little importance the Lord Gordon affair. Though it is true that there is no great likelihood of the matter's furnishing a *casus belli* between England and this country, it is still of deep interest from its bearing on international law and the development it has given to the "right of hot pursuit." Most writers who have treated this subject have assumed that the right in question was like the right of "stoppage *in transitu*," a right which, when once exercised, was completely at an end. But it seems, from the latest news from Manitoba, that this is not the correct view. Mr. Bradley, the Custom-House officer who was not only present at the capture of the American kidnappers, but aided in arresting them, has made a positive statement to a correspondent of the Minneapolis *Tribune*, to the effect that this recapture was made about 110 yards south of the 49th parallel, the boundary line, on American soil. It would seem from this that the hot pursuit is a reciprocal and "transitory" right, and that on the passage of the pursuing party over the border, the right vests in the party pursued, the duty of being retaken now imposing itself on the original pursuers. This seems at any rate to be the opinion of Judge McKenzie, of the local Court of Queen's Bench; he has just sent four of the American party to a British dungeon, and admitted one, about whose guilt he says he has some doubt, to bail.

That part of Baltimore which was destroyed by fire last Thursday was chiefly occupied by small stores and factories and "common-class" houses. The fire broke out in the engine-room of a four-story brick steam planing-mill. As usual, the building was enveloped in flames before the steamers arrived, and there being a stiff breeze from the southwest, and the roofs of many of the houses being shingled, the fire had plenty of draught and plenty of fuel. By great exertion it was put out, with a loss of from half a million to a million. Owing to the sensational despatches sent over the telegraph wires, people in New York supposed for some time that Baltimore was likely to be entirely destroyed; but fortunately the news came in the afternoon, and afternoon despatches have not in all cases that weight with the public which is the reward of the virtues of accuracy and good judgment. It is unnecessary to say that carelessness in building was the primary cause of this as of all the other recent large fires.

The position of referee in a boat race bids fair to become an extremely warm one. The latest charge that we have seen brought against Mr. J. C. Babcock, who acted in that capacity at Springfield, is that had the race "been finished at high noon, he was in no condition to be referred to for a decision on any point." As this implies drunkenness on duty, and might incite to a libel suit, it has since been

retracted, but the retraction is of a kind well known to journalists, and in it some of the other accusations are revived. They are very numerous, for after the general bungling of the Regatta Committee —youths of small knowledge of boating and little judgment—of the Springfield Club, and of others in authority, it is so difficult to apportion the blame to individuals that the one person visible and prominent is made the scapegoat. And we may remark that a scapegoat is likely to have a heavy load laid on him when in his ignorance of the feuds and heart-burnings that devastate our profession of journalism, he is innocent enough to give so important a letter as Mr. Babcock's of Saturday, not to the Associated Press, as it would have been shrewd to do, but to one alone of our contemporaries. Mr. Babcock appears not to have known that for one little moment a letter from him was of more importance to the newspaper man than many columns about the Shah, and it was naturally exasperating to the rest of us to find his letter in the *Herald* alone, and not everywhere else. But in the interests of justice, several things in regard to a referee's duty and the history of this muddle should be borne in mind. Some of these are, that Mr. Babcock could hardly have been hostile to Yale, he having been Yale's choice for umpire and her nominee; that the Yale men consulted the common interest in nominating Mr. Babcock, he being President of the Harlem Rowing Association, a committee-man on rules in the National Association, an experienced oar, and having already been referee in college regattas and in the race between the Atalantas and Harvards. Another is, that it is no part of a referee's duty to provide a steam craft fast enough to carry him over the course close behind the crews, where he ought to be. Nor to provide a piece of ordnance. Nor to row about to eleven boat-houses, as Mr. Babcock had to do, and tell the crews it was time to go to the score. These things are somebody's duty, but not the referee's. Two other things are, that he is not, *ex-officio*, the custodian of the flags, and that, as a matter of fact, he was not in this case the custodian of them, although they were aboard his boat in the charge of a member of the Regatta Committee. Another is, that never in the history of the world till now was any finish-line of a race stretched otherwise than at right angles with the line of the course. Let a race be rowed along a letter S three miles long, or up and down a letter U, and still the finish-line would instinctively be placed at a right angle with the bank of a course so shaped. But the management of the race throughout was entirely bungled, and we now learn that, so conflicting is the evidence of the judges, it will not be possible to place any of the boats that have not yet been placed.

The news from England does not seem favorable to the hopes of those who are mainly interested in the contract between the Shah of Persia and Baron Reuter—that is, the Shah and the Baron themselves. The contract, which practically gives Reuter the right to collect the revenues of Persia for a long term of years, and to build railroads and canals and other internal improvements, seems rather startling to British capitalists, who are now asked to invest their money in the enterprise. Of course, Baron Reuter's plan is to get up a company, or a syndicate, or a combination, and begin floating all sorts of Persian scrip, but the capitalists' objection is the extreme remoteness of their remedy in case the contract is violated in any way. It all rests on the good faith of the Shah, a barbarous despot, about whose moral character little is known—for the chance of any European country's going to war for the sake of enforcing Reuter's contract is very remote. Mr. Whalley, one of the parliamentary friends of "the Claimant," is coming over to the United States to raise money for that gentleman; perhaps Baron Reuter will make a trip here for the purpose of floating Oriental loans on the New York market. The rivalry between a Tichborne syndicate and a syndicate engaged in placing on the market Persian 6's or Teheran and Bassorah air-line 7-30 convertible gold bonds, would probably be something unequalled in the annals of American finance.

Señor Salmeron, the President of the Spanish Republic, held a council of generals last week, in order to see what had better be done, and they advised him to call out "90,000 men of the reserves." This seems to give the finishing touch to the revolutionary puzzle, because the great want at present is not men, but discipline, and unless this can be supplied there is, in the first place, no likelihood that "the 90,000 men of the reserves" will obey the call; and, in the second place, no likelihood that, if they do, they will, when enrolled, be anything better than a band of mutinous and dangerous ruffians. The disorganization of the army, which is bringing not the Republic only but Spanish society to the verge of dissolution, began under the late King, when the Radical Ministry insisted on putting a man of low character, who had once headed a revolt, in a high command, in spite of the protests of the King and the best officers. It was continued by the execution of Castelar's grand idea of abolishing the conscription, a reform which he ought to have confined to his magazine articles until he got his republic established. The way things were going, and the condition of opinion on military matters in the Cortes, were well illustrated three weeks ago, when one Estavenez appeared in one of Pi y Margall's cabinets as Minister of War. He was incontinently denounced as an inferior officer of the line, who had deserted in Cuba. He calmly rose in his place and acknowledged, with the kind of bravado with which Butler has made us familiar in this country, that he had deserted, but that he had done so because he had no taste for the service, and thought it would be better without him. Far from resigning his place in the Cabinet, however, he held it until the next general change. With facts such as these before us, the demoralization of the private soldiers is not surprising.

The Germans appear to have been got into a scrape by one of their frigates seizing on one of the revolted Spanish gunboats. The insurgents now threaten to seize on all the German shipping in the harbor of Carthagena. Some efforts appear to be in progress to reduce some of the insurgent cities, but there is no force to restore order generally, and nothing but the actual presence of troops seems sufficient to maintain it anywhere. The Carlists continue apparently to gather strength. The *World* of this city, while acknowledging the dreadful condition of Spanish affairs, tries to excuse the leaders of the Revolution, by saying that they did not foresee the construction the peasantry and artisans would put on their preaching. But then they ought to have foreseen it. It is the business of politicians above all things to foresee, and to know the character of their audience before they begin preaching. Half the stuff which philosophical radicals talk to the people in Europe to-day would be harmless at a meeting of a scientific association, but delivered in the street, it fills the heads of ignorant men with the wildest and most dangerous delusions. The only good sign in Spanish politics is the report of a meeting of liberal emigrés at Biarritz, in France, presided over by Marshal Serrano, offering, through Admiral Topete, their support to Salmeron in his effort to restore order. This is the first indication that has come for a long time from any respectable quarter that there are Spaniards who think more of their country than of their own aggrandizement.

A German correspondent calls our attention to the fact that Prince Bismarck's resignation of the Prussian Ministry of Foreign Affairs is an event of no particular significance so long as he retains the Chancellorship of the Empire, inasmuch as Prussian "foreign affairs" are now simply the relations of Prussia with the other German States. As Chancellor of the Empire, on the other hand, he has charge of the foreign affairs of the Empire, or, in other words, is the real Foreign Minister of the Confederation. The same correspondent also informs us, in correction of a statement in our issue of July 17, that the refusal of the Catholic bishops to obey the law with regard to the ecclesiastical seminaries will entail simply the exclusion of the graduates of these seminaries from the exercise of sacerdotal functions, and not the closing of the seminaries by the police.

ANOTHER ASPECT OF THE FARMERS' MOVEMENT.

WE pointed out a fortnight ago the baselessness of the popular notion that the railroads were making enormous profits at the expense of the community. A very few railroads in the more densely peopled regions make fair dividends for a few years at a time; but no general legislation for the regulation of railroads can be based on the history or condition of a few. The railroads of the country taken together are an unprofitable enterprise, and do not pay the owners the ordinary rate of interest on the cost of constructing them. In other words, the community at large gets the work of transporting goods and passengers over the vast area occupied by population in the United States, done for it at a loss by a small body of venturesome individuals. This loss on the part of the owners is doubtless not wholly due to the lowness of the charges or the scarcity of traffic. It is in part the result of want of economy in management, as is shown by the number of poor, non-paying roads which become paying when they pass into the hands of able and skilful men. But even with the best management obtainable, there are only a very few roads in the country which would yield the ordinary average rate of profit which is yielded by capital in other kinds of business. It is evident, then, that any attempt to cut down rates by law, or, what is the same thing, seriously impede the conduct of the enterprise in the manner the owners think most conducive to their interest, must lead to the abandonment of the roads, or, in other words, their virtual confiscation. If the state worked them so as to make them pay interest on their cost, there would be the same complaints as to the charges which there are now, and others of a more serious kind as to other things. If it did not work them so as to make them pay such interest, they would become a charge on the whole body of taxpayers, which might or might not be a desirable consummation, but is certainly not one for which the public is yet prepared. We believe, on the other hand, that if there be anything of which the country is thoroughly sick, it is of legislative or general governmental interference with the making and working of railroads. It has proved thus far, and even on the small scale on which it has been tried, a fountain of corruption.

We have more than once pointed out what we conceive to be the real abuses of railroad management. If we are now asked whether we mean to say that there is nothing in the Western farmers' complaint that a third of their crop is consumed in getting it to market, we answer that there is something in it, but apparently not what they imagine. If we are asked, farther, whether it is not a horrible thing that corn should be used as fuel in Iowa when so many millions of people all over the world are short of food, we reply also that we do not see anything particularly horrible about it. Distance is one of the facts of nature to be accepted and dealt with like other facts of nature—rationally. If a man chooses to go out into the wilderness without roads, wagons, or any other means of reaching a market, and plant ten times as much corn as he and his family can consume, and then, in the fall, begins to wail and lament because he cannot find a purchaser for it, nobody pays any attention to him, or people content themselves with telling him that he ought to have bethought himself of the market before he built his house or put in his crop. If he begins to weep and ask whether he must use it for fuel, they tell him unhesitatingly that it is his duty and privilege to do so, if he cannot turn it to any better account ; that he is no more bound to trouble himself about the starving poor in England, and India, and China, than about the houseless poor in New York, when he is surrounded by leagues of trees. If he were still to refuse to be comforted, and were to maintain that large numbers of industrious people in the East and in England ought to club their savings and cut a wagon-road to his house, load up his corn, and cart it off as far East as may be necessary to secure him a fair price for it, we should simply laugh and walk off.

And yet the foregoing would be, with a few trifling changes, a fair statement of the case of the Western farmers against the railroads in the matter of charges. At the bottom of the grievance lies the great fact that agriculture at the West has been overdone, just as, before the gold discoveries, sheep-farming was overdone in Australia. The invention of railroads, and the encouragement given to their construction since 1836, have enabled large bodies of settlers to push out into the wilderness, where they form one of the sparsest populations in the world, on one of the richest soils. The application of machinery to the cultivation of the soil has, however, released them from the restraints in their operations which the scarcity of labor would otherwise have imposed. The consequence has been that they have gone into corn and cattle raising in the most reckless way, and apparently on the theory that, as all mankind need bread and meat, there could not be in any place a redundancy of food. They got on pretty well under the low tariff and taxation of the period before the war. They got on even better during the rising markets, the inflation of the currency, and the prodigious waste of food and clothing wrought by the war, and during the last ten years the pouring of population into agricultural pursuits in the West has been greater than ever, while the markets are farther off than they were in 1860. The result is that they at last begin to find the situation unendurable. They have more corn and bacon and wheat than they can dispose of, and looking about to see what is the matter, they find that if they could get these commodities to New York or Liverpool without paying for transportation, they could sell them at a profit; so they insist that somebody shall do this work of transportation for them, cost what it may. Of course they are ready to impose the job on the railroads, as the railroads are in their power. The Australian wool-growers would have made ship-owners take their wool to Liverpool for next to nothing if they had had similar control over them. The desire in both cases is the old one—to make other people somehow protect you against the consequences of your own mistakes. It does not present itself to the farmer's mind in this shape, we admit, and it is disguised from him somewhat by the fact that the railroads are the only great highways he has, and his reasoning is naturally influenced by the common-law doctrines and traditions about public roads. He forgets that the state supplied nothing of the old highways but the track; that each individual who used it provided his own rolling-stock and kept it in repair, acted as his own superintendent, brakeman, conductor, and driver, and bore all the loss of collisions, floods, and fires. That may have been a better state of things than the present one, but we cannot go back to it.

We have said that the markets have been during the last ten years farther from the Western farmer than ever. This is literally true, though we see as yet but little or no adequate recognition of the fact in the agitation now going on. While the agriculturists have been pushing out further and further into the West, the high-tariff men have been pushing New York and Liverpool—or, in other words, the places where he must sell his grain—further and further into the East. Distance, it must be remembered, is, from the commercial stand-point, not a question of time, but of money. The only reason why a man objects to having his goods a long while on their way to the market is that he loses interest on their value while they are in transit, and he has to pay more for their carriage. Therefore, any addition to the cost of carriage is the equivalent of an addition to the distance. If it costs a dollar to send a bushel of corn from Chicago to New York, and the price be raised to two dollars, it is the same thing commercially as if the distance were increased from 900 miles to 1,800.

Now, this is exactly what the tariff legislation of the last ten years has been doing. The enormous increase it has wrought in the cost of the machinery of transportation has, *pro tanto*, added to the distance which separates the consuming East from the producing West, or, in other words, has pushed the farmer farther out into the wilderness. The same result has been accomplished in a slightly different way by the obstacles offered to the sale of foreign goods to the farmer. The more difficult it is made for the foreigner to sell his products here, of course the more difficult it is for him to buy ours, which is the equivalent of putting him farther away. Every ten per cent. added to our tariff puts the Englishman and Frenchman

who longs for our beef and wheat so many miles farther off from them. He has to buy with what he makes, and the harder it is for him to get to us with what he makes, the less he can afford to purchase when he reaches us, or, in other words, the farther he has to travel, less money he has at the end of his journey.

There is another important element in this transportation problem to which we have more than once made allusion in discussing the conditions of agricultural life in the United States. The early frontiersmen of the ante-railroad period were, like the European peasantry, a hardy, simple-minded, rough breed of men, with very rude tastes and very few wants. When they went out into the wilderness they did it well knowing that they left civilization behind, and neither desiring nor expecting a market for their products. They dressed in leather or homespun, and ate what they raised or killed. If they had more corn than they needed, they burnt it or threw it away without qualms or regrets, or considering what it would bring in New York. They were, too, tolerably ignorant of book-learning, and cared nothing about music, except that of the dancing-fiddle. Their lives, if coarse and laborious and full of hardships, were, on the whole, tolerably contented. They swore, and drank, and fought, but they were not troubled with problems of political economy. Our modern frontiersman, who clings to the railroads out along the prairies, is a very different person. He insists on being followed up by all the modern conveniences. Not only must he have a church and school, but he must have the newspapers and magazines, and his wife and daughters must have a piano and silk dresses, and the new novels, and their minds, instead of being intent on the homely joys of the forest and the prairie, are vexed by the social and religious discussions of the far East. They want to hear Froude lecture, wonder what Plymouth Church is going to do with Bowen, would like a chance of listening to Lucca, are eager to try the newest thing in stoves, and wonder what the Emperor of Austria will think of the Illinois school-house at the Vienna Exhibition. Now, no railroad that pays interest on its cost will ever satisfy a population of this sort by its rates, as long as this population is dependent on agricultural products, raised two thousand miles from the Atlantic seaboard, for the gratification of its multifarious and growing wants. Either the West must go back to simpler ways, or it must bring itself into closer relations with the densely peopled countries of the East, by removing artificial obstacles. In short, we must elect whether our tariff legislation shall encourage agriculture or manufactures, or let both alone. If we decide for manufactures as at present, why, farmers must grin and bear it.

PAID AND UNPAID LEGISLATORS.

THE speech of Senator Carpenter to the people of Wisconsin in defence of his course in the salary business certainly abounds in candor, and in the matter of Washington expenses and the general niggardliness of United States salaries, contains some very healthy facts for the consideration of a Western or rather of a country audience. It must have been an almost incredible statement to the rural population of the West and to the well-to-do mechanics of Western towns that the leading lawyer of Wisconsin does not own the house he lives in, neither in Washington nor in Milwaukee; that he owns nothing in the world except a library of 15,000 volumes and an insurance policy upon his life of $50,000. It must also astonish them to be told by a politician, not that all public men should live with the economy and simplicity of "hard-fisted" farmers, and that the salaries now paid are much greater than the incomes of the agricultural constituencies, but that as much as $6,500 is actually expended by their Senator for house-rent, office-rent, and insurance; or, as Mr. Carpenter rather cleverly puts it:

"These items give $6,550 of indispensable expense. There is not a meal of victuals in that sum, no clothing for my family, not a shirt for myself, no school-books for my babies, no carriage hire, no doctor's bills, no contributions for the preaching of the Gospel, no charities to the poor, no contribution to pay the expenses of Wisconsin office-seekers who have failed in their application and have to be sent home at the expense of the delegation."

From such personal considerations as these, the Senator proceeds to argue that the American system of government forbids the gratuitous services of legislators, "senators and representatives shall receive a compensation for their services" being the language of the Constitution; and that the earlier Congresses which fixed the amount of their own pay, or provided for its increase without the disapproval of the country, did just what the last Congress did, neither more nor less. While this speech contains much that is true so far as relates to the expenses of city life and of public men, and the general inadequacy of salaries, the deductions which Mr. Carpenter draws from his premises are utterly false. And as this ingenious and plausible speech has been industriously reprinted and widely circulated, and cannot but produce some effect, we will here point out the fallacy of its conclusion.

There are three distinctions between the last increase of the Congressional pay and those of which the country has not disapproved, and it is these differences which stamp the last as wrong, and cross the public sense of what is proper and right. First, the former Congresses provided for the pay of officers of the Government before they touched their own, and they then fixed or increased their pay in due proportion to what they allowed other official persons. This Congress shamefully neglected the executive and judicial departments, dishonestly selecting a few officers from each as scapegoats for their own delinquency, and pushing their own rate of compensation out of all proportion. As we have before shown, the pay of the Congressmen at first was designed to be only about one-fourth of the salary of the Chief-Justice of the United States; but at the ratio of advancement which has prevailed during the last eight years, the next increase will carry the pay of three hundred members higher than that of the nine judges of the Supreme Court. In the second place, the former increases of salary were not wholly and absolutely retroactive. To a certain extent they were retroactive, as they necessarily were passed during the session, and not at the beginning. To a certain extent they were wrong; for no increase should be in the slightest degree retroactive, and no Congress should increase its own compensation. Hereafter, let us hope, public sentiment will require an increase to be absolutely prospective—so prospective that a Congressional election shall intervene before the change shall take effect. Undoubtedly, many who vote for such a prospective increase will be the gainers from it, either as Senators whose terms extend over, or as re-elected members; but the power of men to vote themselves unlimited sums, which no legal remedy can recover, and no constitutional power can check, will be practically brought under public control. It was the unconscionable exercise of this unlimited power by the last Congress, at a time when the services of the members had ended, and when the Presidential and Congressional elections were over, that not only incensed, but also alarmed the public mind. In the third place (and this is the worst part of the "salary-grab"), the former increases of salary—that is, those which were not censured by the country—were fairly brought before Congress by a bill for that purpose, standing on their own merits so far as they had merits, and leaving members free to vote against them, and allowing other members no evasion of responsibility if they voted for them. The "salary-grab," on the contrary, was an extraordinary tissue of legislative trickery, designed to coerce one man, bribe another, and give loopholes of escape to all. It was fastened, in the last days of the session, to an important appropriation bill; whereby such men as General Garfield, who had expended months of labor on the bill, were coerced into the mistake of voting for it, rather than see the product of their winter's work destroyed. The proposition was improperly coupled with an increase of a few other salaries, having nothing to do with that of Congress, the intention being not a general comprehensive increase of all salaries, including the legislative, but an increase of all legislative salaries, say three hundred in number, with a shallow pretence of fairness in adding less than a dozen from the executive and judicial departments. The constitutional right of the country to the veto of the executive was tampered with by offering the President a bribe in the bill of $100,000

The time at which these nefarious legislative practices were suddenly sprung upon the country—after the deliberative work of the session was over and when the life of that Congress was expiring, and a re-elected President about to begin his last term—completed the extraordinary combination and coincidences of what was reprehensible and inexcusable in this piece of legislative work.

But a question of much more general importance is suggested by this speech. Should legislators be paid? and if so, should their compensation equal that of the higher executive and judicial officers of the Government? Mr. Carpenter cites the attempt that was made in the convention to have the Senate an unpaid body, representing the wealth of the country, and the fact that the present millionaires of the Senate all voted against an increase of pay. According to Mr. Carpenter, these gentlemen would now prefer to do away with all pay, so as to secure for colleagues men of wealth and respectability. But an unpaid legislature, Mr. Carpenter thinks, would be absolutely antagonistic to the principle of the Constitution, which designed the American Government to be a poor man's government, and to that end provided means for having the poor man take part in both making and administering law. As an illustration, this is most unfortunate. Congress, instead of being a poor man's legislature, is the legislature of "large interests" and of "great corporations." While the unpaid members of Parliament were forcing the English railways to run cheap trains for poor men, which the popular gratitude has termed "Parliamentary trains," Congress has been giving away the public lands to railway corporations. While the rich men of the House of Commons were keeping Hampstead Heath open for the poor of London against the encroachments of a rich nobleman, Congress was presenting Mr. Thomas Scott with $300,000 worth of property in one of the parks of Washington. During the past year the Supreme Court has affirmed the validity of what are known as the Twenty Per Cent. cases, in which something like twenty-one hundred laboring men were interested. Yet Congress, while the test-cases were pending, took away from the Treasury the power to audit and pay them after a decision should be reached, and it has actually compelled each of these twenty-one hundred laboring men to bring his individual suit in the Court of Claims to recover on an average about $125, where the Attorney-General was compelled to admit that the Government had no defence—and this at the very time that Mr. Carpenter and his associates were voting themselves a gratuity of $5,000 apiece, and raising their prospective compensation fifty per cent. per annum. With such facts before the country, it is both untruthful and foolish for Mr. Carpenter to set up his paid legislature as the representative body of poor men. The experience of mankind shows pretty conclusively that when a poor man has brains or energy enough to push his way into a legislative body, he is much more apt to be intent on getting rich himself, than on looking after the interests of his fellows in poverty. The welfare of the poor depends, as it always has depended, upon the cultivated intelligence and conscientious sympathy of the legislator, and these qualities, all the world over, are least found in men who are engaged in the struggle of getting their heads higher than their neighbors'.

The truth is that, in the first days of the Republic, the compensation of members was simply an absolute necessity. Undoubtedly there were then rich men in the country, but not in such numbers nor so distributed as to secure a gratuitous representation. Washington was so embarrassed in his circumstances that he was compelled to ask the Treasury to advance him a quarter's salary. Jefferson and Madison were likewise so involved that it was with difficulty that they could be induced to remain in public life. Hamilton and a dozen others had their fortunes still to win, or rather still had to work for independence in life. The seat of Government was undetermined, and there was no metropolitan city to attract like London or Paris. To ask men to travel from Georgia or New Hampshire, or the backwoods of Kentucky, on horseback, or in coaches, or by sailing vessels, and spend a year in gratuitous labor for the country, while their estates were lying idle, and their families embarrassed by the general destitution, was to ask an impossibility. Men were quite as patriotic as the present millionaires of the Senate, and quite as desirous of securing respectable, intelligent gentlemen for associates, but they knew perfectly well that the burden was greater than could be borne, and therefore it was that, without any thought of securing the services of those poor men who are best known to us in these times as professional politicians, they provided a compensation for members of Congress.

The peculiarity of the legislative service is that it does not assign to a man a daily routine of hard work, and does not (except in the cases of a few of the leaders) require of him the sacrifice of his entire time. Hence, if he is in tolerably independent circumstances, he can serve in a legislative body gratuitously or for the sake of gaining some distinction. In every moral community there are also a fair proportion of men who are willing to give a good portion of their time to the public for the mere reward of accomplishing some good. Such men we see in our school boards and public charities working zealously, accomplishing much, receiving nothing. The finest talents in America have always been ready to give to the country all it would take of unpaid, well-performed service. But the policy has been to pay for ignorance and blatherskite. Our wide extent of territory, the great distance to be travelled over to the national capital, the unequal dissemination of wealth, unquestionably still operate to require Congressional compensation. But it is still a question whether we should pay our legislators at the same rate that we pay men who have official drudgery and direct personal responsibility, a daily task to be performed without power of adjournment and with but little in the way of distinction or promotion, and who are obliged to sink their own business in the business of the Government. Mr. Carpenter unconsciously furnishes a demonstration against himself when he shows us that while he was receiving $5,000 a year as a Senator he was also making $10,000 a year as counsel in the Supreme Court. The Judges of the United States, on the other hand, are expressly prohibited by law from practising in any court; and the executive officers of the Government are practically cut off from the advantages of private business; it is only members of Congress, who at best give their divided time to the country, and who, in many instances (like that of Mr. John Morrissey), can do nothing whatever for their pay, who are able without fear of dismissal, or even official censure, to make money by doing outside business. The great number of our legislators forbids, from the economic point of view, the payment of an excessive salary, though the causes which we have indicated require a reasonable allowance toward a member's expenses. But experience proves that with every increase of pay there is a diminution in the quality of our representatives, and that remunerative legislative salaries are breeding a class of professionals whose trade is politics, and whose only livelihood is what they can make out of their seat. The nearer we have approached to gratuitous service, the more pure and honorable that service has been; and while poor men may have been debarred from taking to Congress for a living, an intelligent and upright legislature has secured the greatest good of the greatest number.

RECENT EXPERIENCE OF HARVARD COLLEGE IN ELECTIVE STUDIES.

THERE was a vague but very general impression a few years ago that if the elective system were introduced into the older American colleges, the practical sciences, as they are called, especially physics, chemistry, and natural history, would crowd out the study of the ancient languages. There was also a feeling that the obvious utility of the modern languages, and particularly of French and of German, would help to throw the "dead languages" into the background. A great many enthusiasts fancied that the *beatissimi sæculi ortus*, the good time a-coming, was at hand, when books would be thrown aside, and all intellectual activity would be narrowed down to the study of physical nature; and so much noise has been made about the natural sciences that a great many people undoubtedly think this is the principal if not the only subject taught where an elective system prevails. The Harvard University Catalogue for 1872-73 groups the elective

studies of the three upper classes under nine heads, and gives the number of students electing every individual study. This convenient arrangement enables us to ascertain the exact numbers in the nine departments enumerated in the catalogue; in other words, to ascertain what it is that the masses of students feel the need of most, and flock to most, when the choice is left entirely to themselves. We have taken pains to add the numbers together, and think the following summary, in which the order of the catalogue is followed, will be interesting.

To prevent misunderstanding, it may be well to say that the numbers do not represent *students*, but *elections*. A student may elect French, German, Spanish, and English, in which case he would count *four* in modern languages; or, if he chooses physics, chemistry, mathematics, and natural history, he will count *one* in each of those departments.

I. Ancient Languages,	541	VI. Mathematics,	114
II. Modern Languages,	436	VII. Physics (including Chemistry),	199
III. Philosophy,	79	VIII. Natural History,	154
IV. History,	193	IX. Music,	9
V. Political Science,	65		

The absolute number of elections in ancient languages (under which the catalogue includes 14 students of elements of Roman law, 13 students of Hebrew, and one of Sanskrit) is 541; exceeding the numbers in modern languages (under which the catalogue includes 3 in Anglo-Saxon, 10 in the history and grammar of the English language, and 30 in English composition and English literature) by 105; exceeding the number in physics (including chemistry) by 342; exceeding the number in natural history by 387; exceeding the combined numbers of physics and chemistry and natural history by 188.

The following table, in which the departments are arranged in the order of numbers, shows the percentage or relative number of students in each department, for every hundred students in ancient languages:

Ancient Languages,	100	Natural History,	28
Modern Languages,	80	Mathematics,	21
Physics and Chemistry,	37	Philosophy,	15
History,	35	Political Science,	12

The above percentages may be compared or grouped in different ways. Taking the fashionable division into "literary" and "scientific" courses, we may arrange them thus:

Ancient Languages,	100	Physics and Chemistry,	37
Modern Languages,	80	Natural History,	28
History,	35	Mathematics,	21
Philosophy,	15		
Political Science,	12		
	242		86

The above combination gives 242 : 86, or something short of 36 students in the "scientific" course to 100 in the "literary" course.

Perhaps some objection may be taken to the classification made above. The modern languages may be regarded from two points of view. In one sense they may be called "literary," in another, regarded merely as a means to an end; to aid the student in scientific or professional work, they may be called "practical." So, too, with mathematics; as a preparatory study it is practical, as a disciplinary study it may fairly be put with the classical, historical, and philosophical studies which make the ground-work of the old-fashioned college. If, therefore, we choose to make another division, perhaps equally fashionable, into "disciplinary" and "practical," we find by reversing the positions of modern languages and mathematics:

Ancient Languages,	100	Modern Languages,	80
History,	37	Physics and Chemistry,	37
Mathematics,	21	Natural History,	28
Philosophy,	15		
Political Science,	12		
	185		145

By this arrangement the disciplinary studies preponderate over the practical in the ratio of 185 : 145 or 100 : 78.

The figures show conclusively that, in spite of the crusade which has been carried on against the ancient languages, they still are full of vitality, still a power, still a popular study, and, in fact, the greatest interest in the little college world. As our enquiry is purely numerical and statistical, we do not ask why the students make the selections they do. Doubtless the reasons are not very obvious; still one fact is plain, that they are not guided wholly by utilitarian views.

Correspondence.

JUDGE CRAIG AND THE CHICAGO, BURLINGTON, AND QUINCY RAILROAD.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: In several of your articles concerning the war upon railroads in this State, especially those in which you consider the election of Mr. Alfred M. Craig to the Supreme Bench, I notice that you have fallen into the error of supposing that his election was due mainly to the support given him by the Chicago, Burlington, and Quincy R.R. Company. I write this wishing and hoping that I may correct this false impression which you have, and trusting that the articles which you hereafter publish upon this subject may be fairer and more likely to place this Company in a better position before the people of this and other States.

My connection with this Company has been such that I can truthfully assert that its officers in no word, act, or deed during the late canvass attempted to affect the election of any candidate for the Supreme Bench Indeed, the policy of this Company has always been not to mingle in politics at all.

As a reader of and subscriber to your paper, I think its arguments and conclusions on this "Farmers' Movement" generally sound.

Respectfully, L. O. Goddard.

Chicago, July 24, 1873.

[After looking carefully over our references to the Chicago, Burlington, and Quincy Railroad, we are unable to find that we ever said that the election of Judge Craig was "mainly" due to the efforts of that road. We have said, on the authority of statements in the Chicago *Tribune*—statements uncontradicted, so far as our observation goes—that Judge Craig had acted as attorney of this road, and that the road helped to secure his election. If these statements can be disproved, we shall certainly be very glad of it.—Ed. Nation.]

Notes.

Lieut. Steevens, U.S.A., commander of the expedition sent into the territory east of the Jordan by the American Palestine Exploring Society, reports progress in his own department of the expedition, which is remarkable, considering that this is the first season in which the party has been in that difficult field. A base line of five miles has been accurately measured, and four hundred square miles triangulated, and the details nearly filled in. The suspicions of the natives are very embarrassing, and it is difficult to keep cairns up long enough to take observations. Meanwhile, Professor Paine, who has charge of the department of archæology, has had the satisfaction of making some identifications of extreme importance. Mount Pisgah, from whose top Moses viewed the Promised Land, is satisfactorily identified for the first time, and Mount Nebo is for the first time accurately described. Tristram's descriptions were found to be exceedingly inaccurate, as is also Van de Velde's map of this part of Palestine. After spending some time in Medeba, from which Mr. Shapira professes to have obtained a large portion of his so-called Moabite inscriptions on pottery, they are inclined to discredit all of them.

—The fifth annual convention of the American Philological Association was this year held at Easton, Pa., and began on the 22d instant, the session lasting through that day and the two following. It was not a large gathering, nor were the proceedings of so much importance as in some previous years. It cannot be expected, in so vast a territory as ours, that every philologist should be able to attend every meeting, especially in a place like Easton, quite out of the centre of scholarly activity. Still there was a fair attendance, especially of the younger philologists, and the temper of the assembly was very good. It is beginning to be understood that the Association is organized for the advancement of genuine philological enquiry, and not for the display of shallow theories, nor, primarily, for educational ends. It was wisely decided, however, a year ago, to organize a special pedagogical section, which might hold separate meetings; the present year the amount of matter presented was so small that the pedagogical meeting took the place of the regular meeting on Wednesday evening. On Thursday evening, a reception was held by the citizens of Easton in the opera-house, and on Friday, the members of the Convention were invited to an excursion to Mauch Chunk and the "Switch-back." Of the regular proceedings of the Association, the most noticeable and valuable was on the afternoon of the first day, and consisted in some remarks by Mr. J. Hammond Trumbull, of Hartford, on presenting a vocabulary of a native dialect of the Isthmus of Darien, by Commander Lull. This vocabulary, just made, when compared with a very meagre one of the same dialect, made nearly two hundred years ago, was found, so far as the latter extended, essentially to coincide with it; this fact, Mr. Trumbull observed, is of importance in view of a remark made by him in the published volume of 'Transactions,' as to the constancy of Indian dialects, and will serve to refute Max Müller's view of the exceeding changeableness of the language of savages. This led to an interesting discussion, in which

others took the same ground with Mr. Trumbull. In the afternoon of the second day an animated debate was excited by a paper of Prof. Goodwin's, on the classification of conditional sentences. The lamented death of Prof. Hadley, and the absence of Prof. Whitney, who have been the two most active and influential members of the Society, were evidently much felt by those present. On the other hand, a very noticeable feature of this meeting was the number of young professors, recently from Germany, who took no very active part, but whose presence and influence promise well for the future. Another interesting feature was the wide extent of territory, and the number of institutions represented. The fifty-two members present were from seventeen States of the Union, several of them from the South, and the District of Columbia was also represented. The new President is Prof. March, of Easton, and the next meeting is to be at Hartford, on the 14th of July, 1874.

—Some of our readers will thank us for directing their attention to two articles in the June and July *Practitioner*, the subject of both being the affection known as "writer's cramp." The essayist bases his articles in part on his observation of ten cases which he has personally treated within the past year, and of which he gives many interesting details. There has been of late years an increase, he says, in the number of sufferers from this rather obscure disease, and this increase he attributes to the increased use of metal pens. In regard to the popular explanation of this effect of using metallic pens he has nothing to say; that explanation ascribes the complaint to an electric current generated in some way not minutely described, and conducted by the metal to the muscles and nerves of the fingers and arm. On the contrary, he attributes the ill effects of the use of these pens, as distinguished from quills, to the fact that one must bear on harder in driving the former over the paper than in writing with the latter; and it is fatigue that he thinks the primary cause of the complaint. In the ten cases which he has had in hand this year, he has noticed that a very efficient secondary cause of the cramp was the mental condition of excitement induced by the discovery that the disease existed, and this condition he observed to be aggravated when the sufferer was ignorant that any such disease was laid down in the books and known to the faculty. The patient at first attributed his lack of power to "foolishness," against which he must struggle with the determination "not to be beaten." In this struggle of course he fails; the hand continues to lag behind the will; and perhaps there is added to this very sufficient cause of mental distress the further cause that the obstinate right hand may be the sole source of income, and the sufferer finds not only his will disobeyed, but that every attempt to earn his living is balked by an unknown and non-apparent agency. "One of my patients," says the doctor, "was, in fact, upon the verge of suicide"; and another had, in a moment of desperation, driven a knife into the offending member at the wrist. Of course worry and anxiety set in, and, reacting on the nervous system whose disorder has occasioned them, the general health of the victim becomes seriously impaired and the progress of the disease rapid. The great cause of the chronic fatigue which is the primary cause of the complaint, is a too prolonged stimulation of the muscles of pen-prehension, and this stimulation may be either artificial or the natural stimulation of the will. Thus, Schumann, the composer, who began learning to play the piano late in life, found, as other pianists find, that the ring finger of the right hand is the most troublesome of all. In order to strengthen it, he suspended from the ceiling an elastic cord with a loop at the end, and, passing his finger through the loop, he exercised himself in depressing it. This exercise he practised to such excess that by and by he had so fatigued the muscles involved that the finger was worse than useless. And this case may also serve to show not only that too prolonged stimulation may be the cause of disease, but also that too frequent stimulation is to be avoided Our essayist is of opinion that the cramp which occurs in dairymen while engaged in milking, and the occasional cramps of pianists, are due to the frequency of the successive stimulations, and not to the prolongation of the stimulation. One interesting phenomenon connected with writer's cramp, a phenomenon which we have all noticed, and which most of us have probably noticed in our own personal cases, the writer cannot explain, and that is the associated movements which often accompany the act of writing. When, for instance, Mr. Sam Weller wrote his valentine to Miss Mary, his behavior was such as to lead directly up to the supposition that he deceived his father as to the real reason of the abrupt termination of that letter. His father remarking that it seemed to come to a close very suddenly, his son rejoined that therein lay the true art of writing love-letters; you must always break off so soon that the party addressed shall wish there were more, which, however, the party addressed would be safe to do were the letter as long as the great Tartar epic poem—seventeen English miles. But philosophy apart, Mr. Weller, when he began to put his composition on paper, found it necessary "to recline his head on his left arm, so as to place his eyes as nearly as possible on a level with the paper, and while glancing sideways at the letters, to form with his tongue imaginary characters to correspond"—a mode of writing very conducive to brevity and an abrupt closing of the epistolary effort. Directions for the treatment of writer's cramp are deferred, and that topic will be the subject of an article in the *Practitioner* for August. Meanwhile, quill-pens would seem to be indicated.

—Mr. Sabin informs readers of the *Bibliopolist* that Mr. Karl Hillebrand, writing to him from Florence, says that, having had the privilege of looking through the collection of papers left by the Countess Guiccioli, he found some valuable remains of Byron. Among these, besides the manuscript of a work by the Countess, entitled 'Byron's Stay in Italy,' which is full of contemporary notices and unpublished letters, are autograph manuscripts of many of Byron's writings, and, what is a good deal more important, an extensive correspondence, dating from 1820 to 1823, "which, however, is hardly adapted for publication." The countess had possession of the original manuscripts of several cantos of 'Don Juan,' and the whole of 'Marino Faliero' and 'Dante's Prophecy.'

—We have received from the Bureau of Education its first circular, which contains historical and current statistical information in regard to public instruction in Spain, Bolivia, Uruguay, and Portugal. None of it is to be called original in the sense of coming at first hand from American sources, unless we are to give that name to a report on primary education in Portugal, which is the work of Mr. J. C. Rodrigues, the editor of our New York illustrated journal *O Novo Mundo*. For the reports on secondary education in Portugal, Commissioner Eaton is indebted to the official report of the Brazilian Minister in Lisbon, and to an article in Schmid's 'Educational Cyclopædia.' This latter source has been found fertile, as we have from it the historical summary of instruction in Spain as well as in Portugal, while in the case of Uruguay and Bolivia the reports have come through the Brazilian Minister at Washington from the Brazilian envoys at Montevideo and La Paz. Schmid's historical survey of the Spanish system of education is done with characteristic minuteness, and has a word to say about the Iberian peninsula while it was still in the possession of the Iberes, and before the invasion of the Phenician, the Greek, the Roman, the Visigoth, and the Moor. Indeed, it has a word to say about the prehistoric Celts. It first begins to be minute, however, after Sertorius had established himself in Spain in 83 B.C., and in the exercise of his far-seeing sagacity had gathered together at Osca (Huesca, in Aragon) a large school of young men who were at once students and hostages. We are told of "the Spanish nobles Trajan and Hadrian," of Porcius Latro, of Marcus Annæus Seneca and Lucius Annæus, of Quintilian, Columella, Pomponius Mela, Silius Italicus, Florus, and the other distinguished Spaniards who "had a share in the literary *renaissance* which characterizes the period between the reign of Vespasian and the time of the Antonines." With equal thoroughness the Gothic schools, such as they were, are handled, and the institutions of the Jewish doctors and the Moors. This will be found a useful synopsis.

—Of the present condition of education in Spain there are no later statistics than those of 1867, although, as may be supposed, there has been no lack of decrees of a later date than that year. There were then 1,425,339 children in all the public and private schools, or 338,761 more than there were eight years before, in 1859. Comparing the census of the two years the percentage of increase in the number of children attending school would be found nominal, if indeed there were any at all. One person out of every thirteen in the kingdom would appear to be at school. In Massachusetts, in 1860, the proportion of school-goers to citizens of all ages was as one to four and a fraction, and the whole country over it was about one to six, though we believe this holds good of the whites only. In Portugal things are, if anything, worse than in Spain. In the one as in the other there is a good enough system on paper, but the schools are bad, the teachers sadly underpaid—the salaries ranging from $175 a year to $100—state supervision good for little, and attendance very poor indeed. So, too, of Bolivia, while Uruguay might perhaps have been in somewhat better case "but for the constant political disturbances which have prevented the proper carrying out of many provisions of the educational law, and have kept especially the rural population in a state of deplorable ignorance," and which among their other results have prevented our Bureau of Education from procuring any very trustworthy or otherwise valuable reports of the state of education in Uruguay and others of the countries figuring in this "Circular of Information."

—That Keble borrowed the title of 'The Christian Year' seems probable. On the authority of Mr. Parker, the son of the eminent Oxford publisher, the *Churchman's Shilling Monthly*, as quoted by Mr. J. Sabin, makes the following statement: One morning Mr. Keble, entering Mr. Parker's shop, saw at the top of a staircase leading to a gallery of book-shelves a work in twelve volumes,

entitled 'L'Année Chrétienne'; he at once asked leave to examine it, and a short time afterwards 'The Christian Year' appeared. And yet we may say that the scheme of Mr. Keble's work almost necessitated the title which he chose. At all events, the matter is of no consequence, except as mildly interesting to the readers of the most widely-read book of our day. We have seen it stated that within five weeks after the copyright expired, a little time ago, no less than ten editions of this marvellously and worthily popular work were put on the market. It is now forty-six years and more since the first edition appeared on the 22d of June, 1827. In December of that year came the second edition; in March and August of the following year there were two more; in 1829 there were two more; but after that year the sale slackened until 1845. Then the book took a fresh start, and the sales have gone on actively ever since, till there have been we do not know how many editions of it.

—The third number of *Brownson's Quarterly Review* ought to please alike the most zealous sort of Roman Catholic and the most zealous sort of Protestant. How it may be looked on by Protestants and Roman Catholics not so zealous is another matter. Nothing could exceed it in its uncompromising presentment of Roman Catholic views. The article entitled "The Church above the State," for instance, and those respectively entitled "Whose is the Child?" and "Papal Infallibility," assert, in language of the plainest, that Roman Catholic parents cannot send their children to the common schools without a violation of their consciences; that rulers govern in their states subject to Papal interference whenever they infringe the law of God, of which law the Pope is the only authorized expounder, and that Catholicism was never rendered a greater service than when Papal infallibility in matters of faith and morals was decreed as *de fide*. This latter article on infallibility is addressed to the so-called Inopportunists, or Roman Catholics who, while believers in the dogma, thought that the fit time for promulgating it had not come. Very different has long been Dr. Brownson's opinion. The Council was especially wise and prudent, he maintains, in doing just what it did at just the time when it did—perhaps might better have done it sooner; the necessities of the times demanded it; it was necessary both for its influence on the faithful and its influence on "the world"; Catholics were suffering greatly from the want of it; when the Syllabus came out, in 1864, had not nearly every one of the condemned propositions in it been defended by professedly Catholic writers — by professors, journalists, statesmen, politicians, and jurists; by Döllinger, Gratry, Montalembert, Cavour—and this although the Pope had previously condemned nearly all these errors in encyclical allocutions or special bulls? Was there not, then, the most pressing need for declaring them utterly erroneous? Did not many Catholics, so-called, go so far as privately to express regret that the Syllabus had been put forth? Had not good Catholics been for generations compelled to admit that possibly Gallicanism also might be sound Catholicism? And as for the world's people, it is useless for Catholics to try to live without giving offence to Cæsar and his Protestant and infidel allies. Nay, it is worse than useless; it is pernicious to the interests of Catholicism; for Mr. Brownson has observed in his intercourse with heretics that it is wisest in the long run to give them undiluted Catholicism, the pure milk of the word. After all, you cannot alter the law that the world hates God; and Protestants know that if the true faith is truly stated it must make them feel their "enmity towards God." "They distrust our sincerity, honesty, and perfect frankness in declaring our doctrines more than they do our doctrines themselves," and believe any Catholic to be equivocating whose doctrinal treatises look to them fairly acceptable—which is saying a great deal, but which, nevertheless, points to a truth; Protestantism was not born and does not exist because Roman Catholic writers wrote evasive or incomplete treatises; nevertheless, Protestants know something of Catholicism made easy, and do distrust the class of treatises which come under Dr. Brownson's condemnation. The other articles which we have mentioned are equally outspoken, lucid, and vigorous; and so, for that matter, are all their companions—the essay on "True and False Science" (which deals with Mr. Parke Godwin's letter to the *Popular Science Monthly*); "Science, Philosophy, and Religion" (a hard-hitting review of Professor John Bascom's Lowell lectures); "Darwin's Descent of Man"; "Sisters of Mercy," and the literary notices and criticisms. The entire hundred and forty-two pages may be read with a high degree of satisfaction; and, of course, in one way of looking at the matter, with a far higher degree of dissatisfaction. People who read for a vicious entertainment will be pleased with some of the language of our author: a long extract is taken from Professor Bascom's book, to show the "philosophical ineptness" of the professor, who is "a mere psychologist and no philosopher"; Dr. Brownson was "brought up among ignorant and bigoted New England Puritans"; Lubbock, Taine, Büchner, Huxley, Herbert Spencer, and others of the same genus "richly deserve that public opinion should brand them with infamy as the enemies of God and man"; "General Grant, without a spark of religion, is ruled chiefly by the Methodists, the most unprincipled, unscrupulous, and bitterly anti-Catholic sect to which Protestantism has ever given birth"; probably the devil has "never performed a more masterly feat than that of persuading modern nations, while he is carrying them away in his train, that he has no existence—is a mere *ens rationis*"; "the bastard daughter of Henry the Eighth" Dr. Brownson has from his boyhood always "held in utter detestation"; "Catharine the Second of Russia was a saint in comparison to the Virgin Queen of England," and so forth, and so forth.

RECENT NOVELS.*

MISS ALCOTT'S latest novel, 'Work,' is rather a more serious book than her 'Little Men' and 'Little Women,' which, as far as bookselling was concerned, were very successful volumes. That this is a simple novel of amusement can hardly be pretended, or, if it is affirmed, it can be reasonably denied; it is rather a contribution to the literature of the "labor question" and the "woman question," as they are called, which questions are the latest that it has become the fashion to treat under a veil of fiction. In general, however, it may be said that, unless the writer on these topics has better command of his art than is the case with most people who have practical ideas to advocate, he seldom does more than devise a combination of circumstances which fits just the particular case in point and no other; he is about as far from settling the general question as would be a man who should propose building a large separate asylum for every foundling orphan in a great city. It is never an easy task to convey amusement and instruction in the same breath; the best amusement is generally found in company with instruction in very general principles. A novel that is written to teach the young women of New England who become domestic servants cheerfully to blacken their master's boots and to sit down to dinner with the colored cook, will probably be found to lack some of those qualities which arouse other feelings than a feeling of curiosity as to what may be said about a question which is generally discussed. A novel which is so totally devoid of imagination as 'Work' is nothing as a work of art; as a guide for poor girls, it is useless; for the invention of incidents is made so much more prominent than the treatment of character—character as modified and affected by external circumstances, which is what those concerned are most interested in—that it conveys no information that can be of any use in one case in a hundred. The following is a meagre outline of the story: The heroine, a young girl of twenty-one, makes her first attempt at supporting herself by entering the house of some vulgar people as a maid-of-all-work, although she is of a far higher nature than her master and mistress, as she shows, among other ways, by her lack of prejudice against color. She is devoted to literature, and sets the house on fire by reading in bed, for which she is most unjustly dismissed. Then she becomes an actress, afterwards a governess in a household where the flippant belles sneer at her, and a jaded man of fashion, the brother of the lady who employs her, a giddy worldling, falls in love with her and offers her his hand and much gold; she refuses him, however, and becomes the companion of a genteel maniac, who in time commits suicide by cutting his throat. Nor should we forget that she is also employed as a sewing-girl and leaves that occupation because she stands up for the girl who has had a misfortune. In due course of time, she meets her fate, one David; they are married; he goes off to the late war of the Rebellion as an officer, and she goes as a nurse. He falls on the field of battle, leaving her to a lonely life. A posthumous daughter partly consoles her, and the rest of her days she devotes to good works. It is a book that was evidently inspired by excellent motives.

Miss Preston's 'Love in the Nineteenth Century' is better than its title, which does not give an accurate impression of what the book contains. It is called a 'Fragment,' and so it is, inasmuch as all the love is omitted, and instead we have an account of a rather interesting friendship between a young man who is decidedly inclined to be impertinent and a young woman who is a great deal too good for him. He is a journalist, and she a well-educated girl; their story is told in the form of letters which they write to one another after they have agreed to keep the question of marriage in abeyance until they have fuller knowledge of their own minds, or rather until they really fall in love with one another. These letters are very naturally written. They show a good deal of crude thinking; but on her part at least there is seen

*'Work. By Louisa M. Alcott. With Illustrations.' Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1873.
'Love in the Nineteenth Century: A Fragment. By Harriet W. Preston, Author of 'Aspendale.'' Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1873.
'A Slip in the Fens. A Novel. With Illustrations.' New York: Holt & Williams. 1873.
'Dimitri Roudine. A Novel. By Ivan Turgénieff. Translated from the French and German Versions. (Reprinted from *Every Saturday*.)' New York: Holt & Williams. 1873.

a very amiable desire to make the best she can out of the world. They exchange their views about "culture," for they worship all the brand-new idols; she defends the French, he the Germans, for it all took place only three years ago, during the last war; he argues in defence of wealth, she praises graceful poverty, and by-and-by they are married and dwell in much comfort just off Beacon Street in Boston. On the whole, the book gives a favorable impression of rather nice people, and especially of their bookishness, and will by no means do away with the impression so general in other parts of the country that Boston is the home of pure intellect, where the emotions are kept hatched down and under the most rigid control. The story is well written, and it should not be passed by without attention's being called to the prettiness of its external appearance and the beauty of the print, which make it one of the handsomest books of the year.

One of the dullest books of the year, as dull as a Long Island beach, is 'A Slip in the Fens,' a raw production of a writer who wisely keeps his or her name concealed. There is a girl who lives in the fens in the neighborhood of Cambridge, England, and who is lovely and attractive in the eyes of man. There are undergraduates, some serious, some frivolous, who wander across the fens. One falls in love with the girl, but he falls out again, and marries some one else in his own station, and nothing comes of anything; people are introduced, but they disappear without any bearing on the story, which stops after filling the requisite number of pages.

A more valuable addition to the Leisure Hour Series, which, in general, is well selected, is Turgenef's 'Dimitri Roudine.' Like almost every one of his novels, it is one of his best. Mention has been made in these pages already of the qualities which are most prominent in his other tales. In this one he has made an interesting study of character in the course of the story, but in such a way that the reader does not feel as if he were called to give his attention to a skilful use of the dissecting knife, or to an artfully contrived series of incidents which should call forth certain traits in the hero, but he rather is shown a person who, besides being endowed with certain qualities, is a real character, a genuine human being. The story is so well told that the reader never knows until the end, and if he is wise he is not overcertain then, what is the real nature of the man a few chapters in whose life compose the book. Judging fairly another human being is always so hard a task that one is generally too ready to catch some prominent trait and to use it in explanation of any obscurity or in blame of any error in the conduct of the person concerned. And if this is the rule in life, and only great insight or long and careful experience can wean one from this habit, it is certainly true of novel writers. See, for a glaring instance, Miss Edgeworth's novels, which illustrate moral traits as her contemporary Joanna Bailey's plays each illustrate a single passion. Take her 'Helen,' for example—a novel, by the way, which might much better be read than half the novels of the day; in that work Cecilia, like the genteel lady in the game who is always genteel, is always lying. On the other hand, there are hosts of modern novels in which the writer turns advocate, and seeks to whitewash vice by claiming pity on account of the force of the temptation. In the case of the novel before us, Turgenef tells the story of the life of a man whose aim was always better than his deed; but we are not taught to execrate him as Mr. Fitzjames Stephen execrates the idle, nor to pity him as a being superior to those whose nature keeps them in the right path, but rather to understand him, to see the complexities of character in a fellow-creature whom it would be easy to denounce, but whom also it is our duty—and our duty from a sense of fairness, not from anxiety to do the generous thing—to condemn with gentleness in our heart.

The scene of the novel is laid in Russia. A family named Lassounski, consisting of a mother, a faded beauty who has a high opinion of her own abilities, and her daughter, Natalie, a charming young girl such as Turgenef draws so well, is spending a summer in the country. With them is a sort of half-friend, half-secretary; his name is Pandalewski. Besides, there is an old friend of the family named Pigasoff, a sharp-tongued, crabbed man. In the neighborhood is another family, consisting of Alexandra Paulovna Lipina, a young widow, and her brother, Sergius, a rather ordinary man, very quiet and reserved. Another character is Michael Michaëlovitch Leschnieff, a man of twenty-eight or thirty, who has the reputation of being eccentric. There are slight indications of some tender interest in Natalie on the part of Sergius. Almost by chance Roudine is introduced. He spends the evening with them, taking the lead in the conversation, completely vanquishing Pigasoff, who throws himself in his way. Daria, the lady of the house, is attracted by his eloquence, and invites him to become her guest for some time—a proposal which he readily accepts. Natalie is interested, almost fascinated; for he is a clever man, and he talks well—fervently about external things, and pensively about himself. In the course of a few weeks, he brings himself nearer the young girl, who pities him sincerely, and who sympathizes with his eager yearnings for success in life. It is needless to say that under the circumstances none of the men lavish much affection on him. In time he declares his love to Natalie; but the mother, who had regarded her daughter as a mere chit, had got wind of the affair, and Roudine, finding the ground unfavorable, and having more than half assumed a passion which he did not feel, leaves the place. Natalie suffers, but her youth and strength bring her through her misery. He does not render her whole life unhappy. Meanwhile, there are other lights thrown on Roudine's character. Michael had known him when they were both young men at the university. Roudine is now thirty-five, and in speaking of him to Alexandra, Michael acknowledges his fascination, but looks on him with considerable asperity. Later on, when he is married, he inclines to more lenient views, and in the last chapter of the book there is an account of a meeting between the two old friends, which is as pathetic as anything the story contains. By this time Roudine has become prematurely old and worn; one delusion after another has left him; he has learned the hollowness of his hopes from bitter experience. He gives his friend an account of all he has done since they were last together. They part and never meet again. We last hear of Roudine's throwing his life away on a revolutionary barricade in 1848 in Paris.

If nowhere in this novel are we led to an injudicious admiration of the hero, we are nowhere led to a clumsy or brutal condemnation of him; he is put before us as men are in life, with a mixture of good and evil which it is by no means easy to unravel, though in certain parts of the story we can have no other feeling than strong disapproval.

THE MAGAZINES FOR AUGUST.

READERS of the August *Atlantic* who know the writings of Mr. Henry James, Senior, will be likely to turn first to that gentleman's review of a book entitled 'Modern Diabolism,' written by a Mr. Williamson. "A grim book," the reviewer calls it—and certainly it has some grim enough things in it, though most people will judge these to be very thoroughly whelmed in its extreme silliness. What is in the book, however, is of less interest than what is in the review of it. The modern diabolism of which Mr. Williamson treats is "commonly called Modern Spiritualism," he says, and the narration of his experience which he lays before his readers is much the same as that of dozens of "mediums." Mr. Williamson began his profitable industry by accustoming himself to sit at a table with a pen in his hand and wait till a person from "the other world" should come and make the pen write, his object being communications such as are written to spiritualists. He desired to ascertain whether we continue to exist after the death of the body, and whether the alleged facts of spiritualism are caused by beings of another world. Naturally, it was not long before he was visited by a spirit—a Miss Ellen Macauley. She had, while yet among us, led a very depraved life, she said; she was still pursuing the same career in the spirit land, and she had no desire or intention of reforming. This young woman's communications seem to have set Mr. Williamson's mind at rest as to our existence after the death of the present body, and to have convinced him also that the facts of spiritualism so-called are caused by beings of another world; but he was not left dependent upon her communications alone. Several other spirits, some male and some female, began to converse with him, and to these the spirit of Miss Macauley objected strongly. So strongly, indeed, did she object, that one night Mr. Williamson was awakened by feeling that some one was grasping his throat and trying to choke him, and, on enquiry, he learned that it was Ellen, who said that she intended to choke him to death. Twice or thrice she made the same attempt, but Mr. Williamson had from the first perceived that the spirit had no power to affect his breathing, and, aside from the annoyance of its preventing sound sleep, he cared little about it. But a short time after these assaults, he awoke one night with a violent palpitation of the heart, and with limbs partly paralyzed. It was Ellen again, who informed him that she had been operating on the action of his heart, and that if she had been allowed one hour more she would have stopped its beating for ever. This frightened Mr. Williamson seriously, and his concern was not diminished by what Ellen said to him on the succeeding night as he was getting into bed—that she should "renew operations again as soon as he got to sleep." But if Ellen objected to Mr. Williamson's relations with other spirits than herself, the others were equally opposed to his intimacy with her, and one of them, a Mrs. Arnold, who knew of Ellen's proceedings, told him one evening that if he would sit up awhile she would bring the spirits of his father and another male friend, and if Ellen did not then go away, these gentlemen would "kill her." The male spirits were brought according to agreement, and sure enough Ellen's communications suddenly came to a close, but whether on account of her second decease, or because she was prevailed upon to stop by milder conciliations, Mr. Williamson does not know. He knows that after that, to his great relief, no more was heard of her by him.

What Mr. James does with this mass of valuable matter is to assume its truth, and proceed to account for Ellen. The doctrine of the philosopher Swedenborg, so far as it relates to the unhandsome facts with which Mr. Williamson chiefly deals, may be thus stated: Even as the air of our atmospheric world, the world of unrest, the home of the cloud, the mist, and the tempest, separates the earth and the sun, tempering the light and heat to our necessities, so an analogous moral atmosphere surrounds our humanity, tempering the rays of the creative love and wisdom, and housing for a period that vast body of crude, unannealed existence, too good to ban, too bad to bless, which nature sloughs off, but which is far too crude for spirits to assimilate. This is Swedenborg's "world of spirits," as distinguished from his "spiritual world," which latter is his heaven and hell, and is the residence of souls finally sifted. His "world of spirits" he represents as answering in spiritual physiology to the stomach in natural, and after a while reducing the hardest moral material to the softest and most fluid chyle, here fit to be taken up into the spiritual circulation, there to be cast out into the waste places. Now, in cases like Ellen's it is to an altogether morbid and preternatural condition of this "world of spirits" that we are to look for the philosophy of the infestations of which we have for some years been hearing so much; and precisely this morbid condition we find now existing. The cosmical stomach is equally liable with the natural stomach to grow dyspeptic, to reject its food undigested; and dyspeptic is just what it is at present: is not Christianity undergoing a moral and rational purgation quite revolutionary? are not institutions once venerable now distrusted and menaced? have not our intellectual skies grown dark above our heads, and is not our once solid moral earth quaking beneath our feet? It may easily be seen, then, what augmented hordes of human beings are daily sent into the "world of spirits" devoid of hereditary faith and hope, nay indifferent to all religious faith and hope whatever, devotees, perhaps, of sheer naturalism. Of such was Ellen. Thus by putting Swedenborg and Williamson together do we find that they mutually elucidate each other, and that any little difficulties which may have discovered themselves in either do simultaneously and swiftly disappear.

Following Mr. James's applied Swedenborgianism is another chapter of Mr. Robert Dale Owen's exceedingly readable autobiography, and these, with Prof. Shaler's "Journal of a Naturalist," we find the most taking papers in the magazine. Good reading for a pessimist and the "laudatores tempores acti" is Mr. W. J. Hoppin's "Contemporary Art in Europe." It is very encouraging indeed. Nearly all the articles are good; but two of the poems are oddly marred in the first stanza, and in the case of the "Intaglio Head of Minerva" the defect is a pity, as the poem is a good one. But it is of a kind of poems that require the last perfection of finish, or they are nothing; and the last degree of finish is not given when Minerva is spelt with a final r. Very pleasing in its simplicity, both of sentiment and expression, is another of the *Atlantic's* poems—Mrs. Anderson's "Poor Marie."

Readers of the *Galaxy* will find in the article entitled "The Parkman Murder" a revival of an old horror. To some it will have an interest of a certain kind, as being among old impressive reminiscences—their first murder, perhaps, or their great local tragedy. But we should say that, to the majority of the *Galaxy's* readers, its interest would be of a kind which it is better not to excite. A good article, if we are to accept its historical statements, is that on the cavalry charge at Balaklava and the controversy thence arising, by a writer unknown to us. It charges Lord Lucan with extreme wrongheadedness and obstinacy, and exculpates entirely not only Lord Cardigan, who simply obeyed positive orders from Lucan, but also Captain Nolan, who carried to Lucan orders which Lucan never obeyed. It closes thus:

"The dead Nolan could not answer; the living Lucan could speak in Parliament if he was not worth much in the field. Cardigan was his brother-in-law, and the two stuck together against the world, although they hated each other cordially. Between the two, the dead man's reputation was ruined, and all because he was poor and friendless. There was none to defend his memory. Kinglake himself, while carefully exhuming the truth, seems so blinded by the prejudice engendered by these two powerful noblemen, that he speaks only in a pitying and apologetic tone of the unfortunate Nolan, blaming him greatly for disrespect to what he seems to consider a superior officer. In fact, one thing about his whole conclusions is very noticeable. Nolan, dead in 1854, is blamed; Cardigan, dead a year before the book was published, is blamed with some sharpness; Lucan, the real and only cause of the disaster, as shown by the facts, is hardly blamed at all. But then Lucan is still alive, and an earl is a very powerful man in England."

General Custer ("Life on the Plains"); Mr. Theodore S. Fay ("The Revolution of 1848 in Berlin"); Mr. De Forest ("The Wetherel Affair"); Mr. R. G. White ('Linguistic and Literary Notes and Queries"), and Carl Benson ("Casual Cogitations"), are among the authors who fill up the August *Galaxy*. "Carl Benson," writing of coincidences and plagiarisms, speaks of a misreading of a passage in Polybius to which we may possibly owe an episode in Flaubert's 'Salammbo.' This novel has for its subject the war between the Carthaginians and their mercenaries after the First Punic war, and what Polybius says is that at last Hamilcar shut up the mercenaries in a defile with "the beasts" and slaughtered them all. What Polybius means by the beasts is the elephants of the mercenaries, for, as the dictionaries point out, Polybius habitually uses *θηρίον* instead of *ἐλέφας*. Flaubert, mistranslating the *θηρίον* into "wild beast," proceeds to draw a tremendous picture of lions, tigers, and other carnivora driven by Hamilcar's orders into the defile occupied by the mercenaries, where they devour those wretches, horse, foot, and dragoons, to the last man.

Mr. "Carl Benson" thinks that in making this discovery he may have found only a mare's nest, and that Flaubert may not have made use of Polybius, or may not have been misled by him; and, indeed, French writers of the school of Flaubert are capable, without aid, of great things in the way of battues and the like. In the *Catholic World*, M. l'Abbé Casgrain depicts for us a tremendous contest between a Pottawatomie and a Canadian rattlesnake, who comes out from a bush, near which the Indian is, at the moment, caught fast in a window or air-hole, through which he is trying to squeeze himself for purposes of burglary. The snake approaches the robber slowly and carefully, "as if aware of the strength and power of his redoubtable adversary." When within a few feet of the Indian, it raises itself up—on the tip of its tail apparently—and springs at its enemy. The latter, moving as quick as lightning the hand that is free, strikes the snake aside with a force that throws him some distance. Twice this happens. At last the serpent, now thoroughly aroused, "foaming at the mouth," its jaws swollen with rage, and drawing so near as to be almost within reach of the hand of the savage, springs forward and fastens his fangs in the dark cheek of the Pottawatomie, who, instantly seizing the writhing body, tears his victorious but captive enemy to pieces with his teeth. A few hours later, they find him black as ink and otherwise in a condition which can better be imagined than described, though if necessary the description may be found in full in the *Catholic World*. "Providence had indeed terribly avenged the assassination of the young officer." The Pottawatomie brave had just previously killed a French lieutenant, and Providence took this means of bringing him to his senses.

In *Scribner's*, an article which some of our readers will perhaps wish to read is Mr. Fitz Edward Hall's conversational account of the various pandits whom he employed when in India; Mr. Bret Harte has in this magazine the beginning of a story which opens promisingly; Mr. John Hay versifies a fine Buddhistic legend; Mr. Burroughs has a capital article on the bluebird, and is as well worth listening to as he always is when he speaks of birds and woods and beasts. He is evidently one of the men whom nature imbues with her own spirit, if we may say so. Of such there are one or two in a generation among the crowds of men who imbue nature with their own personal feelings. Or, rather, it is something like this proportion that holds among lettered and literary men, while the proportion among men and women in general is doubtless larger. *Scribner's* has also an article on Nantucket, which is good, though one might wish a slight infusion of guide-book. Now that from June on to the middle of November everybody puts scenery in print, it is a relief to come upon some advice about steamboats and hotels and rates of expense.

Lippincott's opens with the clever "New Hyperion," which does not deteriorate, although less than at first is it a gentle travesty of the old Hyperion, and rather is something done for its own sake. It is a pity the pictures cannot be put in better relations with the parts of the letter-press which they illustrate. This is the more to be desired because they are whimsical and allusive and punning pictures rather than direct illustrations. The story is in the nature of a luxury, and its full enjoyment should not be interfered with even by small disagreeables. We may recommend also to our readers a description of some of the vegetable wonders of Singapore, written by Mrs. Fanny Feudge, whose accounts of white pineapples and similar fruits ought to be enough to drive a vegetarian wild; while the blossoms she has seen will make her the envy of ladies who read of them. This latter class of readers will also find in *Lippincott's* a very goose-fleshy little collection of ghost stories almost of the regular approved kind, everything being present except the chain which clanks on the stairs.

Mr. Reginald Wynford can tell most people more about English deer-parks than they now know, and his article will be found interesting for other reasons besides; Mr. Black's "Princess of Thule" now promises to be a story of his sad kind; "Inside Japan" is a great deal better than most articles on this subject, though the book descriptive of the Japanese and explanatory of their recent remarkable history is still a desideratum. "Our Monthly Gossip," which is always worth reading in *Lippincott*, and different from the same and related departments in other magazines, is as good as

usual; a sketch entitled "A Monologue," which makes a young girl at the opera depict for us her changing emotions, is neatly and spiritedly done.

"Ten Years among the Boating Men," a timely article by Mr. William Blaikie, well known as an oarsman at Harvard some ten years ago, may be found in the August *Harper's*, and so may the beginning of a thorough account of the Sandwich Islands by Mr. Charles Nordhoff; a striking article about the young children employed in New York City at various trades; and a good quantity of other matter. It is hard to realize that in New York and the neighboring districts, practically a part of the city, there is an army of 100,000 children—"little slaves of capital," the writer calls them—constantly employed, and a corps of 15,000 "floaters," or children on their way from one factory or workshop to another. It is so stated in this article, which gives in detail the number of children at work in several of the occupations which employ them, and which seems to have been prepared by some one who had all the facts at hand. In closing, he speaks of a bill, seemingly very reasonable, which has been prepared for the regulation of factories employing persons less than sixteen years old, and says that certain manufacturers of Albany, last winter, exerted themselves in opposition to it. Whether or not it became law we are not aware, but if not, we here in New York are far behind other countries and other States, and are far short of justice or a prudent regard for the safety of the community. Benevolent persons will find this a useful report.

VARIOUS EDUCATIONAL WORKS—CLASSICAL, SCIENTIFIC, AND MISCELLANEOUS.

MOST of the Latin school-books which have appeared of late belong to some series, and about such collections in Latin one may be pardoned for feeling a little distrust. From the veteran book-maker, Dr. William Smith, who is never disposed to let a chance for a book escape him, we have a new edition of a 'Student's Grammar,' in 395 pages. The leading idea seems to be this: to "cover"—we believe this is the term used in speaking of patents—everything which has a bearing on Latin. The first and second parts contain the Accidence and the Syntax, to which is appended a Syntaxis Ornata. This part of the syntax, which deals with peculiar expressions and style, is entirely out of place in a Grammar. But over and above this we have chapters devoted to the style of different writers, of Sallust, Cæsar, Cicero, Livy, and Tacitus; and this extraordinary farrago is topped off with an Etymology, taken from Corssen, and the usual Appendices. While the old saying may hold, *nullum esse librum tam malum ut non aliqua ex parte prosit*, Dr. Smith's compilation certainly makes a poor show by the side of Mr. Roby's Grammar, of whose second edition we hope to speak by-and-by, or the work of Prof. Key, who is once in a while carried away by a whim, but always handles the Latin language with refreshing originality. Time-honored custom has prescribed that metres shall be attached to grammar, though, properly speaking, they make no part of it. But we must be jealous of further intrusions; it will never do to make grammar a sort of repository of miscellaneous information. It may be very convenient to have stylistic, and even historico-literary notices in a grammar; so too it would be a convenience to have on the fly-leaf of the grammar the days of sailing of the ocean steamers, and the numbers and situation of the fire-alarm boxes. There seems ground for the apprehension that our teachers and pupils will learn so much *about* Latin and Greek, that they will know neither Latin nor Greek; if by *know* we understand not a mere *kennen*, but a *können*, as it is well put in Nägelsbach's pithy dictum: "Der Lehrer muss Latein nicht bloss *kennen*, sondern *können*.

Mr. Bartholomew's grammar is not so pretentious, and has more unity of plan; it will be found really more serviceable for learning Latin. With some flaws in detail, and some traditional errors, it nevertheless shows a general acquaintance with the results of recent scholarship. In the dispute of the noun and the verb about precedence, the *pas* is accorded to the verb. There is something to be said in favor of this, and yet some beginners may find it easier to learn the inflexions of the noun first, from their greater simplicity. But after all it is very much like that question which will never be settled, unless perhaps at Penequeese this summer, *gallina prius an ovum exstiterit*. Practically it does not make much difference which one begins with; for as soon as the boy begins to translate, and he ought to begin as soon as possible, he will need both nouns and verbs. Inasmuch as this is the time of year when teachers' conventions are wont to meet and get confused over the subject of Latin pronunciation, it will not be amiss to quote Mr. Bartholomew's views on that subject:

"For many years prominent Latin scholars have earnestly considered the expediency of restoring the Roman pronunciation of Latin. Individual efforts toward reform could effect but little, especially when directed against the prejudices of long-established usage and national pride; and yet, in exposing the gross absurdities which characterize the two prevailing systems of pronunciation—the English and the miscalled continental methods—they greatly stimulated investigation. But more recent researches, made in the light of comparative philology, have cleared up many doubtful points, and, in the main, have satisfactorily answered the difficult question: How did the Romans themselves pronounce their words?"

The 'Syllabus of Latin Pronunciation,' recently prepared by the Professors of Latin in the English Universities of Oxford and Cambridge, agrees in all essential points with the system adopted and recommended by one of the oldest universities in our own country; and the sanction of the authorities gives assurance that uniformity in pronunciation may soon be secured, and that, too, on the foundation of historic truth.

A collection of Orations of Cicero, by J. H. and W. F. Allen and J. B. Greenough, contains some interesting orations and parts of orations not commonly included in school editions, with instructive notes. For the benefit of such people as believe in learning to swim with corks, we mention a Cæsar's Gallic War (five books), by "C. A." The main feature of this book is a reprint of the whole Latin text in the English or supposed English order. To our mind this is a hindrance to the principal object aimed at in studying Latin, which is ultimately to read the Latin authors as the Romans could read them themselves.

We have examined with care the Readers published by Messrs. Ivison, Blakeman, Taylor & Co., and they appear to us good. Whoever was learning his letters thirty years ago, or twenty, and has not had to repeat the process since or has not worked in the school-room, has no conception of the extent to which reading seems to have been made easy. Between the old fashion of learning the A B C by main force of memory and the way now pursued, the difference, on the surface at all events, appears to be world-wide. The boys and girls are to be pitied as born too soon whose first speculative effort was a wonderment over the fact that the a of "a-b, ab" sounded not at all like the "A" to which they gave its name when they pointed it out on the card-board. Or it may be that their successors are born too late; few either of the learners of to-day, or of those who learned their letters long ago, are competent to settle the question whether bald memorizing of the alphabet or a philosophical and scientific approach to its difficulties is better. The tendency of the text-books, however, is now all in the direction of the latter. This is the way in which an infantile pupil is taught out of the newest 'First Reader.' To begin with, "his attention is to be called to the picture," and the pictures are quite taking. It is in this case a picture of an ox, and apparently this "unhastie beast" is selected to start the pupil on his travels because "round O" is the easiest letter of all to be acquired; because X, also, is very easy, and because the animal is already an acquaintance of the child's. But first he must repeat the name of the ox several times, and repeat it distinctly, and must also learn to name the other animal that enters into the lesson. This is the "fox," and it may be reasonably hoped that when

* 'The Student's Latin Grammar: A Grammar of the Latin Language. By William Smith, D.C.L., LL.D.; and Theophilus D. Hall, M.A., Fellow of University College, London.' Fifth Edition. London. 1872.

'Eclectic Classical Series: A Grammar of the Latin Language. By G. K. Bartholomew.' Cincinnati and New York: Wilson, Hinkle & Co. Pp. 276.

'Select Orations of Cicero, chronologically arranged, covering the entire period of his public life. Edited by J. H. and W. F. Allen, and J. B. Greenough.' Boston: Ginn Brothers. 1873.

'Aids to the Study of the Classics: A New Series Designed to Facilitate a Preparation for College. By "C. A." I.—Cæsar's Commentaries on the Gallic War. By "C. A." New York: John Wiley & Son.

'A New Graded Series. First, Second, Third, and Fourth Readers.' New York: Ivison, Blakeman & Taylor. 1873.

'American School Series: The Fourth Reader. By Noble Butler.' Louisville: J. P. Morton & Co. 1873.

'Manual of Elocution, Embracing the Philosophy of Vocalization. By Prof. C. P. Bronson.' Louisville: J. P. Morton & Co. 1873.

'Comstock's Elocution and Model Speaker. By Andrew Comstock. To which is added a Complete Speaker and Reading Book. By Philip Lawrence.' Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Brothers. 1873.

'The Lawrence Speaker. By Philip Lawrence.' Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Brothers. 1873.

'The First Reader of the New Japan Series. By William E. Griffis.' San Francisco: A. L. Bancroft & Co. Yokohama: Stone & Chipman. 1873.

'The Spectroscope and its Applications. By J. Norman Lockyer.' London: Macmillan. 1873.

'Astronomy. By J. J. Plummer, Observatory, Durham.' New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1873.

'Steam and the Steam-Engine: Land and Marine. By Henry Evers, LL.D., Plymouth.' New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1873.

'Steam and Steam-Engine: Locomotive. By Henry Evers, LL.D., Plymouth.' New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1873.

'Mineralogy. By J. H. Collins, F.G.S., Royal Cornwall Polytechnic Society, Falmouth.' New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1873.

'Machine Construction and Drawing. By E. Tomkins, Queen's College, Liverpool.' New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1873.

'Practical, Plane, and Solid Geometry. By H. Angel, Islington Science School. London.' New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1873.

'Genera Plantarum ad exemplaria imprimis in Herbariis Kewensibus servata definita. Auctoribus G. Bentham et J. D. Hooker.' Londini: Lovell Reeve & Co. Vol. II. pars 1. 1873.

'A General System of Botany, Descriptive and Analytical. In two parts. Part I.—Outlines of Organography, Anatomy, and Physiology. Part II.—Descriptions and Illustrations of the Orders, by Emm. Le Maout and J. Decaisne; with 5,500 figures by Steinheil and A. Riocreux. Translated from the original by Mrs. J. D. Hooker. The orders arranged after the method followed in the universities and schools of Great Britain, its Colonies, America, and India; with additions, an appendix on the natural method, and a synopsis of the orders. By J. D. Hooker.' London: Longmans, Green & Co. 1873.

'Ahn's Rudiments of the German Language. By Dr. P. Henn.' New York: E. Steiger. 1873.

the exercise is over the child can name the two animals aright, and has learned "o" and "x," and probably "f." But there is more for the acolyte to do in this lesson: he must learn to spell "ox" phonetically, giving to the letters their powers, and not their names. Here, and just beyond here—where he must be instructed "how to place the organs of speech so as to secure distinct articulation"—apparently may be his first puzzle; but otherwise this first lesson appears to be an excellently easy means of entering on a literary career. "The spelling, pronouncing, and reading exercises of this book," says the editor, "have been very carefully arranged, with a view to their progressiveness, simplicity, and naturalness," and we think that his word may be fully accepted. At the end of the book the pupil is advanced so far as to be using a good-sized vocabulary of monosyllables, and is ready for the 'Second Reader.'

The 'Second Reader' launches the student on the more troubled waters of the full tide of vowel sounds. He must know that the sound of "a" in "far" is numbered as the third sound of that vowel, and that the diacritical mark distinguishing it from the six other "a's" consists of two dots above the letter. A one-page treatise on punctuation this volume also gives, as well as instruction in articulation by means of exercises; and some insight into the nature of script hand may be got by a rhyming alphabet, in which that kind of character is used. In the 'Third Reader' the elocutionary exercises are made much of; lessons in definition supplement former lessons in pronunciation, and the practice of analyzing the lesson, in answer to questions from the teacher, begun in the 'Second Reader,' is continued in greater amplitude in this. The 'Fourth Reader' is distinguished by more exhaustive instruction in elocutionary principles, and of course by a maturer literature. Perhaps we may set thirteen or fourteen or fifteen years as the general age at which the last volume of this series will be useful; though we ourselves found them far from unentertaining as we ran through them. The selections are not hackneyed, and we saw none to which any exception could be taken.

Another 'Fourth Reader' that we can commend thoroughly comes to us from Louisville, Kentucky. It seems to us a highly sensible book. Mr. Noble Butler, its compiler, has in a very great measure freed himself from the task of teaching by direct rules the principles of elocution in its numerous and very difficult departments. Rules of this kind are in his belief "of as little use as rules for walking." The child "must learn to read well before he can understand rules, and then rules only tell him what he does without rules." Doubtless they do something more than that; formulating knowledge has as many conveniences as pigeon-holing documents, and more, and is for many reasons not to be despised; but his first remark has, we think, much good sense in it as pointing away from a rock on which many split. If the other volumes of Mr. Butler's series are as good as this one, he has given his young compatriots of the South a useful set of manuals. Not that this book is not adapted for use in all parts of the country so far as regards its political tone—a statement that cannot be made concerning every Southern text-book. But a good number of the faults which Mr. Butler assiduously sets himself to correct are distinctively Southern faults of speech, and to lecture Northern pupils in reference to them would be like addressing the schoolboys of Louisville on the defects of the Cape Ann dialect. Among the corrected errors which we noted as we turned over the pages are "mauster" for "master"; "necked" for "naked"; "*idea*" (sometimes heard in the North, but oftener in the South) for "idea"; "pŭt" for "put" (of which the same remark might once have been made); "fawther" for "father"; "mo'" for "more"; "woosh" for "wish"; "Jeems" for "James," a very common Southernism; "path" rhyming with "hath"; "pusson" for "person"; "potion" for "portion"; "cherfully" for "cheerfully"; "endyerd" for "endeared"; and a number more.

From the same house we have a posthumous work on elocution and the philosophy of vocalization, which merits a part of the same general praise that we have given to Mr. Butler's 'Reader,' that is to say, it is not weighted down with an enormous quantity of technical rules, and diagrams, and pictures—anatomical, geometrical, and pictorial—on a matter which we suppose every teacher of elocution that ever lived would admit must be taught *viva voce*. Yet Mr. Bronson talks very fully, beginning on the nostrils, and urging his readers to breathe properly—a function which the mouth can never perform for the true orator—and ends with a large and fairly well-chosen collection of duly accented and italicized pieces in prose and verse.

To anybody who wants to load himself down with a more exhaustive and ambitious treatise, we can recommend the work of Mr. Andrew Comstock, assisted by Mr. Philip Lawrence. In this volume he may once more see the same young gentlemen on whom he used to gaze with astonishment in the introduction to 'Lovell's Speaker' a generation ago, and in works still older. Here they all are, with the same tight-fitting pantaloons, cut to the exact shape of the lower limbs, and revealing so plainly the articulation of the leg-bone and the thigh-bone at the knee; we see the same straight-cut body-coat with the wide lapels; the same fine expressive countenances as the gentlemen step forward, or start backward, or bow down with "divers cringes," as Evelyn said about the mass priest, under the influence of terror, or veneration, or pride, or aversion, or hope, or deprecation, or despair; the same remarkable systems of dotted lines surround each orator, and show as of old what cycles and epicycles, orb on orb, the hands described in giving dumb language to the various passions and emotions of the human soul—how the left hand of Satan, at the moment when he said "Princes," in addressing the rebel angels, was parallel with the cap of his shoulder, the thumb-edge of the hand being presented to the audience, and the hand held palm downward; how at "Potentates," the next word of the speech, the hand was stretched high above the head, palm outward; how at "Warriors," the third word, the left hand was extended downward so as to be parallel with the waist of the archangel, who wears in these spirited illustrations a Roman helmet, and a tunic belted around the middle; how at the phrase "Flower of heaven," the left hand went up above the head again, palm outward; how on each of these occasions the right hand was as vigorously and variously used as the left, and how the legs were not idle—all these visions may be beheld again by purchasing Messrs. Comstock's and Lawrence's 'Manual.' Much more may also be found in this book, a deal of it being such as only a musical person could understand, for the management of the voice is as fully and learnedly treated of as the motions of the legs and arms. Mr. Lawrence appears to have selected the prose and verse of this collection; and we have him again, quite untechnical, in a good enough collection of his own.

Curious for several reasons is the 'New Japan First Reader,' a queer little evidence of the vast change that has come over the Land of the Fountain of Light. The object of the compiler is different from that of most persons whose business it may be to make a primary reading-book. The Japanese boy who wishes to learn English is, as a rule, too old for the simple language which, although Mr. Griffis stigmatizes it as "baby-talk," is all well enough for the English and American beginners. The young Japanese "has usually passed the age of dogs, cats, rats, and foxes, and wishes something new. Having to crack hard nuts, he wants kernels"; he wishes for ideas, not discipline; to read, not to converse; to get information, not to learn idiom. Mr. Griffis's 'Reader,' then, although it begins small, and gives a small quantity of phrase-book matter in the first few pages, soon goes on to convey information of several degrees of importance concerning "our institutions," and the habits and customs of the American people. To this there is added some precisely similar information about Japan and the Japanese. Thus the American mode of dress, both the women's and the men's, is described and illustrated with woodcuts, the black dress-coat, by-the-bye, covering the form of the most prominent and gentlemanly person of the male group. The personages in the female group are all cheaply and modestly attired, and will perhaps serve to correct the false impression of our countrywomen conveyed by a Japanese artist who was over here a few years ago, and who borrowed his portraits of female Americans from journals of but slight claim to character. Then comes some letterpress and pictures relative to Japanese dress, which, we are told, is being superseded by our own costumes. Descriptions are also given of the American dwelling-house, breakfast-table, steamship, railroad, gasworks, and system of chronology, and of the Japanese abacus, man-power wagon, pack-horse, and coins. The book gives but very few and very faint indications of a wish to proselytize.

"Putnam's Elementary Science Series" (G. P. Putnam's Sons), now in course of publication, will comprise more than twenty small text-books on mathematics, physics, chemistry, natural history, and their practical applications. The series is an English one, and has been prepared with the special view of meeting the wants of "students in science and art classes and higher and middle class schools," and for the most part with direct reference to syllabuses furnished by the Government Science and Art Department. A part of the work has been done sufficiently well (as far as can be judged from an examination of the eight books already on sale), while other parts seem to have been allotted to persons only indifferently qualified for the task, and certainly inexperienced in the preparation of text-books. The 'Introduction to Astronomy' is conspicuous for its bad treatment of the subject, as well as a general clumsiness and obscurity of expression. Its chief faults are a lack of clearness in setting forth the elementary conceptions without which the beginner can make no progress, and the utter failure of the attempt to present in simple language such difficult matters as Foucault's pendulum experiment, the universal law of gravitation, and the methods of determining the distance of the sun. A single quotation will suffice to show the faulty character of some of the definitions. "The perpendicular distance [of a star] north or south of the equator is called the

declination, and the angular distance measured from the starting-point along the equinoctial is called the right ascension." The use of the two terms "equator" and equinoctial is unnecessary, to say the least; while the contrasting of "*perpendicular*" with "*angular*" distance, which is found again in the definitions of celestial latitude and longitude, is certainly misleading. To the subject of "Steam and the Steam-engine" two books are devoted; the one professing to treat of the "Locomotive," the other of "Land and Marine Engines." Why two volumes are printed instead of one we are unable to see. Nearly one hundred pages out of the one hundred and sixty in each volume are identical word for word, the two prefaces are alike, with the single exception of the word "locomotive" in one where "steam" is found in the other. By omitting what is introduced about the construction of railroads and other irrelevant matter, the two volumes could easily be brought within the compass of one, though even then the work would not be of much use to the students in the schools of this country. This leads us to say of the 'First Book of Mineralogy,' which in the main has been prepared with good judgment, that to any one who intends to pursue the subject further with the aid of American books its value is materially lessened by the fact that the nomenclature and classification adopted are so different from those in use by the best American mineralogists. A similar criticism would not hold against the 'Machine Construction and Drawing,' or the 'Practical Plane and Solid Geometry,' both of which seem to have been prepared with care. In regard to the latter there is some danger of the reader's being misled by its title. 'Practical Solid Geometry' is synonymous with descriptive geometry, as the term is used in this country. The writer has explained quite clearly the elementary principles of descriptive geometry, and given a very fair collection of problems on lines and planes, which our teachers of industrial drawing can put with advantage into the hands of their pupils. The Messrs. Putnam also announce an 'Advanced Science Series' as in course of publication.

Lockyer's 'Spectroscope and Its Applications' (Nature Series: Macmillan & Co.) is a handsome and handy little volume, giving, in the form of three lectures delivered in 1869, but now carefully revised, and in some parts expanded, a simple and attractive account of what has been done and is doing in one of the most interesting fields of modern scientific research. Though it may be regarded by some only as an introduction to a more extended course, yet it will be none the less welcomed by the general reader who wishes to keep as well informed as possible of the course of scientific discovery.

We have had opportunity to examine the proof-sheets of about half the new (4th) edition of Elderhorst's 'Blowpipe Analysis' (T. Ellwood Zell), edited by Professors Nason, of Troy, and Chandler, of Columbia College. The form of page has been changed, and numerous alterations and additions made. The insertion of woodcuts in the opening chapters remedies an important deficiency of the earlier editions. The revision seems to be thorough, though we cannot help wishing that the editors had abandoned in the third and fourth chapters the awkward abbreviations of Bx. for borax, Blp. for blowpipe, and S. Co. for cobalt solution, the three together occurring not over three dozen times in seventy-five pages. R. Fl. and O. Fl. occur more frequently, and are not so objectionable. The new edition, like the previous ones, will be confined to qualitative analysis.

Professor Warren's 'Elementary Course in Freehand Geometrical Drawing' (John Wiley & Son) is, we believe, both the last and the least of his numerous works on kindred subjects. Primarily intended for students and young draughtsmen, its forty-eight pages of examples and practical hints will be equally suited to the wants of all persons who have a fondness for training the hand and eye to the accurate estimation of distance and direction. The subject of "Geometric Symbolism," which makes up the concluding chapter, we hope the author will not expand to any greater length, at least not in a text-book. The conchoid of Nicomedes or the hyperbola may be more symbolic, but this will hardly overbalance the material advantages of a quadrangular arrangement for university buildings.

Two recent botanical works deserve somewhat special notice on account of their importance and wider than common interest. The new 'Genera Plantarum,' by Bentham and Hooker, having now advanced to the middle of its second volume, gives fair promise of early completion. The first 'Genera Plantarum' by Tournefort, the second by Linnæus, and the third by Jussieu, each in their day marked and made an epoch in the science. In this generation, that of Sprengel was only an edition of the Linnæan work, that of Endlicher a literary rather than an originally scientific elaboration. The present work is the true successor of that of Jussieu, and equally represents the result of a complete study of the original materials themselves, so far as they can be had; and the Kew establishment, now the acknowledged headquarters of botany, has almost everything within its reach. The amount of labor involved in a work like this, even after a lifetime of preparation, is immense. It is not a case of editing and combining the works of others, but of doing the work themselves, every order being actually elaborated by one or the other of these authors. In the portion recently published, for instance, there is the order of *Compositæ*, which comprises a full tenth part of all flowering plants, and that of *Rubiaceæ*, if only half as large, yet in proportion twice as difficult, each embodying a fearful amount of work such as requires uncommon courage to undertake, and calls for the unbounded gratitude of the systematic botanists of the day, for whom "the rough places are made smooth."

The 'General System of Botany' is an English translation and edition of Le Maout and Decaisne's 'Traite Général de Botanique," just published by the Longmans. The translation is by Mrs. Hooker; the editorial work, appendix, etc., by Dr. Hooker, the new and worthy president of the Royal Society, the only naturalist (in our modern sense of the word) who has held that distinguished office since Sir Joseph Banks. The volume we are noticing is a stout, small quarto of over a thousand pages, containing 5,500 figures—admirable woodcuts. Most of these figures are strictly original and from M. Decaisne's own drawings. Those which are not are taken from the best original sources, of which none make a better appearance than those of Isaac Sprague. These 5,000 illustrations of the second and main part of the work ("Descriptions and Illustrations of the Orders") render it of inestimable value to all serious students, especially to those who have not access to a full botanical library; and few indeed in this country possess that advantage. The first part of the book ("Outlines of Organography, Anatomy, and Physiology") is brief and somewhat restricted in the English edition. It is very good, but not so surpassingly excellent. The main body of the work well supplies, in this country and in all English-speaking countries, a great want. Particularly is it to be commended to medical students, all the medicinal and principal economical plants being indicated. It may help on the restoration of botany to its legitimate place in medical education in the United States. In no other part of the world, perhaps, does botany enter so conspicuously into a common education. In no other is it excluded from the medical curriculum.

To the already vast number of German grammars Dr. Henn has added a very rudimentary one, for which hardly more is claimed than that it is a modification of Ahn's 'Grammar.' It contains the slightest number of rules—none at all for the declension of nouns, for instance. In short, it gives the meagrest outline of some principles of German grammar, and occasionally with a very unsatisfactory statement; as when we are told that the German *i* is pronounced like *i* in *bit*, or *ee* in *meet*, with no explanation of this difference. Other cases might be found. In our opinion, it would be better to have a grammar with fuller statements, of which so much as might be desired could be omitted at the beginning of the study of the language. This will give eager students an opportunity to do more work than is absolutely required of them; the other kind of grammar seems as if it were made to keep all the students on one level, and that a low one.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles. *Publishers.—Prices.*

Ames (M. C.), Outlines of Men, Women, and Things.....(Hurd & Houghton)
A Slip in the Fens.....(Holt & Williams) $1 25
Butterfield (C. W.), Crawford's Campaign against Sandusky.(Robert Clarke & Co.)
Cairnes (J. E.), Political Essays.....(Macmillan & Co.) 3 50
Colman (J. F.), The Knightly Heart, and Other Poems.....(Estes & Lauriat) 2 00
Collier (W. F.) and Schmitz (L.), International Atlas.....(G. P. Putnam's Sons)
Dessaules (Hon. L. A.), La Grande Guerre Ecclesiastique, etc., swd.....(Alphonse Doutré)
Dickens (C.), New Stories, swd.....(T. B. Peterson & Bros.) 0 25
Fausset (A. R.), Jeremiah and Malachi, Vol. IV. of A Commentary, Critical, Experimental, and Practical, etc.....(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
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Hardy (T.), A Pair of Blue Eyes.....(Holt & Williams) 1 25
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Huxley (T. H.) and Tice (J. H.), Half-Hour Recreations in Popular Science. On Yeast. Relations between Matter and Force, swd.....(Estes & Lauriat) 0 25
Huxley (T. H.), Critiques and Addresses.....(D. Appleton & Co.)
Hudson (Rev. H. N.), School Shakespeare—Henry VIII., swd.....(Ginn Brothers) 0 40
Koner (W.) Zeitschrift der Gesellschaft für Erdkunde zu Berlin.....(Berlin: D. Reimer; New York: L. Schmidt)
Lane (E. W.), Old Medicine and New.....(London: J. A. Churchill)
Littell's Living Age, Fifth Series, Vol. II.....(Littell & Gay)
Logan (O.), They Met by Chance.....(Adams, Victor & Co.)
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Punshon (W. M.), Lectures and Sermons.....(Estes & Lauriat) 2 50
Pycroft (J.), A Course of English Reading.....(James Miller) 1 25
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Saigey (E.), The Unity of Natural Phenomena.....(Estes & Lauriat) 1 50
Savage (M. J.), Christianity the Science of Manhood.....(Noyes, Holmes & Co.)
Smith (E.), Foods.....(D. Appleton & Co.)
The Argument at Geneva, as published by Authority of the Government.....(D. Appleton & Co.)
Thomas (Annie), "'He Cometh not,' She Said," swd.....(Harper & Bros.) 0 50

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DICTIONARIES AND WORKS OF REFERENCE

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HARPER & BROTHERS, NEW YORK.

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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

JULY 28, 1873.

THE money market continues very easy. There have been occasional efforts to advance the rates of interest, but 5 per cent. may be stated as the highest, with the bulk of the business at 3 to 4½ per cent. on call loans, whilst time loans secured by first-class Stock Exchange collateral are quoted as follows: 30 days, 4 per cent.; 60 days, 4½ to 5½ per cent.; 90 days, 7 per cent., and for the remainder of the year, 7 per cent. gold. Time loans are difficult to procure for a longer period than the remainder of the year. In commercial paper, preference is given to that maturing in October —an evidence of a feeling of caution against any repetition of last year's stringency. For prime paper having three or four months to run the rates are 6½ to 7½ per cent.

The weekly statement of the city banks was favorable, especially in the item of legal tenders, which show an increase of $1,084,500. The loss of about a million in deposits explains the loss also of $1,088,100 in specie.

The following are the statements for the past two weeks:

	July 19.	July 26.	Differences.
Loans	$289,878,100	$289,389,100	Dec. $489,000
Specie	32,273,600	31,249,300	Dec. 1,024,300
Circulation	27,281,500	27,225,100	Dec. 56,400
Deposits	240,206,400	239,118,300	Dec. 1,088,100
Legal tenders	48,872,500	49,957,000	Inc. 1,084,500

The following shows the relation between the total reserve and the total liabilities:

	July 19.	July 26.	Differences.
Specie	$32,273,600	$31,249,300	Dec. $1,024,300
Legal tenders	48,872,800	49,957,000	Inc. 1,084,500
Total reserve	$81,146,100	$81,206,300	Inc. $60,200
Circulation	27,281,500	27,225,100	Dec. 56,400
Deposits	240,206,400	239,118,300	Dec. 1,088,100
Total liabilities	$267,487,900	$266,343,400	Dec. $1,144,500
25 per cent. reserve	66,871,975	66,585,850	Dec. 286,125
Excess over legal reserve	14,274,125	14,620,450	Inc. 346,325

The stock market as a rule has been firm, with sometimes little "spurts" of activity. The most important features of the week have been the advance in Harlem and Western Union Telegraph, and the semi-corner in Erie. In the first-named stock, the rise of 4½ per cent., to 134, on Saturday was due to large purchases by prominent operators, whose movements are supposed to have been caused by an offer of $3,000,000 to the Company for the city railroad, and the expectation of an extra dividend in the shape of scrip or bonds, based on the enhanced value of the city property, and also representing an undivided surplus, which under the terms of a recent lease with the New York Central is no longer required to be withheld. Telegraph stock has been remarkably firm on reports of an expected stock dividend, supplemented by vigorous purchasing on the part of Commodore Vanderbilt's friends, and their frequent hints that the inevitable Jay Gould had been caught short, and that the contest was really one of pluck and pocket between himself and the Commodore. In the Erie corner, but little trouble was experienced in making deliveries, and on Saturday the stock declined at the close to 59¾ against 61 cash at the opening. The redistribution of Northwest and its handsome earnings combine to promise renewed activity and higher prices for that old-time favorite. In St. Paul, an evident effort is being made to keep down the price to allow of large blocks of its shares being quietly bought up by a well-known heavy capitalist, whose efforts seem altogether directed that way; and to the initiated there are everywhere evidences upon which to base a hopeful prospect of higher prices and the commencement of a wider speculation than has been witnessed this year. The exception to this favorable view is that *bête noir* of the Exchange, Pacific Mail. The negotiations for a loan on the Company's San Francisco real estate having failed, a law firm, to whom was referred Judge Pierrepont's opinion against the legality of issuing bonds, props up Captain Bradbury's backbone with an insinuation that the "general authority to sell and convey includes the authority to mortgage." This is "*an opinion as is an opinion.*" The issue of the bonds may be confidently expected, and with equal confidence may it be conjectured that the trustees, willingly or not, will find themselves personally responsible therefor when the Company goes into bankruptcy or into the hands of Mr. Stockwell and the Panama Railroad.

The following shows the highest and lowest sales of the leading stocks at the Stock Exchange for the week ending July 26, 1873:

	Monday.	Tuesday.	Wed'day.	Thursday	Friday.	Saturday.	Sales.
N. Y. C. & H. R.	103⅞ 104⅛	104 104⅜	104¼ 104⅛	104¼ 104⅝	104¼ 104⅞	104⅜ 104⅝	29,000
Lake Shore	93⅝ 94	93⅝ 94½	93⅜ 93½	93⅜ 93⅝	93½ 94	93½ 93¾	41 500
Erie	60½ 65	59⅞ 62⅜	60⅜ 61⅝	61⅜ 62⅜	6 1/8 63	59⅝ 61	90,000
Do. pfd	71	71 73	72	71	72	....	....
Union Pacific	29⅛ 29⅜	28⅛ 29¼	27⅞ 28⅜	27⅞ 28¼	27⅝ 28¼	27⅜ 28	25,700
Chi. & N. W.	70⅜ 71½	69⅜ 70⅞	69¼ 69¾	69¼ 71	69 70½	69½ 69¾	27,100
Do. pfd	8 ½ 84	 84	83 84	.... 83¾	83 83½	....	800
N. J. Central	103½ 104	103⅜	102½ 103¼	102½	102	....	500
Rock Island	111⅜ 111¾	110⅜ 111⅝	110⅜ 111	110¼ 110¾	110¼ 110⅝	110½ 110¾	14,700
Mil. & St. Paul	53⅜ 53⅜	52¼ 52¾	51⅜ 52¼	51½ 52⅛	51½ 52⅜	51½ 51⅞	7,400
Do. pfd	74¾	.... 74¼	....	73⅝	73½ 73⅝	....	400
Wabash	72½ 73¼	71¾ 72⅜	71⅜ 7⅜	71½ 72¼	71⅜ 72	71½ 71⅜	25 900
D. L. & Western	100⅞ 101½	100⅝ 101⅜	100¼ 100⅝	100¾	100½ 100⅝	....	2,100
B. H. & Erie	3	2⅞ 3	2⅞	2⅞ 3	2⅞	....	2,700
O. & M.	41 41⅜	40¼ 41	39½ 40⅜	39⅝ 39⅞	39⅜ 39½	39½ 39¾	44 0 0
C. C. & I. C.	33¼ 33⅜	32½ 33⅜	32⅜ 33⅛	31⅝ 32⅜	31½ 32¼	31⅜ 31⅝	10,800
W. U. Tel.	90¼ 9 ⅜	90¼ 92⅛	90½ 91	90⅜ 91⅜	90½ 91⅜	91½ 91⅜	120,200
Pacific Mail	38⅜ 40	36¾ 39⅛	36⅜ 37⅛	36⅜ 38½	37⅜ 38⅛	37⅜ 38⅛	91,100

The market for Government bonds is firm. The Treasury transactions began and ended with the sale of 5.20's last week. The week closes on the basis of 118⅞ to 119 for the 5.20's of 1867. Transactions in State bonds have been small, and confined to the most prominent. The report of an injunction restraining the State of Missouri from selling the Missouri Pacific Railroad is not unfavorable to the State, as the unsettling of financial affairs by a sale of the roads involved in the question at issue could hardly be otherwise than calamitous. In railroad bonds the business has not been large, but has been pretty well distributed. The sinking fund loan of $6,000,000 of the Lake Shore Railroad is reported by the agents to be closed out. Some attention has been attracted to auction sales of the bonds of the Willimantic R. R. Co. (principally known by the Brooklyn Trust Co. affair) and of the Midland equipment and Montclair bonds. The first were sold at 30, and the last two, as reported, at 14 and 40 respectively. It is announced that of the $8,000,000 consolidated mortgage bonds which the Chicago and Alton Railroad Company propose issuing, $3,470,000 will be set apart to retire and cancel bonds now outstanding and maturing. This year $1,500,000 of the remainder will be put on the market to build the bridge over the Mississippi at Louisiana, Mo., purchase steel rails, etc., etc. The remainder will be "issued as circumstances may require."

The gold market at the close of the week is dull and lower; on Saturday opening at 115¾ and closing at 115⅝. The bull party has been somewhat helped by a total shipment of $3,944,533 in specie last week, some of which, considering the low current rates of exchange, must have been for effect, like a school-boy's whistling to keep his courage up. The easy feeling and reduction of Bank rate in England have naturally produced an easier feeling in gold and exchange here. At the Treasury sale of $1,000,000 on Thursday, the total bids amounted to $2,635,000. Customs receipts of the week amount to $2,472,000.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 7, 1873.

The Week.

THE "Allen County Movement," as it is called in Ohio, is a movement of Liberal or Reform Democrats, who believe that both the existing parties are mere stumbling-blocks in the way of reform and progress, and desire to see a new party, founded by the honest men of both parties, but still possibly retaining the name of Democrats, take the field. On the other hand, the Liberal Republicans of Ohio are Republicans who also believe that both the existing parties are mere stumbling-blocks in the way of reform and progress, and also desire to see a new party formed by the honest men of both parties, but as to its designation they are not at all nice. To the most casual observer the objects of these two parties are strikingly similar. The Allen County Democrats, in convention assembled, resolved some little time since that they invite the people of Ohio, without regard to past political associations, to meet at Columbus in mass convention on the 30th of July, "to take such action as the exigencies of the times demand." By a natural coincidence, the Liberal Republicans were to hold a convention in the same city of Columbus on the same day. In accordance with the decision of a caucus held on the 29th, the Liberal Republicans decided to unite with the Allen County Democrats, and on the 30th, having done so, a joint, or, as it is called by its enemies, a "conglomerate" convention was held, a platform adopted, and a mixed State ticket nominated, the names on which are not known outside of Ohio. The meeting is said to have been held in a small apartment, to prevent the capture of the Convention by "John G. Thompson's bummers," a wise precaution which other conventions would do well to follow.

The Ohio papers, politicians, and public men seem to be very much distraught by this new movement. Mr. Groesbeck, for example, says that he does not wish to leave the old Democratic homestead; he likes it, and always has liked it; yet he cannot but think that the Democratic party is a "spoiled" party. Mr. Thurman, on the other hand, thinks that the Allen County movement is all a blunder, and appears to believe that Democracy is on the eve of a revival. The *Enquirer*, the leading Democratic organ, strongly supports Senator Thurman's position, and ventures the assertion that the Democracy will pay no attention to the Allen County people or the Liberal Republicans and their doings. The platform, however, of these parties in joint-convention seems well enough, although it is much sneered at by the Administration papers as negative and platitudinarian. It asserts, for one thing, that a tariff should be for revenue alone; for another, that by some means there must somehow be a reform of the civil service; and, for another, that we have gone too far away from the wholesome principle of local self-government. Platitudinarian or not, we suppose no one would read the resolution about centralization, which is the one most contemned, and not suspect that, after the success of the new party, revenue cutters would not be so much employed in Louisiana politics as they have been. Of the Liberal Republicans, or rather of the dissatisfied Reformers who were never of that pretended party, General Cox and Judge Stallo have spoken. So far as we can make out, they give a qualified adhesion to the movement. General Cox significantly advised the ratification meeting to remember that in such matters haste was made slowly, and success not to be soon expected. And this, we take it, he said less with reference to the numbers embodied in the nascent organism, for indeed their success is not worth any man's talking about, let alone General Cox's, but because he is of opinion that the truly reforming party of the future is yet to appear, and that as yet but little has been done in the way of getting it on foot. As for the Democracy and the Republicans, Liberal journals are hardly to be trusted to talk; they are somewhat hampered in all their dealing with the movement; for one thing, a number of old prophecies that the Democratic party was to die stand over from last year embarrassing them much, and with these are a number of ingenious proofs that, if the Democracy died, Republicanism also would perish. All the facts, however, point to something like an old-fashioned fight between the two great parties. The principal candidate of the joint party, or People's Party, as it is proposed to call it, is a respectable Democratic judge, Mr. Collins, and the rest of the ticket is made up of alternate Liberal Republican and Democratic names.

Certainly nobody is just now greedy for politics. Not even the "intellectual department, half European," of a distinguished contemporary of ours—which, by the way, some of its envious rivals accuse of going down to Castle Garden on the arrival of emigrant vessels from Queenstown, and then and there obtaining future members of said department by casting the lasso—has been equal to the task of rousing the country to the impending danger of "Cæsarism." Everybody has refused also to discuss with the customary fertility of epithet the Third Term Question. Politics have to be always going on nevertheless, and this year and this summer are like the other years and seasons in this respect. In Virginia there is some local excitement—a Virginia governor's term lasting four years, and Governor Walker's being on the eve of expiring. He was elected in 1869 by a majority of more than 18,000, and the State was definitely handed over to the Conservative or white party. Last year, however, owing to the inability of some Conservatives to look with patience, and of others to look with seriousness, on the nomination of the late Mr. Greeley, Grant actually carried the State by between one and two thousand majority—not the least unpredictable of the singular things in that curious campaign. Upon this result some persons are basing expectations that the Republican party ticket is to be successful in November next. Perhaps solider ground may be that occupied by those who expect the Federal Administration to work very hard for the success of that ticket, and who think that an influence favorable to such success will be exercised on the minds of many voters by the knowledge that the Administration favors the internal-improvement system. Virginia would like very much to see canals through the Alleghanies, and, as the Administration organ coolly remarks, she will be much more likely to see them if the State is "under Republican auspices" after November than if she remains Conservative. Democrats, it appears, deserve no canals and no prosperity. Colonel Hughes, the Republican candidate, was formerly the editor of a Confederate paper, but early became reconstructed and since the war has acted with the Republican party. His Conservative competitor, almost certain to be successful against him, as we suppose, has not yet been named.

Mr. Smith, who is said to be the chief manager of the Farmers' movement in Illinois, has been "interviewed" by the *Tribune* correspondent to whom we have once or twice before referred, and made several statements with regard to railroad "rings," some of which are interesting because they are true, and some because they are very much the opposite. He makes complaint that the cost of running the roads is unnaturally increased, in many instances, by illegitimate contracts in which the officers of the roads have an interest. For example, there is one road which has a patent "shoot" for coal at Kewanee, Illinois, where it takes 40 tons a day. The miner sells coal at the bank for $1 75 a ton. It costs 25 cents to cart it to the "shoot," so that the price there ought to be $2 a ton. Nevertheless, the company pays $2 75. There must, Mr. Smith says, be "some cat under that meal." This is very true, but

Mr. Smith seems to be of opinion that the people who are directly injured by such operations as this are the farmers, when in reality it is the stockholders, the very stockholders against whose exorbitant income the farmers are crying out. If, whenever there was an illegitimate coal contract, the rates of freight were raised, the farmers might fairly complain. Mr. Smith actually believes that this is done. He says "the rates of freight and fare are fixed with reference to the dividends it is desired to make." This statement is monstrous, for, as every one knows, there are dozens of railroads in the country which declare regular dividends on their stock, and whose freight rates nevertheless do not materially differ from the freight rates of roads which never declare any dividends at all. According to Mr. Smith, the rates ought to rise with the dividends. With regard to the Granges, it should be noticed that one of their objects is the purchase, through co-operation, of farming and domestic machinery, without the intervention of middlemen, at wholesale prices.

A transaction to which some of the local newspapers give a very dubious complexion, and which, at any rate, is full of instruction to everybody, has just taken place in Boston. There are in Massachusetts about one hundred and fifty State constables, whose main business is to enforce the Prohibitory Law, so-called, and of these twelve are stationed in Boston. Last week these twelve were requested by the Commissioners to resign, and, all but one refusing to do so, they were all dismissed. Two explanations of this action have been offered. One is, that the law ought to be enforced, and that these men have been inefficient, perhaps corrupt, in enforcing it, and were rightly turned out. The other is as follows: These constables may be said to have had in their hands, and entirely at their mercy, every man of the hundreds and hundreds of liquor-dealers in Boston. They not only could demand a daily salary for leaving the dealer free to sell to his customers, but in a vast number of cases they could, just as easily as taking money, send him and his barkeepers to the House of Correction. Now, as it appears, the liquor-sellers of Boston are like their order in our other large cities, in being very important men in the political world. They take an interest in politics, and they control many voters of the class that go to the primary meetings. Just at present it is important that their influence should not be cast in favor of Butler, yet they must do as their constable orders them, and Butler, if all this story is true, some time since secured the constables. These latter, therefore, were dismissed, and Butler is probably not to have so complete a control of the caucuses as it had been supposed he would have. Heavy firing may be expected in the direction of Massachusetts during this month and next. It will be seen that what with the opposition of the moral elements of the community; the coldness or hostility of the capitalist element, which in Massachusetts can be extremely powerful; and the sharpness of a set of State politicians who for a dozen years have had the party machine at their fingers-ends down to the minutest wire, and who would appear to be determined to use it, General Butler must work very hard if he means to win.

Whatever may be the political significance or insignificance of the removal of the Boston constables, the discussion attendant reveals some of the enormous difficulties that surround this question of prohibitory legislation, and which are quite as likely to surround it in other places as in Boston. As to the way in which the law has been enforced, the ex-constables' story presents some striking instances. Not long ago, a Commissioner called in a certain officer, and asked him why he did not shut up the bar of the Waverley House in Charlestown. He replied: "Give me an order to do so, and I will execute it." The gentleman in authority replied that the constable knew the law and was in duty bound to enforce it. But no written order came; "the officer never saw fit to make a prosecution in that place," and we suppose the Waverley House goes on selling liquors to whosoever chooses to buy across the counter. Such is the condition of public opinion. Rather, such is the condition of the public opinion of one-half of the public: "About a month ago, Chief Boynton went down to the rooms of the constables, and told them they were not doing business enough in their line; they must bring in more 'nuisances' and 'common sellers,' so a number of raids were made for a short time, and public opinion, which the constables consider to have been the gauge of action, was appeased." A statute which the higher and lower officials charged with its execution bandy between them, one set saying, "You execute it," and the other replying, "Give us a written order; we are not going to have the responsibility shoved off on us," certainly is not an ornament to any American statute-book. Yet Massachusetts has for twenty years been busy with this sort of legislation, now doing it, now undoing it, and all the time the air has been full of charges of bribery on the part of liquor-dealers, perjury on the part of jurors, corruption on the part of prosecuting officers, political terrorism on the part of constables, commissioners, and party managers.

Some lurid light has been thrown on the domestic-service question in New York by the report of Messrs. Laimbeer and Stern on the subject of the "Free Labor Bureau." Few people, perhaps, know what this Bureau is. In 1869, it seems, by the insertion of a clause in the tax-levy of that year, the sum of $10,000 was appropriated for the purpose of opening "a free intelligence-office for the poor and stranger seeking employment and information." The expenses of the Bureau gradually reached the sum of $21,333 66, some eleven thousand dollars more than the appropriation. This, however, the Commissioners think, would not matter much "if the institution had become in reality a medium of exchange between the honest, well-meaning, and well-behaved servant and the classes in need of help." They state, with regret, however, that the expectations of those who hoped for this result were not fulfilled, and that examination reveals the fact that the institution has become the resort of bands of "nomadic servants," "that wander from place to place, from mistress to mistress, with no known intention to remain longer in one place than it may suit their temporary whim and purpose." With the existence of these hordes we were all familiar enough, but few people probably attributed their numbers and strength to its proper cause. The Commissioners recommend (and their recommendation has been adopted by the Commissioners of Charities and Corrections) that the Bureau shall be continued for three months under a semi-military discipline, and then, if it does not work better, that it be abolished. Hereafter, nomad cooks and waiters may expect to find themselves looked upon with increased reserve.

The reform government which was erected by Congress two years ago in the District of Columbia appears to be on its last legs. It has incurred a debt of some $17,000,000, which, for its territory of sixty square miles, and small fixed population, is an enormous sum, and has begun to pay its subordinate employees in small bonds of the denomination of $50, instead of ready money. It is rumored that the Governor and the Board of Public Works intend retiring when Congress meets; and an attempt will probably then be made to saddle the debt upon the United States, where, indeed, it in great measure belongs, for it is to Congress that the creation of this government was due. The most singular thing about the history of this matter is that ever since Congress set up the government its financial proceedings have been thoroughly exposed in the newspapers, and the gravest doubts thrown upon its credit. Nevertheless, it has had no difficulty in negotiating loans, and has continued to do so until the bottom of its credit has been fairly knocked out.

The English newspapers are beginning to notice the decline of public interest in Parliamentary debates. The debates, which used to be published in full and read with attention, are now sadly cut

down, and in some cases wholly omitted. This is not only true of the speeches of inferior orators, but of some of those of the leaders of the House of Commons. A discussion is going on in the English press as to the cause of this phenomenon; and the true conclusion would seem to be that the public takes less interest in the debates because they are really less interesting than they used to be. The multiplication of the interests of the reading public has become so great that, mostly for the sake of proportion, a newspaper is obliged to curtail its parliamentary, or in this country, congressional and legislative columns. Formerly the newspapers here were as eager to publish the legislative debates as they ever have been in England; now the merest summary is all that it is thought the public can be made to endure. The *Pall Mall Gazette* thinks that oratory itself is a thing of the past; that successful speeches do not, as they once did, secure votes; the explanation of this being, probably, that votes in the English Parliament are more and more influenced, as they are with us, by the party machinery outside than by mere human persuasion within.

Mr. Joseph Arch, the leader of the farm-laborers' movement in England, is coming to this country in August to see whether the United States affords a fit home for the over-crowded farm-laborers of England. At a recent "demonstration" at Newbury, he told his audience that,

"if he found there a home for the agricultural laborers of England, he should tell them so; but if he found that farmers in America were men who wanted both sides of the bargain, and that the crows were as black there as here, he would advise them to stay in England. If he found America was the true home of the working-man, where the son of the poor man could sit down by the children of the rich, write on the same slate, and read out of the same book, and where they could have full electoral power, he would stand on her shores until he had drained the laboring serfs out of England, in order that they might settle in the fruitful field of America, with its ninety millions of acres yet untilled; and he would do this until the farmers of England were made to bite the dust if they refused to treat their laborers like men."

Mr. Arch has so far shown himself a sensible man, and we dare say he will know how to take care of himself over here; but it is greatly to be hoped for our own sake and his, and for the sake of the persons whom he will represent, that the reception he meets may be of an intelligent and moral kind, and that he may not be allowed to fall a prey to swindlers and designing politicians.

On the 12th of last month, M. Beulé, the Minister of the Interior, whose press circular created a scandal a few weeks ago, was taken to task in the Assembly for having given notice that members might have their speeches printed and circulated, and for having afterwards withdrawn the word "circulated." M. Beulé replied that deputies had, by the rules of the Chamber, the right to have their speeches printed—and the Government would not object to the circulation of speeches, except such as might be calculated to disturb the country. This explanation was received with a good deal of noise; and shortly afterwards a perfect tumult was occasioned by the remarks of a colonial deputy, who complained of language used by M. De Kendrel in speaking of the Colonial Jury Bill. It seems that M. De Kendrel had been guilty of committing himself to two propositions, both undeniably true, but also full of meaning. The first was that there was some difference between French and English colonies; and the second, that there was no party in London which excited one class against another in the colonies. Confusion ensued, and was only ended by the Acting-President, M. Benoist D'Azy, putting on his hat. The sitting afterwards being resumed, a discussion took place on universal suffrage, which led to nothing at all but a great speech from Gambetta, and a declaration of the Minister of Justice that the ministry were not conspiring against universal suffrage, but, on the contrary, only desired to be the servants of order and liberty.

At the next sitting, the Minister of Justice brought in a bill conferring upon the Permanent Committee, which will sit during the recess, the right of authorizing the prosecution of persons guilty of insulting the Assembly. This brought out strong protests from the left; M. Arago accusing the Government of desiring to establish a new Committee of Public Safety, and M. Gambetta exhorting the Government, or rather those supporters of the Government who are also Orleanists, to recollect their early devotion to the British constitution, and not to be such apostates to English traditions as to make an attempt on the liberty of the press. Other speakers followed M. Gambetta, and a stormy scene ensued; but finally, according to the report, amid much roaring and gesticulation, the Government carried its point and the bill was declared "urgent." These turbulent debates would not in themselves be of much importance, if they were not indications that the existing Government begins to feel its strength more and more. At this distance, a parliamentary discussion of the sweetness and beauty of free speech, in an assembly composed of gentlemen who are unable to discuss the general subject itself without getting into such a tumult of passion that they are silenced by their own noise, is rather amusing.

Italian affairs have been unexciting since the ten days' ministerial crisis beginning on the 25th of June. The retirement of Sella was brought about by an ineradicable difference between himself and the Minister of War, in which both were technically in the right, though Sella was probably the less discreet. In spite of the delay of Minghetti in forming a new cabinet, not the least disturbance took place in Rome, nor did any occur when it appeared that no attempt had been made by the Premier to form a coalition with the Left, to whose accidental co-operation he owed his position. Signors Lanza and Sella, so far from seeking the arms of the Opposition, assisted materially their successor in his difficult task, and furnished an additional proof of the good sense and patriotism of the present race of Italian statesmen. Scialoja, the able Minister of Public Instruction, Visconti-Venosta, distinguished for his prudent conduct of foreign affairs, and the Minister of War, Ricotti, remain in the Government. Of the strength of the new ministry it is difficult to judge, but those friendly to it fear that Minghetti, who, for the present, has charge of the finances, may experience the same difficulty with his colleague, Ricotti, that Sella did. He is, however, possessed of greater tact than his predecessor, and probably came to an understanding with his War Minister before inviting him to hold over. For the rest, parties are in much the same state of flux and dissolution that they are in the United States, and, as here, questions of the public debt, the currency, and the economical administration of the Government occupy the first place in the concerns of the present and of the immediate future. The material interests of the kingdom, and no longer general principles of unification and church and state, will determine the composition and policy of parties.

The part taken by the clergy in the funeral ceremonies of Rattazzi has drawn from the Pope a sharp censure, though it is alleged that his remarks were doctored in the report, and made stronger than they were in reality. The offending priests have not ventured to assert their innocence, and their apology has furnished a petty triumph to the Jesuits. The contemplated excommunication, on account of the Religious Corporations Acts will, it is announced, not descend to the detail of mentioning names, but will blast the adversaries of the Church in a lump, in phraseology little different from that found so effectual on previous occasions. A fresh cry of persecution has been raised on account of an order from the Prefect of Perugia, who simply acted under instructions from the Government, prohibiting the usual August pilgrimage to Assisi. This being a cholera year, he alleges a sanitary necessity for putting a stop to what, on considerations of police, is also a source of public peril. The people of Assisi are not debarred from visiting the shrine of St. Francis as often as they see fit.

CANADA.

THE little tempest which has been raging in the British province of Manitoba, though it may not involve a question of international law, will serve to direct some attention toward the peculiar condition of the country or provinces lying along our northern frontier. So far as the arrest or kidnapping of Gordon is concerned, the question, we are inclined to think, is little more than one of common law. The privilege of bail is an important one, carefully fostered by the common law, and the benefit arising from it is all on one side, and the relations between a prisoner and his surety are of an honorary and obligatory character; for all of which reasons, the common law makes all possible intendments in favor of the surety, allowing him to retake the person on bail at any time or place, and treating the relation between them as a *quasi* agreement to that effect. The foundation of the Gordon case, therefore, is not an offence against the laws of this country, by which our Government becomes a party, but an agreement between two men, to the end that if the one would go bail, and thereby enable the other to be released from arrest, the latter would surrender himself whenever and wherever requested. In extradition cases, the matter is between governments, and the obligation arises from treaty stipulations. Here the matter is between two individuals, and the obligation, if any, springs from their voluntary relations. The question, therefore, is simply whether the courts of a country will allow such an agreement to be enforced when it arose within another jurisdiction, and whether they will aid a foreigner in enforcing it just as they will aid him to carry out any other agreement not repugnant to their own law. Some of the newspapers have spoken of such an arrest as valid if made in another State, but as illegal if made beyond the bounds of the United States. We do not, however, perceive the grounds upon which this distinction must rest. The obligation upon a State to allow such an arrest must be imposed either by the Constitution of the United States or by ordinary international comity. The Constitution extends only to criminals and persons escaping from servitude, and therefore does not impose any such obligation. If such arrests have been held valid, it must have been upon the doctrine of the common law and ordinary principles of international comity—a doctrine and principles as applicable to Minnesota and Manitoba as to New York and New Jersey. The excitement at Fort Garry seems to be chiefly due to a fellow-feeling for a vagabond like Gordon, and it is noticeable how little the Canadian press seems to care about the matter. Nevertheless, these border difficulties are never without the chance of growing into international complications. In this case, there may have been some criminal intent underlying the attempt of a surety to retake his escaped principal, and the American consul may have mixed himself up in the matter in an extra-official way. The judges of Manitoba have committed the "kidnappers" for trial before the "Court of Queen's Bench," and have refused bail; and the affair suggests some enquiry as to the courts and government which will have to deal, at least in the first instance, with the prisoners' case.

The name Canada has been withdrawn from the old French province, and applied to the new federation of British provinces, which now forms a government hardly less than independent. Invested with power to make laws, to coin money, to enter into commercial and postal treaties, and even to levy duties upon British imports, yet with its executive officers directly under the control of the Crown, and its judiciary subject to the review of the Privy Council, it is something more than a province and less than a nationality, to which the term "Dominion" has been appropriately applied. In withdrawing the old historic name of Canada from two of the provinces and extending it to all, good taste and judgment were shown; for it is a name original and appropriate, and full of old heroic and religious associations. In renaming the younger or western province, it was also natural that it should take the melodious Indian name of the great lake which lies beside it; but we may question the propriety of giving the name of Quebec, which was and always has been strictly local, to the entire province of Lower Canada, and it would seem as if the designation of Ontario for the upper province might have suggested for the lower that of St. Lawrence, or the original, Cadaraqui.

The political position of Canada has always been something of an anomaly. Of all the British provinces at the time of the American Revolution, Canada, it must seem to the historian, ought to have been the first to revolt. It was a conquered province. The conquest was not yet twenty years old, so that the youth of twenty who witnessed the siege of 1759, and saw the house of the Jesuit fathers taken for English barracks in 1760, was still a young man when he heard from Concord the shot "heard round the world." The conquered were a people differing from their conquerors in race, language, and religion, the three elements above all others which should have kept alive the fires of discontent. Finally, their countrymen were the friends and allies of the revolutionists, and had been for generations and centuries the enemies of the English. The first settlements in Canada and New England were due to religious causes, and both had been maintained against the same extraordinary hardships in countries identical in the rigors of soil and climate. Each should have produced a hardy race equally intent on the maintenance of their rights. But the quiet contentment of the French peasant, his dislike of change and indifference to constitutional principles, were never so completely demonstrated as by his conduct at that time. One race deliberately went into seven years of war for a principle; the other were passively loyal to their new rulers, because they found their taxes lighter and their personal liberty more assured than they had ever been before. The peasant (or rather small proprietary) character of the population extends to all of the provinces, and may explain the subsequent apathy in matters of government; for in 1861, out of a male population of about 750,000, there were not less than 333,604 farmers, and only 160,702 laborers.

The traveller in Canada at the present time is generally struck with the want in the people of a sense of nationality. Of the true provincial spirit, with its petty vanity and still smaller prejudices, there is undoubtedly plenty; but the majority of the people do not seem to know to whom they belong. In the oldest province, a large majority are French-speaking, with French customs, and to-day governed under old French laws. A part are English, keeping up a close connection with the mother country, and manifestly feeling that politically they have hardly got beyond it. Not a small part, particularly among the active, money-making classes, are Americans; and a number of native-born Yankees, "naturalized" into British subjects, are generally to be found in the Canadian Parliament. The least prominent are the English-speaking natives of the provinces. Undoubtedly, the same causes which have operated to make the American what he is, are operating physically and morally with them. The English characteristics of speech seem to drop off, especially among the lower and middle classes, so that it needs a practised ear to detect a difference in pronunciation or intonation between the American and the Canadian. Frontier life, too, seems to produce the same swaggering, powerful, uncivilized creature as with us; and we note in the forensic efforts of Manitoba the same "hifalutin" so familiar on our own side of the border, and the ungracious incident that Mr. Attorney-General Clarke, though holding a commission from the vicegerent of the Queen, cut his opponent's argument short by throwing our national utensil, a spit-box, in his face, and calling him a dirty puppy, in open court.

But so far as national influence can be traced, it is apparent that the most potent is that of the United States rather than of England. The traveller's trunks are termed baggage and not luggage. In his drives he finds that vehicles turn out for each other to the right and not to the left. The places where he makes his purchases are known as stores and not as shops. And the money of the country, coined in its own mint, has become dollars and cents, and the pounds, shillings, and pence of the mother country are as unknown in the daily traffic of Quebec as of New York.

But it is most notably in the form of government in the provinces that the influence of the United States has been felt. The model

after which the federation was framed was confessedly the American Constitution, varying from it only so far as was necessary to maintain "the Sovereign of Great Britain as its sole and only head." Hence it reminds us in its fundamental principle of that plan which Burke proposed a century ago; and the same experiment is now beginning which, if it had been begun in 1773, might have resulted in the United States being now a magnificent province of the British Empire. But, notwithstanding its variations from the model, the characteristic of the federation is the American idea of government; or, as was said by Sir John Macdonald in some of the earliest consultations on the subject, "the remedy was a federal union of all the provinces, local matters being committed to local bodies, and matters common to all to a general legislature, constituted on the well-understood principles of federal government." In carrying out this idea and coupling it with that of continued fealty to the British sovereign, the entire executive of the provinces was kept directly or indirectly under the control of the crown. The Governor-General is in the first place appointed by the crown, and it is he who appoints the governors of the different provinces, who are styled lieutenant-governors, and paid by the general government. As in England and America, the legislative power is vested in two houses; and as in both England and America, the lower house is elected directly by the people. But the upper house is a curious mixture of the two countries, taking from the Senate to a limited extent the element of provincial apportionment, and from the House of Lords, so far as practicable, the aristocratic element of appointment by the crown and of holding the position for life. How legislators holding office for life on the one hand, but selected from the most respectable and intelligent ranks of society on the other, will work on American soil, especially when the greater part of them become old men, whose political prominence is connected with bygone questions, will be an interesting subject of future political study. But the federation differs materially from our own government in having but one judicial system. The plan, however, is ingeniously flexible, and designed to administer both local and general law. The judges are appointed by the Governor-General; they hold office for life; they are paid by the general government, and are removable only by the concurrent action of the federal Parliament and the Governor-General. Yet they can be appointed only from the bar of the province in which they are to serve, and they then become to all intents judges of that province. As to the laws which they administer, each province can enact its own in civil matters; but there is one criminal system for all. The arrangement is as though we had a single criminal code in the United States, and the judges appointed by the President administered both Federal and State laws. We perceive greater unity and simplicity in the plan, but are not prepared to say that it is better adapted for the United States than our own.

While there are many resemblances between our own federal history and that of the Dominion, there are also some contrasts. In America, the colonies were welded into nationality by the fires of a prolonged and painful war; in Canada, the provinces have drifted together in the progress of events. With us, the moving cause was the redress of grievances; with the provinces, it has been the expectation of improvement in material things. The American revolutionists took up arms to maintain principles and rights which had been disregarded by the British Government; but much more than the colonists of 1775 asked for has been accorded by the British Government at the mere request of Canada. The separation of the two countries with us was the work of the weaker, but now it is the mother country which is looking towards separation, and the Dominion which is most anxious to avert it. Whether that separation will come or be for ever postponed will depend on America, her growth and advancement and relations with Great Britain. Whether in case of separation Canada will be absorbed in the United States, or grow into a great and independent nation, is beyond useful conjecture. But let it be understood as elements of the problem that the new Dominion has now a population not differing much from that of the State of New York, but greater than that of Holland, Denmark, Switzerland, or Greece, and with a territory larger than that of the United States and nearly equal to the whole of Europe.

HOPES AND FEARS OF THE AMERICAN ABROAD.

THE *Anglo-American Times* of July 19 contains a very sensible article entitled "How the Republic gets a Bad Name," from which the casual reader would be likely to infer that any American who goes abroad just now might as well prepare to have himself looked upon as presumptively belonging to the class known to the police as habitual criminals.

> "If an individual lost no opportunity of letting it be known that he was a bad man; that he cheated when he got the chance; that he was an adept in creating these chances; that he could deceive and rob as a pickpocket, or bludgeon and rob as a highwayman; that he was without principle, and could slander as readily as steal—ought that man to be surprised and annoyed if he is spoken of abroad as wicked and one to be avoided? Were he to urge that what is said of him was untrue, the answer is—'You said it yourself!' Nor would the reply be satisfactory if he added—'Oh! that was myself in controversy, not myself in fact.' The great daily journals of the United States have been doing all they can to spread the notion abroad that the American community is dishonest; is not to be trusted commercially; electing judges who sell justice, and legislatures who sell measures. Two American parties, engaged in a furious political controversy, are endeavoring to heap opprobrium on each other; and as the nation may be broadly said to be divided into these two, when each is accused of the deepest corruption, the sight presented abroad, as seen through such spectacles, is not gratifying to American pride and self-respect."

Such charges as these are grave matters. The newspaper we have just quoted very truly says that there are two causes at work which produce in the minds of foreigners an exaggerated opinion of American dishonesty; first, the relatively greater amount of business done with the United States than with other countries; second, the spirit of exaggeration and want of self-restraint of the leading organs of public opinion.

In the first of these explanations there is no doubt a great deal of truth. The commercial relations of America with London, Frankfort, Berlin, and Hamburg are so close that thousands of Englishmen and Germans are compelled to follow current events here with a great deal of care. They hear almost as soon as we do of our railroad frauds, bank suspensions, legislative or judicial scandals, and, reading of them, very likely in scathing editorials, form exaggerated conclusions about the country in which such things take place. To take, for instance, London. London is the great lending market of the world. The United States is a country of borrowers. The transactions of London with the United States probably equal the transactions of London with all the countries outside the British Empire.

> "We have, then, the United States on one hand, and all the countries in which these centres invest and lend on the other; and as a consequence, to be as bad, the shortcomings in the United States ought to be equal to the total of all the others. But no such calculation is ever made; for if a railway yields no dividend, if a State stops payment, if a mine proves a swindle in the United States, the name of the Republic is called out as a defaulter, and this name reiterated, leads to the impression that there is more of such default in the United States than in any other borrowing country; and so there is. But the calculation should be, the United States against all these countries put together, and then, a fair average being struck, it would be shown that, instead of being more, there was less default in proportion there than elsewhere."

This calculation, which we believe to be quite just, ought certainly to be some consolation to the depressed American travelling public. Of the second explanation we cannot say so much; not that it is not true that the press of this country is wanting in self-restraint and filled with a spirit of exaggeration, as because the acknowledgment of this fact does not seem to mend matters. The press does exaggerate and distort; but at the same time, the press being the recognized organ of public opinion, the natural inference would be that the public itself was wanting in self-restraint and filled with a spirit of exaggeration and immorality. "After a foreigner had glanced through a file of a New York daily, and read a record of the crime, the denunciation of Congress for a salary grab, the closing scene of the reform legislature at Albany, the history of a culminated 'corner' in Wall Street, the charge against some judge, and the announcement that a State will not pay its

half-yearly interest; also a series of leaders declaring the nation to be on the high-road to disruption from the prevalence of corruption, is it surprising that the man laughs outright when he is told, 'Yes, there is truth in all the paper says; yet the community, as a whole, is the most moral, religious, and upright in the world; the most progressive, and with the best backbone'?"

It is, nevertheless, perfectly true that the impression derived from the file of the New York daily by the foreigner is incorrect, as any one may convince himself, if he chooses to attempt so laborious an experiment, by living for a short time in this very city itself, and comparing the actual life he sees with the impressions of life derived from his "daily." He will certainly find that this period of greed, and this era of the pistol and the knife, has been painted by his ambitious editor darker than it is.

The truth is that American public opinion, which has always been slow to move, and very powerful when once in motion, has been in the years which have succeeded the war undergoing a slow but gigantic change. The change is nothing less than a change from an attitude of self-laudation to an attitude of self-criticism and self-denunciation, which finds its expression of course in the press. If the foreigner who finds such conclusive proof of the rascality of Americans in the editorials of his American daily will turn back to an old file of the same daily, he will find that a few years—a very few years ago—its tone was quite different; he will find that the same press was then confidently boasting to the world of the possession by America, to a point of superabundance, of the very virtues which it now denies to her altogether. This change marks the difference between two points in American history which, we believe, when the whole of it comes to be written, will be seen to be as wide apart as the period of the foundation of the government after the Revolution was from the period of colonial dependence which preceded it. A conservative period of self-examination, distrust, criticism, censure, and we may sometimes say self-contempt, is different indeed from a period of mutual admiration and buoyant hopefulness. The application of this to the condition of the press is obvious. Before the war and during the war, it was the function of the press to blow trumpets, beat drums, and sing hosannas over the progress of the country; since the war, it has been the function of the press, which it has more or less clearly perceived, to do the exact opposite. On both occasions it has run into extremes. When a man is young and full of hope, and has brilliant prospects in life, he exaggerates the opportunities of the future in every possible way. When he has seen sorrow and adversity, and discovered by experience that there are no royal roads to success, he is very apt to begin to doubt his own capacity, to criticise his past efforts, and he is fortunate indeed if he does not exchange for a tone of boastful conceit a tone of almost equally objectionable distrust and cynicism. If most men of mature years published every morning a bulletin of their feelings about themselves for the benefit of the public, it may very much be doubted whether the public would form a favorable opinion of their character.

But this is the very thing which for us the press is all the time doing. In other countries there are a thousand things which prevent a system of public confessional; in England, for instance, both Parliament and the courts have a very strong hold on the press, and rigidly repress discussion of a sort which is very common with us. The *Pall Mall Gazette* was the other day obliged to apologize for referring to certain members of Parliament as "ultramontanes," and ascribing to an "ultramontane" cause their political activity. Throughout the Tichborne case, the press has been kept silent by the rule that discussion of pending suits is contempt of court. There can be little doubt that, were it not for these rules, there would be many revelations of English corruption which would be by no means flattering to English society. Owing to the absence of these restraints, journalism here has a much more unrestricted organic growth as a trade than it has in England, and is governed much more by the laws of trade than by considerations of respect for the powers that be or fear of punishment. The American press may always be expected to follow the market closely, and the market just now—for reasons which we have just pointed out, and which we consider creditable rather than discreditable—is one of incrimination and exposure. There is no doubt that the government of New York is to-day a more honestly administered government than it has been for years; if it had not been for the existence of a keenly competitive press, we doubt whether we should be able to say as much.

But the whole discussion is one on which it is possible to bear too heavily. There is no accusation which is so easy to make, or so difficult to make with a clear understanding of the meaning of the term, as that an entire country is dishonest. When the accusation is made against America, it may mean any one of many different things. It may mean that the country appears to be dishonest when tried by the standard applied in the country criticising; it may mean that it appears dishonest when tried by the standard usually applied to other people by persons not wholly disinterested; it may mean that we are dishonest when tried by domestic standards set up by ourselves, and wholly unlike those made use of by the observer. Again, the dishonesty may refer to small but universal cheating; or it may refer to great but circumscribed frauds; it may refer to bribery at elections, and it may refer to the adulteration of goods. Any one who is familiar with the accusations of dishonesty brought against the French and Italians for the first cause, to say nothing of the second, and against the English by the English themselves for the third and fourth, will be likely to hesitate some time before he indulges in wholesale abuse of the American or any other nation.

VACATIONS.

MANY of our readers are now actually in the midst of their summer holiday; whether by the sea, with its wholesome breath in their lungs, and its rhythm falling on their ear; or among the hills and roads, with the pines and the bayberries to flavor the air, and the mighty sun of August at work regaling their eyes and making their spirits exult, instead of meting out to them the nefarious treatment that it gives to those who stay in the town. These latter will be laboring away, lifeless, pale, and peevish, cursing the day that they were born into a world where summers are so hot, and business so unrelenting, and where yet, as Miss Berry said, we are doomed to cling to a life even while we find it unendurable. Fortunate for the one class, doubly unfortunate for the other, that they are; and fortunate in either case are we in being able to choose this time in which to urge that, for the relief of man's estate, the custom of summer vacation should become as nearly universal as possible.

That it is becoming more and more common among us there can be no doubt. Twenty-five years ago, clerks and young employees hardly ever expected a holiday, except as a matter of particular favor. Now a fortnight of freedom in the year is getting to be regularly understood as a part of their contract. A fortnight is but half enough; but we must remember that the employers are still of a race that can meet appeals for more by venting reminiscences of their apprenticeship when they were lucky if they got a fortnight's rest in all the seven years. That was a time when we lived under the dispensation of the favorite American proverb—no half truth even, but an invention of Sabbathless and unvacationed Satan—"Better wear out than rust out." But of those who repeated it with most faith, how many have since had enforced leisure to repent their shortsightedness. Men who, thirty-five years ago, thought with pride of their thoroughgoing "devotion" to business, and nothing but business, would now, for most cogent reasons, and for more reasons than one, be not a little ashamed of it. Who that has travelled in Europe is not familiar with the type of the broken-down American business-man, sent abroad to recruit his collapsed nervous system? With his haggard, hungry mien, unfitted by life-long habit for taking any pleasure in passive contemplation, and with too narrow a culture to be interested in the historical or æsthetic side of what meets his eye, he tries to cheat the *tedium vitæ* by a feverish locomotion, and seems to draw a ghostly comfort from a peevish and foolish criticism of everything he meets—the tyranny of despots, the dinginess of the old paintings, and the mendacity of the natives, the absence of the ballot-box, the crookedness of the streets, the fearful waste of raw material in walls, harnesses, and conveyances, and the barbarousness of the window fastenings. These Americans have been brought up to measure a man solely by what he acquires, or at best what he effects, hardly at all by what

he is. The narrowness of this view is partly transient, but probably to some extent a matter of physical temperament as well. We are too strenuous to merely enjoy for any length of time with a good conscience. If we could act up to Goethe's verses it would be well for us:

"Tages Arbeit! Abends Gäste!
Saure Wochen! Frohe Feste!
Sei dein künftig Zauberwort."

But those verses could never have been written by a Yankee. The shopkeeper in Germany, who for five or six months in the year spends a good part of every Sunday in the open air, sitting with his family for hours under green trees over coffee or beer and Pumpernickel, and who breaks into *Achs* and *Wunderschöns* all the week as he recalls it, has a sort of absolute belief and contentment in the fine weather, and the leaves, and the air, and himself as a mere part of it all, that lies as an immense reservoir of refreshment behind his working-day consciousness, and keeps him green to an age when his American brethren are many of them little better than dried herrings. These times of satisfied static existence are what he works to gain. Many of us would say so too; but we have so grown to the harness that when the hour of leisure comes we are unable to use it. The means have murdered the end. Our ceaseless scheming for the future has undermined for us all sense of reality in the present. We cannot rest with the present alone for our object. The fact is that every man who possibly can should force himself to a holiday of a full month in the year, whether he feel like taking it or not. First, for the reason we have considered hitherto—that that capacity for irresponsible enjoyment which is like air to space in the character, may not become wholly atrophied within him—though many cannot and many will not treat this as a "practical" reason. But second, for the reason that all must consider practical, namely, tone of mind and health of body. No man, were he composed of catgut and whalebone, can work for five years unremittingly at the same kind of work with impunity. None can work ten years even at a very varied occupation. One year may make no difference, a second and a third may follow, and the subject not suffer consciously. But ten years of the two systems will turn out two different human beings at their end. The patient may be loth to get away, but this is a distinctly morbid symptom, a cramp-like closure of the mind upon the subject of its cares, which should be an imperative signal to some friend to come and push him willy-nilly out of doors. We have ourselves known an ambitious law student who, when starting on his wedding tour, felt as if he could not afford to leave his law books at home, but put them into his trunk and read them at Niagara Falls.

An employer of labor who should see to it that each man and woman working for him got a solid month of holiday in the course of the year, would, we feel convinced, make money by it in the long run; for there is hardly an occupation, from sawing wood to writing poetry, in which the mental state of the workman does not influence the result; and wherever the mental factor exists the man will do more and better work in eleven months than in twelve. Of course some occupations are so automatic that quality of work does not tell much, and in others there is much waiting, the quantity performed depending less on the laborer's power than on what turns up for him to do. In these cases the economic advantage of a holiday would not rigorously apply. But even here more cheerful service, fewer interruptions from ailments, and fewer changes from discontent would be secured. And if this seems chimerical, let it be recollected in how short a time employers have been educated up to a fortnight of the month for which we argue.

As for the time of the vacation, the warm months should of course be taken by towns-people. We are glad to notice the constant increase, in the Northeastern States at least, of the practice of camping out. It was, some time ago, recommended for its economy to persons who could ill afford a hotel sojourn, all the extra outlay needed being that for transportation, with a couple of tents and india-rubber blankets, *plus*, perhaps, some fishing-tackle and an axe, all of which will last for many seasons. Many artisans, for example, who could afford to take the time, cannot yet afford to pay for their board in addition. For such, if they be of an active and "handy" turn, camping out on the shore, or on some mountain side, would seem to be just the thing. Two or three families might then club together and do it in handsome style, set up a cooking-stove, for example, and hire a boat from the nearest settlement, if by the water. The fact is, that every one is capable of enjoying this kind of life intensely for a few weeks. It may be truly called the normal life of man, if by the phrase we understand that life which most men in most ages have led. For, however civilized and far-plotting we may have become, to dwell in the open air, with no plans or cares beyond to-morrow, has been the lot of our ancestors, brute or human, for receding centuries of generations. And for us to dip into it again awakens half-extinguished feelings of delight, washes away the cobwebs and smooths out the wrinkles from the care-worn mind, as surely as sleep makes the weary body fresh again. In this life we become so good-natured and indifferent to our troubles that we hardly recognize ourselves. We remember thinking as we saw last summer the camp in which the president of one of our universities was passing his vacation, how rational a plan it was for men of affairs who see plenty of their kind throughout the year, and to whom a little solitude is not unpleasant for a change. And we shall not soon forget a party we stumbled upon this very season in the woods near a certain shore in Massachusetts. We had noticed a couple of tents by the rocks ten minutes before, and here, stretched on the grass in the verdurous sunlight that filtered through the boughs above, lay their inhabitants. The man sat against a tree-trunk, singing a song, his wife and little girl recumbent opposite, while his sister, with her own hair down her back, and a long tress of commercial hair waved about in her hand to keep time, reclined with her head upon his knee. No one stirred as we came up and held parley, and, in fact, the pretty young lady with the switch of hair seemed too unconscious, and too beatified even, to raise her half-closed eyelids and examine who we were. Unfashionable, but for once happy! with the deep, good natures of the fauns and nymphs of fable.

"There is of our acquaintance," as the old books used to say, "a pleasant gentleman," who is so enthusiastic on this subject of vacations, that he professes himself ready for a form of communism in which the government shall guarantee to every citizen one month of freedom in the year, which the citizen may take year by year, or let accumulate, if he choose, say for six years, and then spend six months in Europe. Thus, he says, we shall have organized a symbol of that ideal emancipation of which poets dream, and which the pious crave and hope for. Outside of its month, let humanity sweat and ache as best it may, he says; he cares not. This, of course, is hardly serious. But is not a step in the direction of it feasible? Why should not rich men desirous of doing good with their money, instead of endowing more schools or churches with it, bequeath a portion of it in some such way as this? Let the interest be assigned to a number of the doctors, clergymen, and men of affairs in the town, who come into relations with most human beings, and let these persons allot every season to a sufficient number of individuals who otherwise would have to stay at home, enough money to enable them to pass three or four weeks in the country. If care were taken that none but the needy and deserving got the award, there could hardly be a more profoundly beneficial form of charity. There are hundreds of persons of both sexes in every town whom a month of idleness in the year, far from the scene of their cares, would suffice to keep on the right side of the boundary-line between invalidism and health, and who without it would soon drift over to the wrong side, and thence speedily further; hundreds, too, whom nothing but the lack of fifty dollars or so holds prisoners. One hundred thousand dollars properly invested would set free every year no fewer than fourteen hundred such persons! Grasp with your imagination, O wealthy reader! if you can, the mass of happiness and sanity of mind which is implied in that proposition, and then try to do your duty. We have done ours.

Correspondence.

LAWFUL AND UNLAWFUL EXPANSION.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: I have so long been in the habit of having the *Nation* do my thinking on all social, political, and financial matters, that it rarely occurs to me to question your conclusions; and so I have been as ready as any other backwoods dabbler in currency questions to speak contemptuously of the financial ability of Uncle Boutwell and Cousin Richardson, and especially to denounce their assumption of the power to expand or contract the volume of the currency at will. And this notwithstanding that I have diligently read in Mr. Henry Clews's advertising circulars his reasoning in support of the frequently expressed hope that the Secretary of the Treasury will stand ready to use this power—discreetly, of course—as the state of the money market may demand.

Some comments of the *Pall Mall Gazette*, however, on Mr. Lowe's proposed amendment to the Bank Act of 1844, have suggested two or three questions, which I venture to put in the most respectful spirit of enquiry:

1. In what respect would the issue by Mr. Richardson of a part of the $44,000,000 of reserve legal tenders, for the purpose, say, of relieving a real and widespread commercial panic, differ from the action which takes place in England when the Bank Act is suspended for a similar purpose?

2. Has there been any difference of opinion as to the expediency, not to say necessity, of such illegal action under the circumstances?

The necessity seemed so great in the last instance of overissue by the

Bank of England that, according to Mr. Patterson in his work 'On Finance,' the representative of the Bank, at the conference with the Chancellor of the Exchequer, weakly affected the bravado of indifference, knowing that it was perfectly certain that the Bank Act must be suspended.

3. Is it not, moreover, essential to the successful working of such remedial measure that its use shall depend upon an entirely uncertain contingency, such as the discretion of one man, or a limited number of men, in order that its effects may not be discounted by speculators and others, and so made nugatory? Mr. Lowe proposes to vest this discretionary power in four men, the provision of his bill being that whenever the First Lord of the Treasury and the Chancellor of the Exchequer, upon consultation with the Governor and the Deputy-Governor of the Bank of England, are satisfied that certain conditions exist (conditions, by the way, that are not demonstrable, and the existence or non-existence whereof must be determined by the judgment of these officials), then they may empower the Issue Department of the Bank to make a temporary issue of notes in excess of the authorized issue. "Or, in other words," as the writer in the *Gazette* puts it, "they may issue paper money beyond the limits of safety, and lend it to the public."

4. Is it not, also, a debatable question whether this power should not be used as a preventive rather than as a tardy relief after ruin has overtaken many perfectly solvent houses, unless we take our stand wholly on the non-interference theory of government?

5. The fact that we may have a weak and squeezable Secretary of the Treasury, while England just now has not, and that Mr. Clews may be but an indifferent substitute for the Governor of the Bank of England as a counsellor in such an emergency, may make all the difference between a beneficial and a mischievous use of this extraordinary power, but does it affect the principle?—Very respectfully, E. R. LELAND.

EAU CLAIRE, Wis., July 16, 1873.

[1. It would differ in this, that Mr. Richardson would, without authority of law, increase the volume of irredeemable paper currency, while Mr. Lowe would, with the authority of law, permit the Bank of England to issue more notes redeemable in coin on demand. In other words, the restraint of redeemability would still continue to exist in the latter case; it does not exist in the former.

2. There has; a controversy has raged for thirty years over the merits of the restriction which compels the Bank to hold coin for all notes it issues over $75,000,000, its opponents maintaining that inasmuch as the restriction is always removed by an act of arbitrary power during a panic, it is practically useless, and the Bank might better be allowed to exercise its own discretion.

3. The theory of the Lowe bill is that machinery can be created beforehand for indicating the existence of a panic and measuring the extent of the mutual distrust in which a panic consists. This seems to us impossible. The rise of the rate of interest does not measure it; it only measures the Bank's estimate of it. This, *mutatis mutandis*, would be true of all other preappointed signs or standards. The only advantage of the bill which we are able to see is the removal of the scandal of law-breaking which has hitherto attended all suspensions of the Bank Act.

4. It is; but to use it as a preventive would practically nullify the law altogether. If the minister said a panic was impending, and that he must hinder it, nobody could ever question his decision, because there would be no means of testing its correctness.

5. It does not; but we must admit that there seems to be an enormous difference between Henry Clews and the Governor and Deputy-Governor of the Bank of England as financial advisers.—ED. NATION.]

A DIFFICULT PASSAGE IN SHAKESPEARE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: One of Shakespeare's most troublesome passages, as you hardly need be told, is in "All's Well that Ends Well," Act iv., Scene 2. I refer to the dialogue between *Bertram* and *Diana*, where the former, with all his art and ardor, urges his lawless suit upon the latter. For reasons that need not now be stated, an arrangement has previously been made between *Diana* and *Helena*, whereby *Diana*, after enough of resistance to blind the eyes of her wooer, is to *make believe* that she accepts his vows. Then, just as she is on the point of seeming to yield, she says, in the original folio:

"I see that men make *rope's* in such a *scarre*,
That we'll forsake ourselves."

All the modern editors, so far as I know, from Rowe downwards, have given up *rope's* or *ropes* as an unquestionable corruption, and most of them have substituted *hopes*. Rowe reads, "Make *hopes* in such *affairs*"; Malone, "*Hopes* in such a *scene*"; Collier's second folio, "*Hopes* in such a *suit*"; Staunton, "*Hopes* in such a *snare*"; Dyce, "*Hopes* in such a *case*"; and Singer, "*Hopes* in such a *scarre*," explaining that "a *scarre* here signifies any surprise or alarm, what we would now write a *scare*"; which, I must confess, seems to me well-nigh absurd. White rejects all the fore-cited corrections, and prints just as in the original, "Make *rope's* in such a *scarre*," but without pretending to understand it or offering any explanation of it. Perhaps I ought to state further, that Mr. W. N. Lettsom proposes "*Hopes* in such a *scape*"; while the late Mr. W. W. Williams, in the *Parthenon* for September 6, 1862, would read:

"I see that men may *cope's* in such a *sort*,
That we'll forsake ourselves,"

and supports this reading with great ingenuity and fertility of argument, of course taking *cope's* as a contraction of *cope us*.

Thus much for the matter as it has hitherto stood. Now, it seems to me well worth considering at least whether, after all, *ropes* may not be the right reading.

It is well known to Shakespearian scholars that in the poet's time *in* and *into* were often used indiscriminately, and that the poet has many instances of *in* where our present idiom would require *into*. So in "Measure for Measure," ii. 3: "A gentlewoman of mine, who, falling *in* the flames of her own youth, hath blister'd her report." And in "King Richard III.," i. 2: "But first I'll turn yon fellow *in* his grave"; also in i. 3: "You do me shameful injury, falsely to draw me *in* these vile suspects." Again, in "Coriolanus," iii. 2: "Although I know thou hadst rather follow thine enemy *in* a fiery gulf." The same usage, as is well known to Biblical students, occurs in the English Bible, as I think it also does in the English Prayer-Book.

The question, then, is whether such may not be the case in the passage under consideration. I am much inclined to think it is. And I suspect there is, withal, some reference implied to what the poet elsewhere calls *ropery* and *rope-tricks*; that is, *rogueries*. So that *Diana's* meaning may be, "I see that men *weave ropes* or *rogueries into* such a *maze* as to catch and subdue us in spite of ourselves." She then proceeds, accordingly, to *feign* compliance with *Bertram's* solicitations, as if she were really *ensnared* by them, and the result is that she ensnares him.

In addition, I have but to ask a place for the above in the *Nation* as the most suitable medium for calling the attention of our Shakespearians to the matter. N.

BOSTON, July 21, 1873.

Notes.

FROM a circular sent us by Mr. Henry Blackburn, to whom we owe the Exhibition of English Water-colors in this city last winter, we learn that he is engaged upon the collection to be made for a similar exhibition here December 1. English artists desiring to be represented on that occasion are admonished to present their works at the Egyptian Hall, Piccadilly, by November 4. In a letter to the *Athenæum* on the subject of the former exhibition, Mr. Blackburn states that the sales at the Academy of Design amounted to nearly $5,000—the total valuation of the English collection being less than $20,000.——No. 44 of the Journal of the Berlin Geographical Society (New York: L. W. Schmidt) contains an account of Dr. Nachtigal's important journey through equatorial Africa, from Kanem to Borku, illustrated by a sketch-map forwarded with the narrative by the traveller himself. The same number will also be found interesting as giving on two sheets no less than 14 maps of the comparative knowledge of African geography, from Ptolemy (A.D. 130) to Livingstone, Stanley, Rohlfs, Schweinfurth, and Nachtigal. An article on the Chinese province of Kwang-tung, in Petermann's *Mittheilungen* for June 25, is accompanied by a good-sized map of the region from native and European sources. The second map shows the Norwegian winter voyage in Spitzbergen waters of the steamer *Albert*, November and December, 1872. Part 14 of Stieler's Hand-Atlas gives for its three sheets Central and Southern Russia and the Caucasus, and the sixth plate of the United States—the States lying east of the Mississippi and south of the Ohio. Part 9 of Spruner's Historical Atlas has maps of Europe in 1740, France (1610–1790), British Isles (1485–1830), Hungary at various periods, and the usual number of small supplementary maps, including one of Paris at the close of the last century. (New York: B. Westermann & Co.)

—We have just received a short document addressed to the alumni of

West Point, and dated at St. Louis. It appears that in June last eleven graduates of the Military Academy met at Barnum's Hotel, to consider the best means of inducing all the graduates, instead of those only who served on the Federal side in the late war, to be present at the Annual Alumni Meeting in 1874. At this meeting, Captain Eaton, of Massachusetts, a graduate of the class of 1827, presented a paper setting forth his opinion as to a circular calling on all graduates to meet at the Point, in June next. This was "a paper as strongly Southern as could proceed from a Northern stand-point." Another paper was then read by General Tench Tilghman, a graduate of the class of 1832, and appointed from Maryland, and this was "a paper as strongly Northern as could proceed from a Southern stand-point." The two papers were submitted to a committee, composed of General Tilghman, General Martindale of this State, and Colonel Renick, a graduate of 1835, appointed from Virginia. At a subsequent meeting, the committee reported that Captain Eaton's and General Tilghman's papers had been admirably harmonized by General Martindale, and General Martindale's address was accepted as the circular to be distributed. It makes some good points. The graduates of the Military Academy, it remarks, were in no sense responsible for the war. Indeed, it goes further, and says that in the opinion of the committee it is wrong to regard "even the people of the United States of this generation" as being responsible for a war which was the result of opposing domestic, social, and industrial systems which had been planted in the country at its first settlement, two hundred and fifty long years ago. "It is a grave mistake to assume that a crisis in human affairs momentous as civil war, especially in a republican country like ours, can be provoked except by antagonisms which spring from the deepest and sincerest, though opposing, popular convictions"; and, as a corollary to this truth, the committee think that no one has a right to feel "surprise that the graduates of the United States Military Academy gravitated to the support of their respective sections. We know that they were equally conscientious. It was natural, nay, unavoidable, that they should be divided as their fathers and brothers were divided." The committee then speak of the fact that the graduates never lost their personal attachment and esteem for each other; that each side produced brave and distinguished soldiers; that our sectional animosities are disappearing; that we are equal before the law; that there remains only the restoration of friendly social relations; and they conclude by asking what class of men can do so much to promote this consummation as the graduates of West Point? Certainly, one would say that among themselves, if not with the rest of us, they might all agree. And an agreement of this kind, even if confined to themselves, would be of distinct value to the country. The squaws are powerful, but now, almost at the end of ten years, the braves might have their turn.

—Two years ago Professor Tayler Lewis delivered at Albany, before the University Convocation, an essay on the well-worn subject of the value of classical studies, and this year it is published, or republished, in a thin pamphlet. The subject is indeed well-worn—so much so as to be in no slight degree repellent; of what has been written on the one side of it a vast deal has been dishearteningly blind, and in the strict sense of the word impertinent; and of what has been written on the other much has been so commonplace that it has been almost as profitless reading as the treatises it was meant to refute. But it can be said of Professor Lewis that he is never dull or commonplace, but always secures the thanks of his readers for his freshness, and usually for his instructiveness; and this essay is not exceptional among his writings. What it may do in the way of enlightening the devotees of the laboratories we do not know—

"'Tis the taught already that profits by teaching,"

and if a man has not within him some sense of literature and the ideal side of life, essays on classical study may probably be of no great benefit to him; but a good many old-fashioned people will get a deal of comfort from this discourse of the veteran professor at Union, who fifty years ago was inducting into the mysteries of Greek the grandfathers, perhaps, of some of the boys whom he sees around him now. Professor Lewis begins by saying that were one to judge by the newspapers one would suppose that a chief evil in our land was a plethora of Latin and Greek, and that we were in imminent danger of becoming a nation of pedants and bookworms—non-producers engaged in making Greek verses instead of managing railroads and newspapers, and developing the material resources of the country. That such an inference would be delusive he proceeds to show, though "in the language of the Psalmist," says he, "there were they in great fear where no fear was"; classical studies have held their own as against the physical sciences; considering the clamor of the press, it is a wonder that they have not disappeared altogether. Probably they have not done anything more than hold their own. That they have maintained themselves as well as they have is due to the fact, as Professor Lewis believes, that "there is in the study an inherent respectability which nothing can supersede," which even the common mind cannot help perceiving, and which young men of ability and aspiration feel keenly—"the speaker knows it," he adds, "from his own experience, both as a student and a teacher." Still he thinks it undeniable that there is danger that these studies may be driven from our colleges; and, in looking for the reason of this, he seems to himself to have discovered it in the fact that we nowadays busy the undergraduate too much with grammar and too little with literature. We should be glad to quote a large part of the Professor's argument, but must content ourselves with a little, and with saying that he illustrates his position by a comparison of the school of critical students even so great as Porson and Elmsley with the earlier school or schools, in which he places Ralph Cudworth, John Selden, Vossius, Lepsius, Grotius, Heinsius, Salmasius, and the earlier names of Casaubon, Usher, Pococke, Scaliger, and Bochart. The one school, admirable as it is, and deep as is our obligation to them, he regards as reading Homer for the sake of knowing Greek; the other, as knowing Greek for the sake of reading Homer. This we put more roughly than Professor Lewis does; but perhaps we make his meaning clear. The practical result of his belief has been that he has long made his pupils read more and study grammars less than was his custom at the beginning of his life as an educator. No teacher will regret reading this little pamphlet. How readable it is may be seen by this extract. A writer in the *Atlantic Monthly*, a while ago, unadvisedly, but not with much turpitude, after all, said by way of jest that "one Usher held that the world was created on the 20th of September." This arouses Professor Lewis to some wrath, and thus he defends the archbishop, who, in choosing the autumnal equinox as a point of departure, only did what all chronologers find it convenient to do:

"'One Usher' held so and so—a very odd opinion. There is no need of dwelling upon the merits of one who ought to be so well-known to every educated man. Who was 'One Usher'? He was among the most learned men of that exceedingly learned day. We produce no man that comes within sight of him in the amount and accuracy of his multifarious erudition. Take a Presbyterian General Assembly, Old School and New School united; lay upon that an Episcopal General Convention; add to it a Methodist General Conference, and a Congregational and Baptist General Association; pile upon the top of that all the weights of Boston free religion, and the whole mass would not contain more of substantial learning than was possessed by this 'One Usher' at whom the *Atlantic Monthly* writer so unworthily sneers."

—We shall not here name the English dramatist and general man-of-letters who is commonly reputed the author of a 'Life of Thackeray' which appeared shortly after the death of that author, and also of a 'Life of Charles Dickens,' published in 1870. The gentleman to whom these anonymous works are attributed has always, so far as we know, borne a respectable character, while as for the gentleman, whoever he may be, who is the actual author of them, he appears to be a literary workman who will bear a good deal of watching and whom his employers may profitably keep an eye on. Six years ago we happened to be put in possession of the facts in regard to Dickens's first connection with American publishers, and laid them before our readers. It may be worth while to state them over again briefly: It is now going on thirty years since the newly-established *Harper's Magazine* was contending with the *International* for the leadership of monthly periodical literature. Mr. W. A. Townsend, of the firm of Stringer & Townsend, who published the *International*, conceived the idea of buying from Dickens the advance sheets of his next novel, and, as soon as the thought occurred to him, persuaded his rather reluctant partner to cross the water with an offer of two thousand dollars for the exclusive right, so far as the novelist could confer it by giving advance sheets, of publishing 'Bleak House' in this country. But in an unlucky hour Mr. Stringer confided the knowledge of his enterprise to the late Dr. Griswold, then of the *Evening Post*, who almost immediately made it the subject of one of his paragraphs. This the Harpers had no sooner seen than they despatched a messenger post-haste to England, where Mr. Stringer had been visiting Dickens's publishers, and been told that he was not then engaged on any novel, and whence he soon departed for the Continent, rather pleased on the whole that the two thousand dollars were not to be at risk. The messenger of the Messrs. Harper, on the other hand, went directly to Dickens himself, and the bargain was at once made. This resulted first and last in putting a great many thousand dollars into Dickens's pocket; and another result was that the *International's* subscription-list was before very long transferred to *Harper's Monthly*. These facts we learned from the only person in the country fully cognizant of them, and he being a party chiefly interested in the transactions detailed, our statement of them (vide *Nation*, No. 95) naturally remained distinctly in his mind. But to his surprise he found the other day, on picking up the 'Life of Dickens,' republished in 1870 from the English original, that the author of that production had "lifted" the matter in question, and transferred it bodily

to his pages without note, comment, acknowledgment of indebtedness, or any indication that it was not his own. It is a piece of small dishonesty, that matters little, but it ought all the same to be exposed.

—The *Daily Graphic's* transatlantic aeronaut is busily preparing for his venturesome balloon voyage, which no one can regard without interest or good wishes. Mr. Wise's experience of the currents justifies him in feeling certain of moving rapidly eastward. His trip will not be an experiment in this respect, except to the minds of doubters. But though he knows that there are no currents from the east at high altitudes, he cannot interpret the various westerly ones which he has known, for he is reported as using the term "centrifugal" in reference to their more rapid motion than that of the earth. As this term is utterly misapplied to winds in every respect, it is an error worth nailing. The notion came from the familiar experiment of rotating a glass globe containing a colored liquid, which liquid is set in motion by its friction against a surface outside of it that moves more rapidly than the liquid can move even at its maximum, the maximum being attained at the equator of the globe. But in the case of the earth the surface is underneath the fluids, and moves no faster than they, for both are moved by a common force. Moreover, at the equator, where "centrifugal" power would be greatest, the oceans and atmosphere move slower than the part underneath with a shorter radius. Again, this so-called centrifugal force is greatest at the poles, where the air is driven away from the axis so strongly that the barometer falls indefinitely. The name being refuted, it may be interesting to consider what the thing is. It is simply the natural independence of fluids. It is only *solid* masses which act as units. Every drop of water in the ocean is attracted to the earth and moon and sun just as strongly as if there were no other drop in existence, and is rotated by a force in it separate from the force in every other drop. Apparently, this fact is disguised because friction modifies it. The power of the force of rotation is measured both by the mean velocity of the whole solid portion (the velocity of the axis being zero) and by the velocity of currents of air high enough to be free from friction with the earth's surface, which surface in the tropics moves faster than the average and thus accelerates the wind, but slower than the average near the axis, thus retarding the ocean and air which pass over it toward the east. It must be borne in mind that if the northern half of the axis be bisected, the middle will be in latitude 30°, not in latitude 45°. Thus the atmosphere moves all alike from west to east, trade winds and temperate winds just the same; it is the solid crust which is irregular, because so stiff that friction does its perfect work, whirling the torrid zone beneath its superincumbent ocean and air with an unnatural eastward speed, and cramping the temperate zones so that the regular rotation of the air above them appears like a special phenomenon of eastward velocity.

—The cardinal fact being thus explained, the cross currents are easily accounted for. Wherever masses of air of very unequal temperature lie adjacent, the tendency to interflow is greater than friction can hinder; but this exchange cannot overcome the general movement of rotation—which is tantamount to saying that a so-called polar current will appear as a W.N.W. wind at New York and as an E.N.E. wind at Key West, while a so-called equatorial current will appear at Key West E.S.E. and at New York W.S.W. To this general law there are two exceptions: first, if the unequally heated strata are next the earth's surface, the friction from the latter will annul the rotatory tendency, and the exchange will appear more direct, hence the S.E. sea-breezes of our Atlantic coast in spring and summer; secondly, an ascending mass of air, which is known by the lowness of the barometer beneath it, always revolves about a special axis, and if the area is many miles in extent, this revolution is often intense enough to reverse the apparent movement due to the latitude, hence especially our N.E. winds in winter, which occupy the northwestern segments of immense areas of revolving ascending superoceanic air. At the altitude which Mr. Wise proposes to attain, all these backward currents will have been overwhelmed, and he will only have to choose between W.N.W. and W.S.W. hurricanes. His real problem will be to guess correctly where to find each of these, and to rise or fall between them delicately enough to be carried by them to a chosen goal.

—Both in this country and in England, Sunday-school literature has stamped the impression, which, however, Sunday-school literature was not first to make, that the Sandwich Islanders of Captain Cook's day were cannibals. Later and better authorities than the early navigators in Pacific waters have disabused us of that belief, but to many of our readers there will still be news in a lecture recently delivered by a Dr. Winslow, for some years a resident of the Islands, who, as we are assured by persons having a very good knowledge of the islanders, native and foreign, may be relied upon as in every way worthy of credence. A portion of the lecture was devoted to Captain Cook, and it was here that Dr. Winslow brought up the subject of cannibalism. After Cook had unfortunately been killed, the people were astonished and distressed at the evidence of their barbarity towards one with whom they had been so friendly, and their only thought was to atone as far as possible for their ill conduct. They therefore proceeded to treat Cook's remains as they were accustomed to treat those of their highest chiefs, and as if he had been a divinity. They removed the great bones of his legs and arms; and the rest of the remains, except the entrails, they laid before their greatest idol, in a temple where they sacrificed dogs and pigs in honor of his memory, and in expiation of his sins and their own. The entrails they had carefully placed in a calabash, intending to make pious use of them in a subsequent ceremony, when a boy (who in 1845, at which time Dr. Winslow conversed with him, was an intelligent old man of seventy-five or eighty years), mistaking them for the entrails of a pig, cut off a piece, roasted it on the coals, and ate it. This is all the cannibalism there was; for in truth, the islanders were not then, and never were, eaters of human flesh, though we believe we are not mistaken in saying that pirates amongst them have now and again practised cannibalism very much as European brigands or conspirators may have drunk blood together, but not otherwise. When afterwards English navigators enquired about the fate of Cook, and the repentant natives brought them the bones, which had been preserved, the inference was at once drawn that his flesh had been devoured, and the Christian world immediately set down the newly discovered islanders as man-eaters, and afterwards persistently maintained it; but this, as we now know, was extremely unfair. However, the islanders, in consequence of this misconception, had afterwards to drink from a little cup, as have most uncivilized nations with whom people of our race come in contact. Indeed, to do us Christians justice, the pagan communities are not numerous who have ever got the better of us either in matters of violence or matters of craft. With the early Christians the case was different; but we later Christians can outkill and otherwise circumvent any existing tribe or people, whether of heathendom, Jewry, or of those nations that eat the filthy gobbets of Mahound.

—Of new English books we present a list, miscellaneous in character, which, containing no book of first-rate importance, contains several of value. 'Characteristics of Christian Morality' is the title of a controversial work by the Rev. Gregory Smith, who has been the Bampton lecturer for 1873, and whose lectures now appear in a permanent form. Their interest for clergymen will be seen when we say that the special assailants of Christianity which Mr. Smith selected for the Bampton attack of this year are the late Mr. Mill and Mr. F. W. Newman. The position held by these gentlemen—that Christian morality is defective, is bad, not as being unattainable, which is what is usually alleged against it, but bad because of its deficiencies—Mr. Smith is thought to have assaulted with marked success. Church clergymen will also take varying degrees of inimical or friendly interest in a book published by Messrs. James Parker & Co., entitled 'Church Goods in Hertfordshire,' which is an inventory of furniture and ornaments remaining in the parish churches of Hertfordshire in the last year of the reign of Edward VI. 'The Life of Charlotte Brontë,' by Mrs. Gaskell, is the last volume of Messrs. Smith, Elder & Co.'s 'Life and Works of Charlotte Brontë and Her Sisters'—a series of handsome volumes, in which we have in worthy dress not only the more famous novels but also the less read, 'Wuthering Heights' and 'Tenant of Wildfell Hall'—tales whose fascination does not fail however much we may condemn them, and to which we find ourselves at certain intervals returning with the certainty of being impressed by truth and poetry as well as by morbid power. Another biography that ought to be a good one, though we cannot reasonably expect it to be as good as Mrs. Gaskell's, is the 'Memoir of Sara Coleridge by her Daughter.' Praise we see given to Mrs. Arthur Treherne's 'Romantic Annals of a Naval Family,' which is understood to be true and not fictitious, although the events recorded often verify by their strangeness the old adage about truth and fiction. It has in it letters from William IV. and from Admiral Lord Howe and Admiral Lord Hood. To go back to religious books for a moment: Lord Stratford de Redcliffe—the firm-lipped god of Mr. Kinglake's idolatry, the great Elchi who sat by the Bosphorus baffling the Frenchman and the Russ and sustaining the empery of the Turk—has written a seventy-one-page pamphlet entitled interrogatively, 'Why am I a Christian?' and answering that question. Some of his critics indicate that the answer given is sufficient proof that his lordship is not a Christian. But they appear to have no better ground to go upon than his former diplomatic profession, and the proposition that if the evidences enumerated by him only "satisfy his reason," and do no more for him than that, he is no Christian at all. The book is said to be earnestly rather than convincingly written. Mr. William Rossetti appears with a new edition of the works of Mrs. Hemans, for which he furnishes a critical memoir of that facile poetess, who was compelled to write so much more than she should have written. Why

she should be now revived with these honors is not very clear. Many copies, however, will no doubt be sold. 'Life in Danbury'—which we believe is well on towards its twenty-fifth thousand in this country—is advertised in the English papers, and so is Dr. Mayo's 'Never Again,' that remarkable picture of "American life," and perhaps even more remarkable product of twenty entire years of mental labor on the part of an adult American novelist. Twenty years is said, at all events, to have been spent over it. Dr. Maudsley has revised and enlarged his work entitled 'Body and Mind,' and has added to it 'Psychological Essays.' "A Monk of St. Augustine, Ramsgate," writes a small pamphlet, 'Monastic Studies,' on university education as it was when under the guidance of the church. Followers of Mrs. Battle will perhaps wish to consult a work by Mr. Arthur Thistlewood, which he calls 'Whist in Rhymes for Modern Times,' and which, he says, renders the laws of the game into verse easy to be remembered. There are twenty-eight pages of it, including the references to various authorities, and the price of it is one shilling and sixpence.

—An article in the *Workshop*, on "Elementary Forms of Ornamentation," remarks that many learned archæologists have vainly endeavored to unfold the meaning of the lions, gazelles, eagles, and falcons which frequently occur in Saracenic tapestry. It then offers as a clearing up of the difficulty "some verses from Eastern poetry":

"Morning dawn grew clear and bright,
Heart and soul rejoiced once more,
When the coy gazelle, like night,
Fled the morning lion's roar.

"Life and action filled my breast,
Up I started firm and bold,
The falcon, with his wings of gold,
Hovered o'er its azure nest."

This, it will be seen, is one more addition to the ever-recurring and all-pervasive sun-myth. The gazelle is the night; the lion is the sun or the light before which she flees; the falcon is the golden day in the azure sky. How much the lion and the gazelle and the falcon had to do with the sun by the time they got into Saracenic ornamentation, and how they are the better as ornamentation because originally it pleased Providence to call them into the station in life of a sun-myth, the writer in the *Workshop* does not say.

—The famous Sydow case, which for eighteen months had by turns excited and exhausted the Berlin public in church and state, has been brought to a conclusion, through the restoration of the venerable pastor to his office under a qualified censure. For more than fifty years Sydow has been a faithful and acceptable pastor, and, though not distinguished for intellectual force nor for popular eloquence, he has borne a good reputation for learning and piety, has had a strong hold upon the affections of his congregation, and has received some special tokens of confidence from the Court, especially under the late King. A pupil of Schleiermacher, he has always inclined more to the Rationalistic than to the Evangelical side of his teacher's philosophy; and in January, 1872, in a public lecture, he went so far as to impugn the supernatural birth of Christ, the doctrine of the Trinity, and the divine authority of the Bible. For this he was arraigned before the Consistory of Brandenburg for heresy, and, after more than a year of controversy, was found guilty of a fundamental departure from the confession of faith which he had sworn to maintain, and accordingly was deposed from his office. An appeal lay to the Oberkirchenrath, the supreme Council of the Church, and the finding of this tribunal is, that Dr. Sydow had brought a grievous scandal upon the church by his doubtful utterances upon certain weighty doctrines; but nevertheless, those utterances were made not from the pulpit but in a scientific lecture, and were qualified by other phrases in the lecture itself and in Sydow's subsequent explanations—the amount of which seems to be that, in discoursing of the higher mysteries, the lecturer got himself into a fog, and then succeeded in befogging his judges. The Council further take into consideration Dr. Sydow's long standing in his office, his unimpeachable character, the devotion of his people, and his relations to the Court, and, in view of all the circumstances, revoke the sentence of the Consistory and reinstate the accused in his congregation.

—As a sign of the drift of ecclesiastical politics in Prussia, Dr. Sydow's case is significant. Not only Dr. Sydow's congregation, to whom he preached his heretical doctrines, but the press and the people of Berlin, had earnestly espoused his cause, making his a test-case of free thought and free speech, and especially freedom of scientific enquiry in theology. Public meetings were held at the City Hall to protest against the action of the Consistory, and a purse was made up for Sydow's benefit; clergymen and professors in different parts of the country joined in condemning his displacement—in a word, the new power of public opinion was brought to bear upon a case of ecclesiastical discipline. Neither Sydow nor his friends looked to the separation of church and state for relief from what they regarded as persecution, and his judges had good reason to fear that a separation would throw the bulk of the church property in Berlin into the hands of extreme Liberals as most fairly representing the majority of the parishes. In these circumstances, the voice of the public was heeded by the Council of the Church. It was whispered that the King, while engaged in a conflict of supremacy with the Roman Catholic hierarchy, was unwilling to endure the scandal of a controversy and a possible rupture in the Evangelical Church. It is said, also, that the Crown Prince sympathizes with Sydow's theology rather than with his orthodox accusers. Moreover, since the case began, the new ecclesiastical laws have created a civil tribunal of revision over ecclesiastical excommunication; and it would have been a travesty of this legislation if the sword sharpened for recusant Catholic bishops should first have been put to the throat of the Oberkirchenrath—the representative of the Evangelical dynasty—by a civil judge reversing its sentence. The Council has got out of the dilemma by a decision which would give say Mr. Frothingham and Dr. Tyng an equal status in the same church!

THOMS'S HUMAN LONGEVITY.*

THE subject of the extreme limit of human life is naturally one which interests most persons. Though, so far as profane history teaches, there has been little variation in the extent of days granted to mankind, taking the average in each generation, there has long been a belief that in exceptional cases a great age has been reached. In comparatively recent times there has been an unreasoning willingness to accept very large figures. Thus, in a catalogue of 1,712 persons who are said to have attained a century and upwards, we find the following ages recorded: 145, 152, 154, 169, 127, 132, 143, 126, 127, 185, 140, 138, 137, 172, 164, 130, 159, etc., etc. On the other hand, since the enunciation by Buffon of the law that in animals the duration of life bears a proportion to the duration of growth, and is, in the case of man, as Flourens states the rule, twenty years' growth and one hundred years' duration, there has been a decided reaction and a belief that ages much above one hundred years are impossible. The late Sir George Cornewall Lewis was perhaps the most noted writer who urged the incredibility of the existence of even centenarians. The book now issued by Mr. Thoms is a contribution to the discussion, valuable so far as it goes, but far from fulfilling the promise of its title. It is, indeed, rather a record of the investigations made by one critic, successfully disproving the claims made in certain cases, narrated at almost unnecessary length. The "suggestions for testing reputed cases" of centenarianism amount to just this: "deny everything and insist upon proof." The cases examined are the following: of Henry Jenkins, said to have attained the age of 169 years; of Thomas Parr, 152 years; the Countess of Desmond, 140 years; Mary Billinge, 112 years; Jonathan Reeves, 104 years; Joshua Miller, 111 years; Maudit Baden, 106 years; Thomas Geeran, 106 years; John Pratt, 106 years; George Fletcher, 108 years; George Smith, 105 years; Edward Couch, 110 years; William Webb, 105 years; John Dawe, 108 years; George Brewer, 106 years; Robert Howlison, 103 years; Robert Bowman, 118 years; *Frederick Lahrbush*, 106 years, and still living; Richard Purser, 112 years; William Bennett, 105 years; Mary Hicks, 104 years; James McDonald, George Peacocke, and Richard Taylor, all alleged centenarians at least.

It is evident that this part of Mr. Thoms's book is of little value in the main controversy on the possibility of centenarianism. He examines and possibly disproves some twenty-five cases; but with the exception of the first three and one other, these cases are of no special prominence. Such a disproval goes but a very little way towards affecting the numerous other alleged examples of centenarianism already in print. The most that can be said of them is that Mr. Thoms has done well in investigating so many cases and in exposing error. The famous cases of Jenkins, Parr, and the Countess of Desmond are very carefully examined, and, we think, disproved. The other case, that of Frederick Lahrbush, is of interest mainly because the person in question has been for some years one of the notabilities of New York. Without opening the question for discussion, it is proper to say that Mr. Thoms comes to the decision that Mr. Lahrbush was born about 1786, and is therefore far from being a centenarian yet. The facts upon which this opinion is formed by Mr. Thoms seem certainly to be very strong, and will probably remain uncontroverted.

But Mr. Thoms has done one very considerable service in presenting certain cases of centenarianism which he considers to be entirely proved. These merit a full presentation as important witnesses in the main case:

1st. Jane, youngest daughter of Francis Chassereau, was "baptized at

* 'Human Longevity—its Facts and Fictions: including an Enquiry into some of the more remarkable instances and suggestions for testing reputed cases. Illustrated by Examples. By William J. Thoms, F.S.A., Deputy Librarian House of Lords.' London: John Murray; New York: Scribner, Welford & Armstrong. 1873. 8vo, pp. 320.

St. Martin-in-the-Fields, London, November 14, 1739; born November 13," as the parish record shows. She married, October 27, 1764, Robert Williams, Esq., a banker, and M.P. for Dorchester, and died October 8, 1841, aged almost 102 years. There was evidence that November 13 was always observed as her birthday; and of course no question as to her father's name. In 1820, she wrote her name in a Bible given to a grandson; and he added the note, "written in her 81st year"; and again in October, 1822, to her signature he appended, "written in her 83d year." Evidence of such an age is of course perfectly credible, and if accepted the case is established. Of course, as Mrs. Williams left numerous descendants, there is a continuous chain of evidence proving that long before she arrived at the age of 100 years, she made statements which proved that she believed that she was born in 1739.

2d. Mr. William Plank was the son of James and Hannah Plank, and was baptized at Wandsworth, Surrey, November 20, 1767. He alleged that he was born on the 7th of that month, which is, of course, most probable. He was apprenticed to his brother as a calico-printer, May 23, 1782, at which time he must have been 14 years old and over, and took up his freedom in the Salters' Company, October 20, 1789, when he must have been 21 years and upwards. He remained always a member of the Company, and died at Harrow, November 19, 1867. He was clearly a centenarian, and as a man is likely to know his birthday, he undoubtedly exceeded the century by twelve days.

3d. Jacob William Luning was born at Hamelvörden, in Hanover, May 19, 1767, son of the clergyman there, Meinhard Conrad Luning, as the existing record shows. In 1784, his uncle published a genealogy, in which Jacob William is mentioned, and the above date of birth is given. In 1790, he came to London, and was employed as a book-keeper. He insured his life in the Equitable Office at the age of 36, and was admitted to Morden College, March 30, 1859, when he stated his age was 91 on his previous birthday. He died June 23, 1870, aged 103 years 1 month 4 days. A clearer case than this can hardly be imagined.

4th. "Catherine, daughter of Sir John and Lady Dorothy Eden, of Windleston, was baptized, February 11, 1771," as the record shows, and was born on the previous day, as she always declared, and is reasonable to believe. She was selected in October, 1790, by the Lords of Treasury, as one of the lives in a Tontine, being then described as aged 19 years. Her life and identity were proved annually, till her death, March 19, 1872, when she was aged 101 years 1 month and 9 days. She married, in 1803, Robert Eden Duncombe Shafto, M.P., and had six children. Here the evidence is continuous and conclusive.

5th. David Rennie, of Dundee, farmer, was born February 28, 1755, and died March 2, 1857. This fact is given on the authority of Sir Alexander Spearman, who quotes it as another Tontine case in the records of the National Debt Office, and who adds: "The evidence in this case was perfect." To these five undoubted cases, Mr. Thoms adds four others as probable, viz.: Mrs. Martha Lawrence, Mrs. Sally Clark, Mrs. Peggy Longmire, and Mrs. Elizabeth Puckle, the first, at least, being almost proved. They are at all events interesting, as proving that the ordinary age of mankind is sometimes very considerably exceeded.

We may now sum up Mr. Thoms's evidence on the main question as furnishing five undoubted cases of centenarianism occurring in England within the present century. The thought will naturally arise whether or not any equally well-proved examples can be produced from our American records. Answering briefly that we expect to produce such instances, we pause to state that we believe many other cases have occurred in England, which are now probably incapable of rigid proof. Having once established the fact that there is no Divine law which prohibits mankind from living one hundred years, it is impossible not to begin to give some credence to the earlier cases recorded in the lists. It by no means follows that the better classes in England pursue the mode of life most favorable to longevity; and if it be true, as Sir G. C. Lewis states, that "no person of royal or noble rank mentioned in history reached the age of a hundred years," this does not affect the case of exceptional lives in the lower classes. We may also affirm that it is reasonable to expect that cases of centenarianism will increase in number hereafter. If it be true that the average duration of human life in each generation has increased for the past three centuries, owing to a more general knowledge of the laws of health and a wider observance of them, it is fair to expect that this gain will also be felt in extreme old age. If the average be now forty years instead of thirty, we may expect to see as many persons exceed one hundred years of life as formerly reached ninety years and upwards.

In leaving Mr. Thoms's book, it is proper to state that he pleads defective eyesight as an excuse for any deficiencies. Considering the good work done by him for many years as editor of *Notes and Queries*, we may well accept the excuse with hearty regret for its existence. As to American centenarians, much information is obtainable. In fact, Mr. Thoms had in his own magazine a number of well-established cases recorded, though for some reason he did not enter upon this branch of his subject. (See *N. & Q.*, 4th S., viii. 231; ix. 40, 223, 323; x. 246.) Of these, four instances were of graduates of Harvard, and therefore were in all respects worthy of careful attention. We give brief abstracts of these instances:

1. Dr. Edward Augustus Holyoke was born at Marblehead, August 1, 1728, and died at Salem, March 31, 1829. The record of his brother and sisters shows the impossibility of any substitution of a later child for an earlier one of the same name. Besides, when he entered Harvard, of which college his father was President, in 1742, his age was entered according to custom on the register, and was fourteen years. He lived all his days in Salem and its vicinity, and a public dinner was given him on the day when he completed his century.

2. Hon. Timothy Farrar was born at Lincoln, Mass., June 28, 1747, and died at Hollis, N. H., February 21, 1849. His birth and those of the rest of his father's family are duly recorded, as is also his age on the college register. Mr. Farrar was a judge of the Superior Court of New Hampshire for twenty-five years, a gentleman of the highest character. He certainly believed in his asserted age, for he was present at the delivery of a sermon commemorating his completion of a century, an attestation under the circumstances of the greatest value.

3. Sampson Salter Blowers was born at Boston, Mass., March 22, 1742, and died at Halifax, N. S., October 25, 1842. He was a Royalist, and, settling in Nova Scotia, became Chief-Justice there, an office which he held for thirty-two years. Here, again, the proofs are ample: his birth as recorded at Boston, his entry at Harvard in 1759, aged seventeen years and a quarter, his prominent position, and contemporary recognition of his reaching the age of one hundred years.

4. Dr. Ezra Green was born at Malden, Mass., June 23, 1746, and died at Dover, N. H., July 25, 1847. He was a surgeon in the navy, and served on board Paul Jones's vessel, the *Ranger*. He was a member of the New Hampshire State Convention which adopted the Constitution, and all his life was before the public. His age was recorded at Harvard when he entered.

In these four cases, which are fully set forth in *Notes and Queries*, we have evidence superior even to the English ones. Our records give the date of birth; the English parish registers give baptisms mainly. The register at Harvard, made at the time of entering college, is an independent witness of the highest value, since at the early age of admission no boy could be mistaken as to his exact age. After graduating, the chain of evidence is continuous. The catalogues and the yearly meetings at commencement-time keep every case of extreme longevity before the minds of hundreds of educated and intelligent men. It is impossible for error or fraud to occur in the cases of college graduates.

5. Of other well-authenticated cases, we will cite that of Rev. Daniel Waldo, who was born at Windham, Conn., as the records show, September 10, 1762, and who died at Syracuse, N. Y., July 30, 1864. He was a preacher all his life, and in 1856 was chosen chaplain of the United States House of Representatives. Thousands of persons living must remember him, and the fact that he was then known to be ninety-four years old. The Rev. Charles Cleveland, the well-known Boston missionary, lacked but sixteen days of completing his century. He was born at Norwich, Conn., June 21, 1772, and died at Boston, June 5, 1872. His case, however, is a good witness in substantiating instances of centenarianism.

6. Mrs. Mehitable Piper was the daughter of Joseph Barker, and was born at Acton, Mass., January 24, 1771. She died there March 25, 1872, having resided in that town all her life. The town records are complete, and in 1849 she was mentioned in the 'Piper Genealogy' as being seventy-eight years old.

7. Mrs. Anna Dix was the daughter of John Stimpson, of Charlestown, Mass., and was baptized there, as the records of the First Church show, October 27, 1771. She died in Boston, May 14, 1872. Her family state that she was born on the 14th October; but taking simply the date of baptism, she lived over one hundred years.

Numerous other cases of alleged centenarians might be cited, but the above list comprises the instances which have been investigated by the writer. To it might be added, if space permitted, a list of the last twenty-five Revolutionary pensioners, kindly furnished us by the Commissioner. It is reasonable to believe that the Pension Office carefully investigated each case. Of these, all but seven are set down as having exceeded one hundred years (the extremes being 101–109). Of one man's age no record was kept. The rest at least survived the age of 97.

The Liberal Education of Women—the Demand and the Method. Current Thoughts in England and America. Edited by James Orton, A.M. (New York and Chicago: A. S. Barnes & Co. 1873.)—Professor Orton has done a useful work in collecting in one volume a batch of the more remarkable of the articles which the above subject has called forth during the last four or five years. He has been as impartial in his selection as could be expected, considering that one side does nearly all the talking; and as there has been much talking on this theme, those who are interested will be glad to know where to find the best of it. To such we can commend the volume as very profitable reading.

After they have read it, the conclusions they will come to will be something like the following: Among thoughtful and intelligent men and women, both in England and America, there is no diversity of opinion as to the need of giving women a higher education than they have now. Concerning the nature of this higher education, there is some, but not a great, division of sentiment. All, or nearly all, are substantially agreed that it ought to be somewhat the same as that given to boys—that is, a combination of classics and mathematics and the natural sciences. It is over the amount of this education which girls ought to receive, and the machinery by which it ought to be imparted, that the divergence of ideas first shows itself. That there is very great divergence there is no denying, and it plainly has its origin in wide differences of opinion on the radical question of woman's place in nature and in society. Those who belong to Mr. Mill's school, and who hold that women are simply an abused and down-trodden race, whose equal participation with men in *all* the work of life is needed to make our civilization complete, hold also naturally that their education should be identically the same with that of men, and be imparted in the same places and by the same machinery. Those who hold, on the other hand, that the function of child-bearing which has been assigned to women has entailed differences of mental and moral as well as of physical organization, hold that female education should be regulated by a strict reference to this function; that education should be restricted in amount, so as not to unfit woman for the proper discharge of it, and because the probability that she will be called on to discharge it, and thus incapacitated for contending with men for the ordinary prizes of life, renders a man's training practically unnecessary for her. The discussion, therefore, which rages in the books and magazines is mainly over the question of degree; the question of method, though also important, is subsidiary and probably temporary in its interest. If it be once settled how much education women ought to receive, and were a general agreement once reached as to her place in society, there would probably be little difficulty in reaching an amicable conclusion as to *how* she ought to be taught.

We need hardly say that, owing to the fact that the education question is only part of the larger and more serious question of woman's proper sphere, there is very little calm or restrained writing on the former. Nearly everybody who approaches it, feeling that there are mighty interests at stake behind it—interests over which it is not in human nature to be cold or rational—apparently considers it his duty to imitate the detachment of trumpeters which Napoleon sent round on the enemy's flank at Lodi—"blow hard and charge furiously." Professor Orton himself, though he endeavors to hold the balance fairly, is occasionally carried off his feet, and even in his preface becomes slightly inarticulate, as when he compares the "woman movement" to the march of the Reform Bill over the House of Lords threatened by Brougham, and likewise to Sherman's "March to the Sea," and threatens everlasting repose among "the fossils" to everybody who opposes it.

The articles in the volume which we have marked as displaying the results of most thought or experience are President Raymond's, on the general question; the Rev. J. M. Capes's, on "The Mental Peculiarities of Women"; "The Difficulties," from the *Edinburgh Review*; "Joint Education," by the Rev. Thomas Markby; and President Fairchild's and President Blanchard's account of the experience of Oberlin and Knox Colleges respectively. We have been somewhat entertained by finding the fallacious suggestion that knowledge is food for the mind in the same sense that matter is food for the body, figuring in several of the arguments. The precious discovery first shows itself in an article from the *Westminster Review* on "The Suppressed Sex." Then President White of Cornell gets hold of it and uses it as a clencher in favor of coeducation. Then President Fairchild uses it, but with modifications; and, finally, Colonel Higginson flings it in the face of President Eliot at the Social Science Association. We think it high time now to withdraw it and put it in the garret. Dr. Freeman Clarke, of Boston, has a very singular way of meeting those who fear that if their daughters went to college with young men, they might get engaged or married to persons in a "different sphere of life and belonging to different social positions." This he confesses might happen, but this would be "a real advantage" instead of a misfortune, as it would bring a new element into the girl's family and social circle. This alone may serve to furnish an idea of the difficulty there is, and always will be, for a large portion of the class which sends its children to college in coming to terms with progressive people like Dr. Clarke. There is a great gulf of sentiment between them. To most fathers and mothers, what Dr. Clarke extols as a blessing would be a great grief and disappointment, and Dr. Clarke is evidently of opinion that the simple assurance of himself and his friends that they are all wrong ought to act as complete consolation, and cause them to send their girls to be "coeducated" at once.

Outlines of German Literature. By Joseph Gostwick and Robert Harrison. (New York: Holt & Williams, F. W. Christern. Boston: S. R. Urbino. 1873.)—On the whole, this book is deserving of commendation. It is a painstaking compendium, very full and accurate considering the size of the book and the dreariness of most of the writers who had to be dealt with. In the first chapter, we have a brief account of the language, with its historical divisions, and a short mention of the few writings in the old High-German. An abstract is given of the old "Nibelungenlied," of the two romances, "Parzival" and "Tristan," as well as of the other early products of German literature. A few intelligent words are written about the *Minnelieder* and the Master Singers. The first one hundred and fifty pages bring the history up to the time of the Thirty Years' War, near the end of which Leibnitz was born. About fifty pages are devoted to the period 1725–70, in which Gottsched, Bodmer, Winckelmann, Klopstock, Lessing, and Wieland are the best known names. Nearly three hundred pages follow, treating of Goethe, Schiller, and the romantic school; and the last one hundred and twenty pages discuss the most prominent names in the literature of the last forty years, in which, to be sure, certain omissions may be noted (for it is easy to forget certain of the second-class poets of Germany), but which in general goes over the ground very carefully. In fact, the book comes down to so late a period that Strauss's 'Der alte und der neue Glaube' and the *Kutschkelied* are mentioned. In handling the more important authors, a brief sketch is given of their lives, extracts are given from some of their writings, and of others there is but a short account. The philosophers and theologians have a few pages given to the elucidation of their systems. The criticisms are of the sort which may be called safe. No popular idols are overthrown, no neglected genius receives unaccustomed adulation. What we may call the good, average opinion of the present time is expressed. It may be seen, then, that this is in no way an original book; it is not, for instance, a book like Taine's 'History of English Literature.' Even the omnivorous general reader will probably fall asleep over it, but it has its merits as a work of reference; for other purposes it would have but little more value than an ordinary table of contents. But what it professes to do it does well. It might easily be made more valuable as a text-book—indeed, more valuable to every one, in school or out, who might have occasion to consult it—by the insertion of a list of English and French books treating of the various authors under discussion; as Lewes's 'Life of Goethe,' for instance, as well as of a certain number of review articles, like Mr. Lowell's on Lessing in the *North American Review*, republished among his essays, Cherbuliez's on the same writer in a number of the *Revue des Deux Mondes* of a few years ago, or Mr. Gryzanovski's article on Schopenhauer in the last *North American*. This would enable the reader to supplement the meagre accounts of this hand-book, and see what more thorough criticism has to say about the writers. Such information, which should be at hand and save a discouraging hunt through catalogues, would be of great service to many and would be in the way of no one.

Wie studirt man Philologie? Eine Hodegetik für Jünger dieser Wissenschaft. Von Wilhelm Freund. (Leipzig. 1872.)—In Dr. Freund's pamphlet of 158 pages, the well-known author of 'Freund's Lexicon,' 'Andrews's Lexicon,' and in fact every lexicon of the last thirty years, undertakes to reply at once to the questions put him from various quarters by young men beginning their philological studies. The first question is "What is Philology, and what is its extent?" And this question settled, the next is "How shall all this amount of study be compressed into the short space of three years?" The ordinary German university presents a variety of means and appliances: (1) the lectures; (2) the philological seminary; (3) the archæological museum; (4) the library. Now, if to these public aids we add the philological exercises of a more private character, carried on by the individual instructors under various names, such as "Philological Preparatory Seminary," "Greek Society," "Grammatical Society," "Philological Society," "Archæological Seminary," etc., etc., the embarrassment of riches becomes great. But this is not all. The lectures run over all departments of ancient life, from the Encyclopedia and Methodology of Philology to Numismatics, from the "Homeric Question" and Pindar's Hymns to the interpretation of Diodorus Siculus and the Apokolokyntosis of Seneca. How is the raw gymnasiast, coming from his prescribed course of study, ever to thrid

this tangled maze, and escape sliding off into some one-sided specialty before he has fairly surveyed the ground and made himself master of the situation?

To remedy this obvious difficulty, Friedrich August Wolf shaped his lectures into a three years' course, and his example has been followed by other eminent men, such as Niebuhr, Boeckh, and Bernhardy. Briefly condensed, the course recommended for the three years is, I., Grammar, criticism, and hermeneutics; II., Antiquities—public, private, and sacred, including mythology. The history of literature, begun the first year, is continued. The student is also expected in the second year to be a member in full standing of the Philological Seminary. III., Art, including rhetoric, poetry, metres, and archæology, together with numismatics.

Dr. Freund is naturally compelled to discuss one question which has been somewhat agitated in this country, namely, the relative importance of lectures and of practical exercises, corresponding to some extent with the American recitation system. It will surprise a great many people who fancy that a German university is an agglomeration of lecturers and lectures, and that the lectures are like the loose talks to mixed audiences which are called lectures in this country, to hear with what emphasis he speaks of the importance of the philological seminary, and what a decided preference he gives to the dialogic method over mere passive or receptive lectures. "Without disparaging in the least," he says, "the value of university lectures, it is an indisputable truth that instruction in the form of dialogue is far more profitable than lectures of the very highest order. It is a proof of Wolf's keen vision that he revived the ancient Socratic and Platonic method of *φιλολογία*, the 'discussion of subjects of knowledge,' by establishing the philological seminary." This view of Dr. Freund's is entirely confirmed by the progress of philology in Germany for the last twenty-five years. No name in this department of learning is so conspicuous as that of Friedrich Ritschl; no school of philology has made its mark so decidedly as his; to be a "*Ritschlianer*"—an approved pupil of Ritschl's—at once ensures respect and opens the way to speedy advancement. This wide-spread influence of Ritschl's is not due to his lectures, though his lectures are in the highest degree instructive and stimulating; more than anything else it is due to the struggles in the philological seminary, where everything is sifted to the bottom, where the student is plied with all sorts of questions, has sudden and unexpected dangers constantly sprung upon him, and fences with a master whose quick eye and equally quick blow keep the pupil ever on the alert. The English system of education, where the weight is thrown entirely upon written examinations, undoubtedly gives great poise and aptness at answering questions. But its weak point is that it is not productive and does not train to original investigation, and the blind admirers of this system would be puzzled to answer the questions: Where are the results? Where are the books? What school of young English philologists can be set by the side of the disciples of Ritschl and Curtius? Though Dr. Freund's book is primarily intended for German students, it will be useful and instructive to American students who propose to go to Germany to study philology; also to another and very meritorious class of men, teachers whose means do not allow them to go to Europe, but who are anxious to push their studies out beyond the narrow college curriculum. Some notices of distinguished philologists and hints for the formation of a modest private philological library, may interest a larger class of readers.

The Science of Exchanges. By N. A. Nicholson, M.A., Trinity College, Oxford. Fourth Edition. (New York: Cassell, Petter & Galpin. 1873.)—Mr. Nicholson has succeeded in getting more information about money, value, price, currency, coinage, and exchange, and even rent and taxation, into small compass than, we may safely say, any author we know of, and the secret of his success lies simply in the command of a remarkably lucid style, and a curious and somewhat original use of the device of "question and answer." Ordinarily attempts to impart knowledge in this way result in the construction of a dreary dialogue—one of the parties to which appears as a helpless but docile ignoramus, and the other as a ponderous and preternaturally solemn pedagogue. Mr. Nicholson's questions are, however, very much such as any intelligent man you meet in the street and who had never given any thought to economical subjects would be apt to ask, and the answers will probably strike nine readers out of ten as the very thing they would have themselves liked to say. Their value as aids to attention is increased, too, by a vein of grim, sarcastic humor in which Mr. Nicholson's own prejudices crop out in a somewhat comical way, as where, after quoting an opinion of the London *Times* on banking, he puts as Question 236, "Can you mention *any one* whose opinion is different from the *Times*?" and then quotes as the answer Mr. Tooke and Sir Robert Peel; and where he refers the student to the writings of Mr. John Stuart Mill for the answer to the question—"What can be said in favor of small farms?" on the ground that "small farmers are so much more comfortably off in his books than they are elsewhere."

Mr. Nicholson is an out-and-out free-trader, an ardent supporter of the Bank Restriction Act of 1844, an indomitable "hard-money man," a believer in large farms and in a judicious mixture of direct and indirect taxation. The most striking original observations in his book are those in which he derides the ponderous discussions which have taken place on the nature and origin of rent, showing that they have no more mystery or importance in agriculture than in manufactures, in butter-making than in button-making, and in which he maintains, against Mr. John Stuart Mill, that the doctrine that land is limited in quantity, and property in it ought not, therefore, to be left open to competition and the operation of the ordinary laws of trade, is fallacious in this—that it is limited in quantity to the same extent as all other commodities, and no more, if we consider the land of the globe in its relation to the human race; and the proof he finds in the fact that the products of the earth, which for man's purpose are the earth, increase as fast as the consumers of them. He acknowledges that land in one place, as in England, for instance, is limited in quantity, but asks what difference this makes as long as the nation has made up its mind not to rely on its own agricultural products for support. This is all acute and ingenious, but does not cover the whole case, as it does not touch on the influence of landed property on character and institutions—or, in other words, passes by without notice the political bearing of land laws. The book is one, however, which will make anybody who masters it and accepts it a very formidable antagonist on any of the leading economical questions of the day. The publishers or the author make a mistake in putting nothing on the outside but a Greek title, which not one in a thousand of those to whom the book might be most useful will understand.

The Fishing Tourist: Angler's Guide and Reference Book. By Charles Hallock, Secretary of the "Blooming Grove Park Association." (New York: Harpers. 1873.) *I go A-Fishing.* By W. C. Prime. (New York: Harpers. 1873.)—These two books belong to different classes. Mr. Hallock's is chiefly filled with practical advice for fly-fishing, or rather (for neither he nor Mr. Prime is of those purists who disdain on all occasions to bait their hook) for trout and salmon fishing. His advice is sensible, and will be found of advantage to the fisherman in almost every part of the trout and salmon region of the United States.

Mr. Prime is a writer of another kidney. His object is perhaps not so much to imitate Isaac Walton (or, as he is commonly called by thoroughgoing fishermen, Old Isaac Walton) as to write a book immeasurably finer than anything which Isaac Walton could ever have dreamed of writing. It is a sort of book for parts of which Mr. Hallock would have a great contempt, as he says in his preface that "with a few notable exceptions, our sporting literature is composed of technical scientific treatises, . . . or else the books are mere recitals of personal exploits, supplemented by sentimental apostrophes to nature, and rounded off with highflown periods." There is, to be sure, a good deal besides this in Mr. Prime's book, containing as it does wonderful stories of Eastern love and revenge, bibliographical discussions, investigations into the character of Agnes Dürer, dialogues on the morality of angling, and many other interesting topics. For our part, we must say that we object much more to the moralizing than to the fish stories. There is a sort of pleasure to be got—not, perhaps, wildly exciting, but still a pleasure—from the anticipations aroused in the mind when we read about the deliberate preparations, the cautious steps through the long grass or the bushes, the calculation of the distance from the pool, the "cast," the light descent of the yellow, or the red, or the green, or the blue flies upon the surface of the water, the sure "rise," the steady "strike," the fearful "whirr" of the reel, the agonizing run of the line, the unexpected turn of the fish, the doubtful recovery of the "slack," and all the subsequent manœuvres of the angler and his victim. We like this better, for instance, than such an extraordinary production as that called 'Iskander Effendi.' We have found Mr. Prime's book, in short, rather tedious, on account of the ambitious style in which it is written. It seems, however, to contain a good deal of sense about fishing. On one point he deserves the thanks of all those who have ever cast a line. Almost all neophytes in the art of fishing are confused by the strange things they hear about the particular kind of flies it is necessary to use, and find by experience that the directions given them are actually worthless. After fishing all day with flies of approved pattern, it often happens that some strange bit of color like nothing recommended will suddenly kill fish after fish. The explanation of this is, according to Mr. Prime, that the habits of breeding of trout—and no doubt it is true of salmon also—are different in different pieces of water, not only as to hours, but as to food; and it is hence useless to try to form any opinion as to what fish will do in any given place, without actual experience of the water. The particular fish to be attacked must be studied and understood.

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The Bank of England rate of discount was again reduced ½ per cent. on Thursday, and now stands at 3½ per cent. The Bank gained £96,000 in bullion last week, and the Bank of France gained in specie 7,000,000 francs.

The weekly statement of the Clearing-house banks on Thursday was unfavorable. The banks lose $895,600 in their total reserve, while the total liabilities have decreased but $314,500. The surplus reserve now stands at $13,803,475, against $14,620,450 last week—a decrease of $816,975.

The following are the statements for the past two weeks:

	July 26.	August 2.	Differences.
Loans	$289,389,100	$289,986,200	Inc. $597,100
Specie	31,249,300	32,272,200	Dec. 977,100
Circulation	27,225,100	27,188,000	Dec. 37,100
Deposits	239,118,300	238,840,900	Dec. 277,400
Legal tenders	49,957,000	50,038,500	Inc. 81,500

The following shows the relation between the total reserve and the total liabilities:

	July 26.	August 2.	Differences.
Specie	$31,249,300	$30,272,200	Dec. $977,100
Legal tenders	49,957,000	50,038,500	Inc. 81,500
Total reserve	$81,206,300	$80,310,700	Dec. $895,600
Circulation	27,225,100	27,188,000	Dec. 37,100
Deposits	239,118,300	238,840,900	Dec. 277,400
Total liabilities	$266,343,400	$266,028,900	Dec. $314,500
25 per cent. reserve	66,585,850	66,507,225	Dec. 78,625
Excess over legal reserve	14,620,450	13,803,475	Dec. 816,975

The stock market has been quite active for the time of year. The dealings, however, have been mostly confined to the "Vanderbilt stocks," with Western Union Telegraph as the leading feature. The sales of Western Union reached 124,500 shares, or double those of any other stock, excepting Pacific Mail and Lake Shore. The rumors respecting the leasing of the Lake Shore Road to the Central and Hudson continue, and seem to be sufficient to keep up a very "bullish" feeling in the stock. The basis spoken of, upon which the road will be leased to the Central, is 8 per cent. guaranteed dividends by the latter to the former; but, of course, nobody goes so far as to say when the lease will be made, or what are the terms.

Pacific Mail has been quite active at times. On Friday, the property of the Company in this city was attached by the county and city for non-payment of taxes. The amount due was subsequently paid and the property released. The feeling against the present board of directors is very bitter, and in the Exchange during the week very plain language has been used respecting their conduct in the administration of the Company's affairs. The general belief is that the directors are short of the stock, and are consequently anxious that the price should go down, in order that they may "buy in" at a profit.

There is a better feeling in some of the investment stocks, and we notice that the price of Chicago, Burlington, and Quincy has advanced to 106, after having sold at 98½. Michigan Central is also firm, with a good demand from investors.

The following shows the highest and lowest sales of the leading stocks at the Stock Exchange for the week ending August 2, 1873:

	Monday.	Tuesday.	Wed'day.	Thursday	Friday.	Saturday.	Sales.
N. Y. C. & H. R.	104⅛ 104⅞	104⅛ 105⅛	105⅛ 103⅞	105⅜ 105⅝	105⅛ 105⅝	105⅛ 105⅛	35,900
Lake Shore	93⅞ 94	93⅞ 94⅜	94⅜ 93	94⅜ 95¼	94⅜ 95	94⅛ 95⅛	61,700
Erie	58½ 59⅜	59 60¼	59¼ 60⅜	59⅜ 61½	59⅜ 59⅞	59⅜ 59⅜	29,000
Do. pfd.	.....	72½	72½	.... 74½	73¼	....	.....
Union Pacific	27⅞ 28	27⅝ 28	28 28½	28⅜ 29½	28½ 28⅜	28⅜ 29	19,700
Chi. & N. W.	69⅛ 70⅜	69¼ 69⅜	69¼ 69⅜	69⅜ 70	67⅜ 69¼	68⅛ 69	18,700
Do. pfd.	83	83 83¼	83 83¼	84 83¼	83 83⅜	....	100
N. J. Central	101⅜ 103	102 103	103	102½ 103¼	103	....	100
Rock Island	110⅜ 110⅜	110⅛ 111	110⅜ 110⅜	110⅜ 110⅜	110⅜ 110⅛	....	10,900
Mil. & St. Paul.	51⅜ 52¼	52¼ 52⅜	52⅛ 52⅛	53⅜ 53⅜	52⅜ 53⅛	52⅛ 53⅛	19,500
Do. pfd.	71⅜	.... 74⅛	73½	73⅜ 74	74	....	700
Wabash	71⅜ 72⅛	72¼ 72¼	72⅛ 73	72½ 73	72⅜ 72⅝	72⅛ 72¾	15,100
D. L. & Western	100¼ 100⅜	100¼ 100¼	100½ 101	101 101¼	101⅛	101⅜ 102	9,900
R. H. & Erie	2⅜ 2⅞	2⅜ 2⅜	2⅜ 2⅜	2⅜ 2⅜	2⅜ 2⅜	....	400
O. & M.	39⅜ 40⅛	40 40⅛	39⅜ 40⅛	40 41⅛	39⅜ 40⅛	39⅜ 40⅛	17,600
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Pacific Mail	37⅜ 38⅛	37⅛ 38	37⅛ 37⅝	37⅛ 38½	37 38	36⅝ 38	71,600

Government bonds have been very quiet, with the floating supply upon the market small. The net decrease in the public debt amounted to but $370,518 for the month of July. The final settlement was completed on Wednesday, with the Syndicate, for the $50,000,000 5-20's called in March 1, 1873.

The business in railroad bonds has been very light, owing to the absence of many investors from the city. We hear of a few defaults in the payment of the August interest upon railroad bonds, mostly by new roads. The July interest upon the bonds of a number of new roads was passed, and this has doubtless caused some timidity and interfered with investment purchases.

The gold market has been very dull, with a downward tendency in price. The range of quotations for the week has been between 115⅞ and 115¼, with 115⅜ to 115½ as the closing price.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 14, 1873.

The Week.

THERE seems to be much quietness at present in Massachusetts on the subject of the approaching election among that part of the population which may be supposed to be by instinct anti-Butler; but there are signs that work is to begin at once, of which the most significant is the action of the State Central Committee in fixing the time for the assembly of the convention. The General's friends wished it called soon, in order that they might take advantage of the summer weather, which renders the good inactive, but only stimulates the energies of the bad, and pack the delegate conventions. The Committee have put off the day till the 17th of September, when his enemies will be back from the seaside and the country. The Hamilton Hall gentlemen are reported as saying that they are not only "going to beat Butler, but they are going to beat him badly." The General himself has published his reply to a constituent who wrote several months ago to enquire into the back-pay business, and given his reasons for advocating the passage of this bill. They are—first, that the bill merely equalized salaries; second, that the increased salary is not too large; third, that Mr. Washburne's statement that he lives on $17,500 a year in Paris is not true; fourth, that those members who have returned their back-pay have done so for fear of newspaper clamor; fifth, that Senator Morton, Vice-President Wilson, Mr. George F. Hoar, and several other gentlemen have manifested the greatest inconsistency in what they have said and done about back-pay; sixth, that benevolent institutions are crazy to get the money, and write letters to him by the dozen, suggesting the devotion of his increased pay to pious and charitable works, on the ground that he cannot honestly keep it himself; seventh, that the newspaper clamor on the subject is caused by the abolition of the franking privilege. This document he has caused to be printed as a supplement to many country papers, but the editors rail at it and him all the same.

It will be seen that most of these reasons are not new; and as those which are new are as specious as those which are old, it seems unnecessary to examine them. Indeed, as the General is a statesman whom very few people would believe under oath, his journalistic productions hardly merit the attention they receive. When Congress meets in the winter, it may be predicted that an internecine and fratricidal struggle will be waged between those members who have taken their back-pay and those who have sent their pay back. Feeling is beginning to run high on the subject. One Congressman, Mr. Hambleton of Maryland, is quoted as saying that unless his constituents are willing to maintain him properly, "he will be damned if he will represent them at all," and a Mr. Lamison of Ohio, being called upon to resign by a party convention, replied in terms of even more decisive profanity—language, moreover, exhibiting the most deep-seated contempt for the opinions of the people. Mr. Willis B. Machen, on the other hand, who was sent to the Senate by Kentucky to serve during an unexpired term, in reply to some condemnatory resolutions, says that the resolutions are "dignified and gentlemanly," and expresses the hope that we may "all be happy yet."

The Ohio Democracy has met in convention, and appears to have made fully as great a mistake as the conventions of that party have, by confession of Democrats themselves, been constantly making for many years. In brief, they acted on the notion that the Republican party has shown itself so unfit to govern, so corrupt in office, that the people will admit to power the old Democratic party while it still obstinately refuses to say that its recent attitude toward the General Government and the four millions of newly emancipated citizens has been mistaken and faulty. Because some Republicans are thieves, we are to submit the government to the party whose spirit and policy are dead against the last three amendments to the Constitution, and whose last public performance was the gigantic folly and fraud of pretending to support Greeley and Brown on a Republican platform. It is true that the Republican party was never before so obnoxious to criticism in these respects; nevertheless, as we suppose, the Democratic notion is a complete delusion, and we expect that the result of the canvass under Mr. Allen's leadership will make this perfectly evident. A platform which goes no further than to "accept dead issues" is not all that is required of a party which only last year showed itself so entirely unscrupulous that its grudging concessions are not likely to be estimated at a high value as pledges of its future action; and that we feel satisfied the Democracy is going to learn once more for the hundredth time. The candidate put upon the platform would have been, and indeed was, a good candidate thirty years ago. We do not refer to Mr. Allen's age. What we mean is, that he holds the principles and beliefs of a sort of Democracy which was in its vigor a generation ago, and is unfit for a complete political creed to-day. We presume it is no secret that the party wished to nominate for the governorship Mr. Thurman, a justly popular leader, in the hope of carrying the State Legislature on the strength of his name, and then giving him the senatorship—an office which he certainly adorns and which it will be a pity to have him lose. He could have had no hope of getting it again had the more liberal movement favored by Mr. Groesbeck succeeded. Unless with a purely Democratic majority in the House and Senate, he doubtless would be regarded as a Democrat of too pronounced a school to be returned to the Senate. Mr. Allen, his relative, is, however, his candidate, and the campaign is in his interest.

We dare say that Mr. Thurman is sagacious enough from his point of view. If reports are to be credited, the Allen County movement was a very hot-weather movement, useful to the newspapers in the dull season rather than a means under Providence of revolutionizing our politics. The author of the ringing and progressive resolutions which heralded this latest onward step was Mr. T. E. Cunningham, and Mr. Thurman's estimate of his value to the party, and of the significance of his change of base, may seem more just if we consider that in 1866 Mr. Cunningham was a Republican in good standing, and indeed was a member of the Republican Committee of this same Allen County. But in that year he thought that he "saw a great light," as the saying is, when, in point of fact, he saw only thick clouds and the blackness of darkness, and in consequence he made the deplorable miscalculation of "Johnsonizing" and being made an assessor of internal revenue, by which acts he lost his standing in the party, and was compelled to become a Reform Democrat. Associated with him is one Dr. Harper, who also was once a Republican, but, like Mr. Cunningham, he also Johnsonized, and at first became postmaster in the town of Lima; but by-and-by another took his office, and Dr. Harper also became a Democrat, and, after a lapse of years, a leader in the Reform movement. So, too, Mr. Shelby Taylor, a banker, who held the position of revenue collector in 1866, and did not wish to lose it, went over to Mr. Johnson, and in that way retained his collectorship, but on the advent of President Grant was reduced to Democracy and Reform. Doubtless the following of these leaders is not so great as to influence perceptibly the mind of Mr. Thurman, although leaders like Mr. Groesbeck, who has long been a dissatisfied Democrat, have been ready enough to applaud the aim of the movement. Nor do we count the Liberal Republican

following as of much more moment. The mistake of last year was an enormous mistake, and one which is not going to receive any justification from the present efforts of the authors of it to run speedily to a success in which the memory of their former blunder may be swallowed up and forgotten. Sincere reformers will not greatly care to assist them. Still, it must be remembered that in several parts of Ohio, and notably in Cincinnati, there are numerous men, formerly Republicans, who look with dislike on the party as at present managed. But Mr. Thurman's convention has done nothing to conciliate these men. He has simply called out once more to the front the unterrified Democracy, which to-day, as five years ago, looks askance and bitterly at the negro, and squints towards bond taxation, as it did in the days of Pendleton. These assertions a look at the platform will verify.

The Virginia Democratic Convention—whose action throws some light on that of the Ohio Democrats—was a contentious body, but at the last was enthusiastic. A "railroad ring" is said to have secured the success of General Kemper's candidacy, and this made his opponents angry, they having been strong for Colonel Withers, who was put in nomination in the convention by Gen. Fitz Hugh Lee, seconded by Gen. Jubal Early, and who was the favorite of what was probably the most excitable and eloquent portion of the assemblage. The speech-making was something extraordinary, even for the land of barbecues. All became calm, however, when Colonel Withers magnanimously accepted the second place on the ticket. "A white man's government" is said to have been the burden of the convention's song; but then, the Southern Democracy always was a desperately heavy weight for the Northern Democracy to carry. It is no more than fair, however, to admit that when the convention pointed to the condition of Virginia, and contrasted it with the "condition of those States which have been under Radical rule," there is little left for some of us to do but turn away our eyes and momentarily, at least, hold our tongues. We suppose, too, that we ought to accept as made in good faith the convention's assertion that the Conservative party of Virginia has for its chief purpose to secure to every citizen, white or black, native or naturalized, "equal and exact justice," and we are to suppose also, we trust, that "justice" would be defined alike by Virginians and Northerners, and by both in accordance with the spirit of the recent Amendments. One of the resolutions of the platform applauds the Virginia school-system, and asserts that as intelligence is the only safety of popularly governed States, the party intends to support good schools for the white and colored races "respectively," which means separate schools, no doubt. Another resolution of interest was a declaration that Virginia Conservatives would not judge President Grant's Administration in any captious spirit—a declaration not without political wisdom, but perhaps not destined greatly to embarrass Major Hughes, the recently nominated Republican candidate for the governorship, in his mission to Washington, where his "business is of a political character and has reference to the approaching campaign"—in other words, is meant to secure the control of patronage for use in the election. As had been predicted, the convention also demanded that the General Government should complete the James River and Kanawha Canal, and the favor with which this scheme is met by men of all creeds points perhaps to a principal issue in our immediately coming politics.

Of no little importance is an event which occurred in North Carolina on the 7th instant, and which has not had the notice it deserves. We speak of it as having occurred; it has almost certainly occurred, although nothing positive will be known in the matter until the returns of an election which took place on that day shall all be in. This election was for the purpose of passing upon eight amendments to the State constitution—amendments drafted by a Democratic legislature, mainly opposed by the Republicans and mainly voted for by the Democrats. The latest reports from the State say that the negro counties gave heavy majorities against them, but that they have been carried. Of the eight, the important one is the fifth. This provides for striking out of the Constitution that portion of it which declares the public debt to be inviolable and never to be questioned; and further, that part which requests the legislature, by appropriate legislation and by adequate taxation, to provide for the prompt and regular payment of the interest and principal. It is to be hoped that before the time arrives for legislative action the legislature will see that its best course, even if it thinks of no more than the pecuniary interest of the State, will be to refrain from using the freedom just granted it. But we must admit that this is something to be hoped for, and is not a thing to be confidently expected. North Carolina was never rich, and beyond doubt the Holden government laid on her a fraudulent burden of millions. Still she might at least behave as an ordinary bankrupt does—ask consideration from her creditors, and do the best she can by them for as long as she can.

Out of about forty sketches submitted for the Philadelphia Centennial Exhibition building, the Committee last week selected ten as entitling their authors to the award of a thousand dollars each, and the privilege of a second and final competition. We believe we do not exaggerate in saying that a more fantastic and puerile set of designs than some of these forty were never offered in any competition. The mere sight of them must have done much to lighten the gravity of the Committee's task, while the reading of the accompanying descriptions, if performed aloud, must have had a very boisterous effect upon the judges. Six of the preferred plans were the work of Philadelphia architects, but one was from New York, and none came from Boston. It is, therefore, proper to state that the leading architects of both these cities, Mr. Vaux excepted, declined to enter the competition on the conditions laid down, which they deemed unfair to the profession, unprofitable, and morally certain to call out only inferior designs. What the chances are of good work at this stage of the proceedings may be guessed from the fact that each of the ten architects admitted to a second trial will be furnished with photographic copies of the plans of the other nine, and that the term allotted for making a fresh design, with estimates, is something less than six weeks. It will be strange indeed if the result is not to add one more to the long list of our failures to produce anything creditable to the taste of the age, or of permanent gain to art, by architectural competitions.

The citizens of Montreal have held a large mass-meeting to express their indignation at the Pacific Railroad scandal. The meeting passed resolutions demanding a thorough investigation of the charges; denouncing any intervention on the part of the executive officers implicated as an attempt on the liberties of the people and the prerogative of the House of Commons, as well as of its committee of investigation, appointed in pursuance of the "immemorial usage of the House of Commons in England;" deprecating delay, and recommending a petition to the Governor-General, praying him not to prorogue Parliament "until the House of Commons has had an opportunity of fully satisfying public opinion on the subject of the charges," and also the House itself, praying it to take into serious consideration the necessity of immediate action. Professor Goldwin Smith has written for a magazine which he is said to edit an article denouncing the Government in unmeasured terms, and saying that "the dark line of corruption is deepened by a shade of treason." What this means we do not know, for the secret, illegal employment of foreign money for the purpose of domestic improvement does not fall within any definition of treason as laid down in the books, though treason in the British Empire is a vaguer term than with us. Sir John Macdonald bears the brunt of the attack now, and his disgrace would lead to what is called on this side of the line a "new deal all round" in politics. He is not accused of having pocketed public money, but of having used public money to debauch the public mind.

The most important news from England is that both the Ministry and the Opposition have come to the determination that household suffrage must be extended to the counties. This measure, which would add another 900,000 to the voting population, was brought forward by Mr. Trevelyan, apparently for the purpose of taking the wind out of the Government's sails, but the Government were quite equal to the occasion. Mr. Gladstone, who was absent on account of illness, deputed Mr. Forster to communicate to the House of Commons the opinion of the Ministry that the measure was "wise and politic," and could not long be delayed. Parliament was shortly afterwards prorogued, so that nothing more was done: but it is believed that at the next general election the Government intend to make this extension of the suffrage a subject of appeal to the country.

Evidently the design of the recent changes in the English Cabinet was to strengthen a ministry that clearly needed strengthening, and as evidently that will be to some extent the result. To have Mr. Gladstone himself in his old and favorite place, the Chancellorship of the Exchequer, which no one can fill as he can, will, of itself, be felt as a welcome change from the administration of Mr. Lowe, who has repeatedly made embarrassing and damaging mistakes, and who has never shown great capacity for the higher range of the duties of his position. He succeeds Mr. Bruce in the Home Secretaryship, a position where his native abilities will have all the scope that he could desire. Interviews between him and committees who desire the use of Hyde Park for political meetings will not be marked by tears, as once was the case in Mr. Bruce's time, or, if they are, it will not be Mr. Lowe's eyes that will be dim. Perhaps his one superior in the art of snubbing delegates is Mr. Ayrton, and that gentleman resigns the place of First Commissioner of the Board of Works, in which position he has insulted, annoyed, and irritated so many people, some of them men of the eminence and utility of Dr. Hooker. He becomes Judge Advocate General in the Army Service. Mr. Bruce (formerly Home Secretary) goes into the peerage, and takes the Lord Presidency of the Council, the Marquis of Ripon vacating it. The ministry also loses Mr. Childers and Mr. Baxter, but gains Mr. Dodson, a very useful parliamentary official, who becomes a Financial Secretary in Mr. Baxter's place; Mr. W. P. Adam, a Scottish member, and especially Mr. Bright, who takes the sinecure position of Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster, succeeding Mr. Childers. Mr. Arthur Peel becomes the Liberal whip in the room of Mr. G. G. Glyn, nephew of Charles Kingsley and of J. A. Froude, and an excellent sample of the modern English peer. He has just become the second Lord Wolverton—a title, by the way, which was taken by Mr. Glyn's father from a little wayside village, raised from insignificance to opulence by one of his railways, he having been not only a banker who conducted the affairs of a banking house founded in 1712 by an English squire, but also one of the earliest, most courageous, and most successful of railroad kings. He carried on his operations on the Continent, too, as well as in England. The success of the Grand Trunk Road of Canada, which we may regard as a part of our own railroad system, was largely due to the faith, perseverance, and liberal expenditure of Mr. Glyn. Sir John Coleridge was offered the position of Master of Rolls, but declined it, and it was then given to Sir George Jessel.

The Tichborne trial still continues to excite a good deal of attention. Dr. Kenealy, of counsel for the defendant, has made his opening speech, which seems to have been of an astonishing character, very like some of the forensic efforts which we are accustomed to hear delivered on this side of the water by gentlemen who practise in the criminal courts of this city. He began by announcing his intention of calling hundreds of witnesses, who, he said, would not come forward for money, not for hundreds or thousands of pounds, not mere adventurers or men sought out by detectives or attorneys—in short, witnesses as different as possible from those of the prosecution—men who knew the defendant to be the true Sir Roger, and only desired to tell the truth, because they thought the prosecution bad and wicked. He then proceeded to indicate his line of defence, which seems to be a general admission of the vulgarity and depravity of his client's character, coupled with the insinuated argument that his moral and intellectual defects are due to his Jesuit education. No attention was paid to his education, because Jesuits do not want mental training; the influence of the Roman Catholic clergy might be seen in France, a country which it had converted into a "cesspool of corruption and ignorance." He described his client as an outcast, a vagabond, lost to every sense of honor or decency, but said that this is the very character which, from his Jesuit education, Roger Tichborne ought to have. Dr. Kenealy accounted for his client's forgetfulness of his life in Paris by saying that this was strictly in accordance with psychical philosophy, things being remembered in proportion to their pleasurableness and *vice versa*. The more painful they were, the sooner they were forgotten. As to these psychical views, however, the Chief-Justice expressed on behalf of the bench grave doubts.

The most that can be said in regard to the general state of affairs in Spain is, that extreme activity prevails there among all classes of partisans; that the Intransigentes appear, on the whole, to be getting the worst of it, whenever they come in contact with the Government troops; that they are proving themselves as wild-headed, wolfish, and incompetent as ever did any French Communist mob; that the Carlists more than hold their own, but clearly are not in a condition as yet to do anything approaching the decisive; and that the Government at Madrid can still be said to exist. Specific acts of importance have been the report to the Cortes of a committee which recommends that the Government be allowed to prosecute such members of the Cortes as went down into the provinces to stir up insurrection; and the adoption of a resolution authorizing the prosecution of nine of them. Very singular ideas obtain in the Peninsula nowadays among the gentlemen who believe in a republic, or several republics, for Spain. Here is what one of the deputies—and not only a deputy, but one of the ministers—said in debate the other day:

"I am ready to fight the Carlists, tooth and nail. I am ready to punish inexorably the assassins and incendiaries of Alcoy, or those who elsewhere may commit or have committed similar atrocities. But when it becomes a question of shedding the blood of those who share my political creed [*correligionarios*], I confess that my heroism does not go so far as this. (A voice—'But if they are rebels?') They may be rebels in your estimation, and even in mine; but it is one thing to consider them rebels, and another to fight them. There are here only two courses open—a policy of resistance and attack, or one of concession and conciliation. May I speak frankly? (Cries of 'Yes.') I declare that, as concerns our *correligionarios* actually in rebellion at Cartagena, or any others who may rebel elsewhere, we ought to practise towards them a policy of conciliation and concession. (A voice from the Center—'This would make government impossible.') I would never set my signature to a document ordering troops to attack with bayonets or bullets our *correligionarios*, though in armed rebellion. (Vociferous applause from the Left.)"

While this theory of government was undergoing ventilation, the Premier was being sent for to come down to the Cortes and answer a charge of conspiracy; but he could not leave the telegraph. It seems that the Spanish Premier spends a good part of his time in conversing by telegraph with any province or city which can succeed in "calling" him and getting his ear. This last is no easy thing to do, as nearly every one of the various governments of the various cities throughout the republic wants him daily. At the moment when the charge of conspiracy required his attention in the House, he was busy persuading Barcelona not to carry out a threat of revolting instantly, as Cartagena had done, and declaring herself independent. Four hours of steady work at the wires is said to have been necessary to effect this, but the result of it was that half the towns in Spain were furious at the Premier's supposed neglect of their telegrams.

ANARCHICAL POLITICS.

SIR HENRY MAINE, in his work on 'Ancient Law,' published in 1861, made some observations on the part played, and likely to be played, in modern politics by Rousseau's notion about the law of nature (which includes the doctrine of "natural rights," with which we are so familiar here). These remarks have been verified in a very remarkable manner by the events of the last ten years:

"It is chiefly," he said, "by allying themselves with political and social tendencies that the doctrines of Nature and her law have preserved their energy. Some of those tendencies they have stimulated and others they have actually created; to a great number they have given expression and form. They visibly enter largely into the ideas which constantly radiate from France over the civilized world, and thus become part of the general body of thought by which its civilization is modified. The value of the influence which they thus exercise over the fortunes of the race is of course one of the points which our age debates most warmly, and it is beside the purpose of this treatise to discuss it. Looking back, however, to the period at which the theory of the state of nature acquired the maximum of political importance, there are few who will deny that it helped most powerfully to bring about the grosser disappointments of which the First French Revolution was fertile. It gave birth and intense stimulus to the vices of mental habit all but universal at the time, *disdain of positive law, impatience of experience, and the preference of à priori to all other reasoning.* In proportion, too, as this philosophy fixes its grasp on minds which have thought less than others and fortified themselves with smaller observation, *its tendency is to become distinctively anarchical.* . . . On this point it is a curious exercise to consult the *Moniteur* during the principal eras of the Revolution. The appeals to the Law of Nature and the State of Nature grow thicker as the times grow darker."

Of the soundness and acuteness of all this, the events of 1871 in France, and of the present year in Spain, afford abundant illustration. The whole body of political and moral ideas known as Socialist, and to a large extent the polity known in Europe as democratic, rest on the theory that political society ought to be and can be rearranged in harmony with a law of nature evolved by a certain number of advanced thinkers from their own breasts. The faith in this idea has mostly taken in Europe the form of determined hostility to property, which again is a close deduction from the doctrine of human equality. A poor man is not equal to a rich man in society as at present organized, but under the law of nature he ought to be; therefore, let us make him so. But it also takes inevitably the form of hostility to all distinctions whatever. It refuses to allow any class of society to be exempt from manual labor, or to wield any greater amount of the public force than any other body. Hence, an intense repugnance to officers of the law, whether policemen, soldiers, or magistrates. With courts of justice, in particular, it has no patience, inasmuch as they are composed of men who are armed with exceptional powers, and are forced to assume a certain moral and intellectual superiority to those who come before them for judgment. How anarchy results from all this is easily seen. If you once admit that experience may be disregarded, and society reorganized on an ideal basis, and that all men are of equal weight and authority, the question on *whose* ideal shall society be reorganized at once comes up, and it is incapable of solution. The consequence is that whenever the Reds get possession of a government, we at once witness a succession of revolutions which, for aught one can see, would last interminably if nobody from the outside intervened with the strong hand. Gambetta, for instance, first has his turn, but his ideal is not satisfactory to Pyat, so Pyat overturns him and tries his own, which in like manner gives no satisfaction to Raspail, who furiously demands his innings, and so on. During the reign of the Commune in Paris, the leading managers arrested each other nearly every day, so that it was impossible to say on any given day in whose hands the management of affairs would be. These rapid revolutions, too, are heartily applauded and supported by the rank and file, partly because of their permanent distrust of all men in power, but mainly because rapidity of realization is an essential feature of the Socialist programme. A slow working-out of results is something of which the genuine radical will not hear. He demands the perfect society now and here, and finding that one contractor does not supply it as he promised on Monday, he tries another on Tuesday.

Another and perhaps the strongest reason of all why the doctrines of the radical school are anarchical is that they call for an enormous increase of the machinery of government. A society in which everybody would be protected by the state against the consequences of folly, or imprudence, or laziness; in which all the products of industry would be equally divided by an impartial hand, and every man led to his appropriate task every morning by a policeman, all children carefully educated, and all women provided with husbands or lovers, or even a society in which the principle of competition was to any considerable extent displaced by state superintendence, would call for a prodigious increase of officials and of official wisdom. No such bureaucracy, no such system of accounts, no such opportunities for peculation or waste, were ever seen or dreamed of, nor any such state of things as many of our reformers, either of the advanced or semi-advanced school, talk of. It would be ponderous and complicated beyond example, and almost beyond conception, and would, even if put into successful operation, kill human energy and darken the human mind as rapidly and inevitably as Egyptian priestcraft. But even if such a state of things were desirable, it is not practicable, because the world does not contain enough administrative talent for the management of even one nation on the Socialist plan. We cannot as we are to-day get enough of it for our government—simple as it is, and limited in its functions as it is—or our railroads, or our commerce, or our industry, or our steamships or armies. When, therefore, any considerable body of people makes an attempt suddenly to extend the functions of government, and to launch the ship of state on the dark and unknown *à priori* sea, honest men, who will not lie or deceive or undertake what they cannot perform, at once quit the deck, and the charlatans and jugglers and posture-masters rush up and take charge, and confusion reigns.

The question to what extent the "Law of Nature" has gained a hold on minds in this country is a more practical one than the extent of the ravages made by it in France and Spain. If we take Maine's three marks of its influence—"disdain of positive law, impatience of experience, and preference for *à priori* reasoning," and use them as tests, we should say that this influence was mainly, if not solely, visible among the reformatory speculators, who are, after all, a small body. The main body of the people are too busy, and the returns of labor too rapid and too large, and the national genius too intensely practical, to give much chance as yet for the ideal social state to become a subject of eager study and expectation. Probably nothing would do more, however, to spread and develop the anarchical tendencies of the new school in our politics than the admission of women to the suffrage. The female-suffrage movement here is in a large degree the result of the betrayal of a great philosopher into forgetfulness of his own canons of reasoning, through the disturbing influence of sex on his mental and moral vision—a phenomenon which the world has had many a time to deplore, and of which Mr. Mill was by no means the first or only illustrious example. It has, too, all the marks of the Socialist movement in Europe, and especially the strongly anarchical tendency, of which it furnished a striking illustration the other day, when, speaking through its principal organ about the election of Judge Craig in place of Judge Lawrence in Illinois (of which the Illinois people were already ashamed), it deduced the conclusion that any judge who decided "contrary to justice and *public opinion* ought to be impeached and deposed." This is, of course, simply another rendering of the Socialist plan of substituting "the justice of the people" (*i.e.*, judgment by a mass-meeting or large crowd) for that of courts composed of professional lawyers. The same paper warmly approved of young Walworth's assassination of his father, on the ground that marriage, as at present legalized, is a despotism which needs to be "tempered by assassination." This is worthy of note, inasmuch as it is an example of the readiness which we have remarked among nearly all the journals opposed to capital punishment to approve of private killing, if performed on a bad man, with a reasonable amount of provocation: that is to say, the killing of a human being by society, under the law, after judicial enquiry, and with official solemnity, they cannot bear; but slaughter by an individual, without forms or

investigation, even that of a father by his son, they can see fitness in. The same tenderness for private vengeance under sentimental sanctions has been shown, and in much the same quarters, in the case of the killing of Goodrich by his mistress. So, too, when the *Nation*, commenting on the Walworth case the other day, spoke of the shocking amount of brutality of which women in the poorer classes were the silent and uncomplaining victims at the hands of drunken or depraved husbands, it was solemnly called upon by the *Woman's Journal* to assist in redressing this great wrong by advocating female suffrage—the writer's belief being evidently that if, when Pat came home drunk or irritable from a day's hod-carrying in the sun, he found that Bridget had the ballot, far from chastising her as usual with the poker, he would creep into bed in respectful silence. These things seem trifling on the surface, but as illustrations of the anarchical tendency, as Maine calls it, which runs through a good deal of the sociological speculation of the day, even among ourselves, they are worthy of note.

LAW REFORM AND JUDICIAL REFORM.

THE judicial power of England consists of eighteen Common Law judges, four Equity judges, one judge for Probate and Divorce, another for Admiralty, and about half a dozen whose duties are exclusively those of an Appellate Court. There is also a Court of Bankruptcy, several criminal tribunals, and a few local or city courts of limited jurisdiction. The county courts we need hardly name, for their jurisdiction is little more than that of an American Justice of the Peace,-though they are presided over by barristers who receive salaries about equal to that of a United States Circuit Judge, and do a really large and useful business in adjusting differences, and making peace, and enforcing, but easing, the payment of small debts among the poor. Laying aside these inferior tribunals, we find, then, that the entire judicial power of England rests upon the shoulders of about thirty men. That this mere handful of men—not enough to half-fill an American railway-car—should do all of the judicial work of a great and wealthy manufacturing and commercial people down to disputes involving less than £50; and that their official utterances and conclusions should be looked up to and styled "authority" by the keen, critical, logical profession of two nations, are facts which seem overwhelming evidences of the wisdom and perfection of a system that can extract such comprehensive results from such exceedingly narrow means. To this statement it should be added, that these judges' conclusions are not the mere result of individual wisdom and discretion, like those of an Oriental kadi, but that, on the contrary, their decisions are guided and restricted by pre-existing rules, requiring that kind of continuous study and reflection which is termed legal learning, and requiring, also, that the decisions shall be so uniform that it will make little or no difference to which of these thirty men a given state of facts shall be presented, and that the utterances of all shall blend into one harmonious system, which will not only serve to settle disputes among men, but will reach the higher and more important end of settling them before they grow into the wasteful evil of litigation.

Whatever may be the complainings of the English newspapers, and the chronic discontent of the English people, and the ridicule thrown on the law by humorists and novelists, it must be evident to any rational mind that administering justice according to a comprehensive and uniform standard is an immense task, and that the facts which we have enumerated constitute an immense result. An active manufacturing and commercial community, whose daily transactions run through every form of human device and extend to every quarter of the habitable and uninhabitable globe, and which is, moreover, embarrassed by greater accumulations of wealth than any other community in the world, is necessarily one that abounds in all of the causes of litigation. These new and intimate and complex transactions of men, involving mutual dependence and trust, and aiming always at the acquisition of wealth, must lead to novel conditions and unforeseen occurrences, and may be said to breed disputes. When, therefore, such a people can reduce the judges of their superior courts to less than one for every million of inhabitants, and find that all of their litigious business is disposed of without accumulation, they demonstrate beyond all reasonable doubt that, notwithstanding a few exceptional cases, the mass of their disputes is disposed of in advance of legal proceedings, and the remainder with such certainty and rapidity that men cannot afford to resort to the law as a mere speculation in which something may turn up to their advantage, and delinquent debtors cannot invoke its aid as a roundabout form of injunction, which by the ultimate payment of costs will grant them several years of dishonest delay. Such a result is certainly a very great achievement of human intelligence, and may be said to be the direct fruit of an intelligent perseverance which has been content to learn by experience, and to improve and perfect without resorting to the revolutionary remedy of hasty destruction.

In the caustic novel called 'Piccadilly,' an American millionaire in London, being congratulated on the immense amount of money he has made in one of his New York transactions, says, deprecatingly, that the profits were not so large as is supposed; first, he had to bribe the press, which cost him one-fifth, and, next, he had to keep his own judge to grant and vacate injunctions, which was very expensive. If modern society, with its great accumulations of capital and its intense desire for wealth, were to accept as sound philosophy all that is said against the law, and were to go back to an Oriental system of individual wisdom and discretion, it would very soon result in every large operator having his own kadi at the gate. The tribute of praise which is paid in the oldest book in the Bible, and in the comparatively modern Eastern tale, to him who does justice in the cause of the poor, shows that such a system was never, as a rule, one of even-handed justice. The modern court has for its glory the fact that it is placed above the plane of individual discretion, and is designed to administer justice irrespective of the parties before it and of the amount involved in the controversy. Senator Carpenter, who is certainly a much better lawyer than legislator, while persistently shutting his eyes to the English civil service—of which he knows nothing—bears this testimony to the English administration of justice, as to which he knows, like every intelligent lawyer, a great deal:

> "I am no admirer of the British Government; but with all her injustice, with her oppression of Ireland, and the blood that stains her garments in India and her other possessions, yet to her glory it must be said, that in no other nation on earth is the law, after it is made, so impartially applied to all classes of society as in England. Wealth and influence, even noble blood, give no immunity to crime in a British court. The rich and the poor, the nobleman and the peasant, a prince of the blood and a scavenger of London, stand on a perfect level at the bar of justice in a British court."

With a state of things existing, apparently, so satisfactory to all concerned, it must cause some surprise on this side of the Atlantic that the advancing spirit of modern reform has laid its hand on the English judiciary, and even appears to be overturning courts which on the one hand have done their work so well, and, on the other, go so far back into English history as to have become a part of it. In one sense, the change is remarkable. The "Queen's Bench," direct descendant of the *Aula Regis*, the "Common Pleas," the "Court of Exchequer," the "High Court of Chancery," and the "House of Lords," are names of legal antiquity which we are hardly prepared to see swallowed up in our familiar, modern, American titles of "Supreme Court" and "Court of Appeals." But aside from the external matter of names, there is no overturning. It is improvement without the revolutionary element of destruction, and is, in fact, merely the consummation of a change whose slow and steady growth goes back nearly thirty years. The establishment of the Court of Probate was an important step toward the unification of the English judicial system. Law reform, which is something entirely distinct from judicial reform, came along between 1850 and 1860, when, by the Common Law Procedure and the Law of Evidence Acts, Parliament, with the co-operation of the judiciary and the bar, entirely changed the legal practice of the country. These statutes were so carefully considered and slowly elaborated as to have remained almost wholly free from the usual blemishes called

amendments. When the system of legal practice was simplified, and the change well established, the public mind travelled on to the subject of perfecting the judicial machinery. The order of events has been a succession of natural sequences in which the mediæval instruments have been refitted, part by part and piece by piece, for the multiplied necessities of modern society. The process has been thus: First, the law itself, civil and criminal, under the great law-reform movement of Brougham; next, the methods for administering the law, which come under the term of practice; finally, the tribunals which administer the law. This last is the change which for three years and more has largely filled the public mind of England—the mind of her legislators, judges, lawyers, merchants, editors, and has called out intelligent discussion from every class, going down to its minutest details. In our own experience in this State, we reversed the method and have failed to reach the result. The Convention of 1846, though legal in form, was revolutionary in its method of proceeding. It is the characteristic of revolutionists to destroy first and build up afterward—to accomplish everything by a blow instead of a process—and to think that things will be excellent for no better reason than that they are the opposite of the things that went before. The Convention, sitting but a few months and doing work which was beyond practical revision or repeal, abolished the distinctive practice of law and equity, and by one blow struck down every existing court in the State from the local Common Pleas up to the Chancery and Court of Errors. Immediately afterward, and coincident with the establishment of the new courts, came the destruction of the old system of practice and the hasty adoption of a Code of Procedure which has been the subject of endless amendment and of as many constructive decisions as the Statute of Frauds. There was thus a new system of practice committed to a new system of courts, and it was difficult to tell to which system many perplexing mistakes belonged. Added to these difficulties was the fact that the changes provoked the hostility of bench and bar, and, instead of being their work conjointly with the legislature, were thrust upon them by the younger politicians of the State. Having thus sown the seed of uncertainty and delay, we are now reaping the crop—on the civil side of our courts in chronic procrastination; on the criminal, in series of trials like those of Foster and Stokes. Our State courts are much less the courts of poor men than those of England, for an involved system and a weak bench make the result too dependent upon the ingenuity and skill and audacity of counsel. A New York "scavenger" employing a single mediocre attorney would be very far from standing "on a perfect level" with Mr. Vanderbilt in a New York court. Our Federal courts are substantially in the position that the Judiciary Act placed them more than eighty years ago, and thus far their advancement seems to be a matter beyond the comprehension of Congress.

There is, however, one change about to be made in the English system which is of peculiar interest, and to some extent an apparent exception to what has been said, viz., the removal of judicial power from the House of Lords. The court of last resort has been the House of Lords in name, but not in fact. It would be nearer the truth to say that the judges of the highest appellate court have been *ex-officio* members of the higher legislative body. The system is not a bad one which brings a few leading judges to aid with their learning and experience the work of legislation, or which confides the responsibility of final judicial review to a few men who have been eminent as lawyers and pre-eminent as jurists. When a Lord Chancellor retires from office, he receives a pension of £5,000 per annum, but continues for life a judge of this court of last resort. But the judicial duties of the House of Lords have overgrown the court, and the court is one liable to grow weak when it most requires additional strength. For instance, the present court is composed, first, of the Lord Chancellor (Sir Roundell Palmer), one of the ablest and most accomplished of living lawyers; but he is obliged to act as Speaker of the House and as Chancellor. Next comes the Chancellor of Ireland, who, we believe, is almost entirely occupied with his own duties. Then come four ex-Chancellors, Lords St. Leonards, Chelmsford, Cairns, and Hatherley. Finally, there are Lords Colonsay, formerly Justice-General of Scotland, Penzance (better known as Sir James Wilde), late Judge of the Court of Probate and Divorce, and Romilly, well known to American lawyers as Master of the Rolls. Some of these are men of great age, like Lord St. Leonards; others retired, like Lord Hatherley, because of broken health. Out of the list of nine, probably Lords Cairns and Penzance are the only men able to give to the court of last resort the daily attendance and hard work which it demands.

Behind these measures of judicial advancement are others for the establishment of Tribunals of Commerce, to assure merchants of simpler and cheaper means for judicial redress; and behind them again are others for trying patent rights, etc., etc. With such advancement going on by our side, how long, we would ask every intelligent American, can America afford to stand still in the path of governmental progress and trust in the assurance of her political demagogues that she is "the most enlightened nation ever known"?

AN EXCURSION UP THE OISE.

PARIS, July 16, 1873.

OLD books have their history; they have a long tale to tell, a kind of personality. I happen to own a copy of Montaigne's 'Essays,' which has still its ancient binding, on which is printed, in large letters of gold, OURSCAMP. I had for years desired to see what remains of this celebrated abbey of Ourscamp, which was once almost as famous as Cluny, and now quite as forgotten. I knew little of it, except that it was situated in the valley of the Oise, not far from Noyon—the old episcopal city where Calvin was born—in the very heart of Picardy. I found, to my great satisfaction, that there was a railway station at Ourscamp, on the Northern Railway, and, accordingly, went directly there from Paris. I noticed everywhere, as soon as I arrived in the valley of the Oise, the beauty of the small Gothic churches in the villages. Noyon had evidently been a great architectural school, and the smallest of the chapels scattered through the country around it have a great style. A geologist would explain this profusion of architectural beauty by the fact that the valley of the Oise is an endless quarry of fine calcareous stone. At Ourscamp I made enquiry of the station-master: Where is the village? where are the remains of the old abbey? He seemed bewildered by the mention of the abbey. There was a factory on the other side of the river—a large factory, which employed a thousand people. That was Ourscamp. Then there was the new village. I did not care much about the new village, and I guessed that the abbey had become a factory. It is situated about a mile from the railway. As soon as I saw the great solid, majestic walls of what the station-master called the *établissement*, I felt sure that they had been built by a rich congregation of monks, and not by eager speculators. When I passed the iron gate, having asked permission to enter, I saw, at the end of a noble avenue, a palace built in the Louis XIV. style; an immense building, which was evidently the house of the abbots and of the canons. It is inhabited now by three brothers, Alsatians by birth, who have turned the whole place into a velvet factory. I was received with much kindness, though my hosts were somewhat unaccustomed to receive any archæological pilgrims. The first object which struck my view in the large drawing-room was a picture over the huge stone chimney, representing the miracle of Ourscamp—"Ursi Campus." Saint Remi, walking in the fields, met a poor peasant who was crying. A bear had killed one of his two oxen, and he could no longer plough his field. The Bishop found the bear, brought him to the peasant, placed him under the yoke, and ordered him to do with the remaining ox the work of his new master. The picture represents the bear and the ox under the same yoke, the Saint in his sacerdotal gown, and a crowd of devout serfs.

I was then taken to the ruins of the chapel of the convent. It was indeed more than a chapel—a noble church; the entrance is still erect as well as the transept and the whole of the choir. It is impossible to imagine a more romantic ruin; it is as fine as the abbeys which are visited by the tourist in England. The delicate vaults are entire, covered with garlands of ivy, and here and there trees have been allowed to grow; their trunks seem like natural columns, and their foliage shades the summits of the vaults. If through the columns the chimneys of the factory were not seen emitting their dark smoke, the beauty of these ruins would be mingled with a sense of perfect solitude, as they are completely surrounded with trees. From the church I went to a quaint building supported by rows of solid round pilasters. This was the *maladrerie*, a hospital which the Dominicans kept open for all sick wanderers; it is in perfect preservation; one half of it is now used as a chapel, and the other half as a school for the children of

the factory. It is in the Roman style; the windows are all round-arched, and there is no trace yet of the Gothic style. The church, on the contrary, is completely Gothic, but was built long before the florid period. The buildings which were occupied by the congregation are immense; they seem built for eternity. My hosts could not even tell me the place of the library, where my Montaigne once had its place among the ponderous manuscripts, the Aldi and the Elzevirs. Everything was broken up at the time of the French Revolution. It was a consolation to see the admirable management of the modern establishment. It is conducted in the most paternal manner; the children are well taken care of, and look in fine health. Most of the families who live there, some in the ancient buildings, some in cottages, have come from Belgium. "The Belgians," said my conductors, "are steady; they are easily satisfied, and stay with us, as we always have given them work, even during the war."

I went from Ourscamp to Noyon. Notre Dame de Noyon is one of the most celebrated Gothic churches in the North of France. It has been fully described by M. Vitet, and by others, and is now among the historical monuments which are kept in repair at the expense of the state. It marks the transition between the Roman and the Gothic style; its chief characteristics are its two square solid towers, the porch, which forms a quadrangular building in front of the church, and the splendid open gallery, which runs all round the four branches of the cross, over the aisles, and the chapels which surround the choir. In no church have I seen a gallery of such importance. Over this first floor, if I may call it so, runs a second small gallery, supported by Roman pillars. The effect of this magnificent building is somewhat spoiled by the whitewash which covers the stone. At the places where it is fallen, traces of the Roman polychromy are everywhere apparent. It would cost an immense sum to restore this cathedral completely, and Noyon is now become such an unimportant little town that the state is not disposed to sink many millions in it. There is no longer any bishop in Noyon; the houses of the chapter, which occupy a circular range round the church, are dilapidated and occupied by poor people. I gave a glance at the Hôtel de Ville, built in the florid Renaissance style, with ornamental windows. The respect for architecture has so completely vanished that a citizen of Noyon has been allowed to build a common house right against the Hôtel de Ville, so as to cover a third, at least, of its elegant façade. Calvin was the son of one of the small officials of the chapter of the cathedral, and, as he was a very promising scholar, he was educated at the expense of the chapter. But the Reform never made much progress in this episcopal town, which owed everything to its bishops. I tried in vain in the remains of the library of the chapter to find some documents on Calvin. The library now hardly deserves the name, and I only found one curious manuscript of the tenth century, in its ancient wood and ivory binding. This manuscript was concealed during the Revolution, when all the precious books were either stolen or destroyed.

I derived so much pleasure from my visit to Ourscamp and Noyon, that I determined to end my tour by a visit to a neighboring town, Clermont, where St. Louis is said to have been born. Clermont has a lovely situation on the brow of a hill, surrounded by woods. It is in one of these woods, called Bois Bourbon, that St. Louis, according to tradition, was born. At any rate, the beautiful church of Clermont was built by Robert, Count of Clermont. There is a chapel in it dedicated to him, and another to his brother the king. The church is small, but it is a perfect jewel, and as the county of Clermont fell in the appanage of the House of Orleans, the princes of that family have from time to time repaired and adorned it. On the top of the hill is the ancient castle of the Count of Clermont, and in various parts the battlements of old times and the old walls are still visible. This fort, which seems built for eternity, has become a prison for females condemned to hard labor. There is not one of the six hundred prisoners who has not committed a heinous crime. The director, an old retired officer, insisted upon showing me all parts of it. The view from the higher terraces is admirable, and the air is so pure that the prisoners enjoy better health than the honest laborers of the industrial towns. I could not help pitying the poor Gray Sisters who have voluntarily devoted themselves to the reformation and to the guard of the female convicts. Some of these Sisters, I was told, once belonged to the best society. Their life now is the hardest that can be imagined, for even at night in the dormitories a constant guard must be kept. Many of the prisoners have the most uncontrollable tempers. They cannot be trusted with knives in the refectories; their meat is cut beforehand, and they eat, Japanese fashion, with wooden sticks. They work with sewing-machines, and sometimes use the needles of their machines to wound their guardians. The goods they manufacture, chiefly *bottines*, are sold, and they can make a little capital, which is given to them at the expiration of their term. The most frightful trait of the régime is the obligation of absolute silence, day and night. The Gray Sisters told me that with liberty of speech among these corrupt and criminal females, they could not undertake to keep guard over them.

The Sisters never lay their hands on a rebellious convict; when a rebellion takes place, they call for male guardians, who keep the door and approaches of the prison, and who only exceptionally enter its precincts. I found the prisoners at church, six hundred women dressed in the same uniform, and singing psalms. This singing becomes a great pleasure for them, as they are never allowed to talk; so does confession, and the almoner confided to me that he was obliged to shorten and to regulate the confessions, as many of the prisoners would never end them, if it were left with them to do so. I noticed with pleasure that there are two separate departments, one for the hardened sinners, old women who are condemned for life, and who would have a bad influence on the rest of the prisoners; and another for the young women, condemned for infanticide. Their régime is not so hard, most of them being very penitent and very young. On the whole, it seemed to me that the prison was conducted with as much humanity as was consistent with the character of the convicts. But this visit quite filled me with sadness. I could not help being disgusted at finding such inmates in a place which was once the favorite stronghold of noble knights. Henry IV., during the wars of religion, once took refuge in it; there is hardly a Bourbon prince of the old times who did not rest in it after hunting in the woods which cover the plain. The church is still there as a glorious monument of the past, and it gave me pleasure to see how proud the inhabitants of Clermont are of their architectural jewel.

We often travel very far when there is much to see at a short distance. Nothing can be more pleasant or easier than this short tour in the valley of the Oise and to Clermont; but I doubt if one Parisian in a thousand has ever thought of making it. It would bring a foreigner into the very heart of old France, show him at a glance the birthplace of the old French monarchy, and the birthplace of Calvinism in the very heart of an episcopal town.

Correspondence.

A CORRECTION FROM MISS MARTINEAU.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: In the number of the *Nation* for July 10 (page 24, paragraph 3) I see that I am mentioned, with the late Mr. Mill, as "having died."

As my handwriting is not unknown to you, I think it best to write to you myself in assurance of my not "having died," as your paper intimates. The length and gravity of my illness may go some way towards accounting for the mistake; but, as I have friends in various countries, and not a few in your own, to whom the news of my death must be painful, I must ask you to insert in your next number (unless it has been done in the interval) the fact that I was living at this date.—Yours respectfully,

Harriet Martineau.

The Knoll, Ambleside, July 26, 1873.

[We can only say that we sincerely regret the occurrence of this mistake, and cannot understand how it was overlooked at the time. —Ed. Nation.]

STEEL PENS AND "WRITER'S CRAMP."

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: The writer of this note has probably covered more paper with his penmanship than most men, and has always aimed at two things—rapid writing and a legible manuscript. He adheres still to the use of the "feather plucked from the pinion of one goose to spread the opinions of another." Occasionally he uses the steel pen, but he follows the directions given him in his youth: to rest the forearm on the desk, and the point of the little finger on the paper, as a guide to his hand, holding the pen lightly between the thumb and two first fingers, and using those two fingers and the thumb as flexible members, and not as the inflexible jaws of a small vise. Consequently, his manuscript *is* manuscript. Many modern writers work at arm's length, holding the stiff pen with a vice-like grasp, the point of the pen only touching anything; thus they strain the tendons of the arm, and are kept at a constant exercise of nervous anxiety about their "up-strokes and down-strokes." They experience, in writing, the same distress that a painter would who should lay aside his maul-stick and leave his arm unsupported. This mode of writing could not be practised with the quill, for obvious reasons, and should not be practised with the steel pen. No other solution of the causes of "clerk's paralysis" is needed than may be found in these circumstances. Let a rational mode of holding the pen be resumed, and the

"paralysis" will probably disappear. John Quincy Adams, who persisted in immense clerical labor to the last, was in the habit of holding his right wrist with his left hand as he wrote.

H. H. W.

Riverton, N. J., August, 1873.

THE FARMERS' GRIEVANCE.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: What is the farmers' grievance? It is this: the production of a greater quantity of grain than can be moved at a profit above the cost of production. In other words, "*a glut of farm products*," the very bugbear of the advocates of a tariff for protection, has ensued under the operation of the highest protective tariff ever enacted.

This glut has been caused in part by the tariff and in part by other causes of like character, the chief one of the latter being the undue stimulus given to the construction of railroads by the national system of land-grants and the general system of county, city, and town grants for the same purpose.

From these causes has come a much wider diffusion of population than is either wholesome or economical. The true dependence of the farmer is upon the home market, using that term in its true sense, and not in the manner in which it is usually perverted by the advocates of protection. The great market of the farmer is, or ought to be, found in the consumption of those who minister to his wants at points near his farm, and whose service cannot be rendered to him if they are at any great distance, because their work is of a kind that cannot be moved at all, or cannot be moved any great distance. For instance, there can be no community of farmers at any point unless there is near by a blacksmith. We never hear much of the blacksmith in the discussion of the tariff; he is not spoken of as one of those whose consumption furnishes a great home market, and whose industry must be promoted by a duty on a foreign product of like character to his own. We do not find the lobby member hanging around the doors of Congress and urging upon the members of Congress to support the blacksmiths as well as the steel-makers at the public expense. On the contrary, the argument is, "Support the steel-makers at the cost of the blacksmiths, lest the farmers should lose the market which the great manufacture of steel gives them. What if the blacksmiths must pay a little more for the steel they use for a time? they will have more work to do, because the farmers will need more tools wherewith to raise the crops to supply the makers of steel with food."

Now it needs only to examine the statistics of the last census on the occupations of the people of the United States, to expose the fraudulent nature of the argument for protection in order to create a home market for farm products. From those tables, which have been found to be more accurate than any other portion of the census, we find that there were in 1870 in the United States 5,922,471 persons employed in agriculture; 141,774 blacksmiths; 2,437 steel-makers, engaged in making cast, forged, and Bessemer steel.

It thus appears that in order to protect a branch of industry which belongs in this country by the law of nature, but which is controlled by the owners of only thirty establishments all told—who, having doubts of their own skill and capacity, have asked and obtained an enormous bounty at the public cost—and which employs a force of workmen only equal in consuming power to the product of one good-sized Western farm, the six million farmers, the majority of the voters of the country, have taxed themselves millions upon millions on steel. They pay this tax to the blacksmiths and steel users, by whom a small portion is paid into the Government treasury on foreign steel imported, but by far the greater portion to the owners of the thirty establishments named; and they have so taxed themselves upon the false pretence that unless they did so their great home market would be lost.

It is true that there are other branches of industry ostensibly protected by the tariff that employ more workmen than the manufacture of steel, but the same rule holds good throughout. There are about 70,000 persons engaged in mining coal for iron furnaces, in mining iron ore, and in making pig-iron; in their behalf, and in order to maintain the home-market, iron is very heavily taxed; but their market is not the true home market for the Western farmer; they must be concentrated in a few places, and, in supplying them, a large cost of transportation must be paid. On the other hand, it is safe to say that, for every one man engaged in making iron, there are ten men engaged in its use, and the ten men, from the nature of their employment, are or may be *near* to the farmer. Every Western town and city has a portion of them. Stoves, tools, pipes, pumps, ploughs, and the like either may be or must be made near their point of use; that point is not only near but next to the farm. These users of iron outnumber the iron-makers ten to one, and yet they who live thus near or next the farm are made the tax-gatherers from the farmers, on the pretence that unless the little force of pig-iron makers, who are so far off that it absorbs two bushels of wheat to get one to them, are supported by this tax, the farmer will have no market for any wheat.

As to textile fabrics, the mill operatives are far outnumbered by those who make the cloth into clothing; the former are concentrated, the latter are widely diffused, and are or may be next the farmer.

The nub of the difficulty lies here. Under the pretence of fostering a home market, those branches of industry that require the most capital in proportion to wages paid, and that must be concentrated at special points distant from the Western farms, have been aided by tariff bounties at the public cost. Those branches of manufacture and the mechanic arts which use the protected articles, have been made the medium of collecting the tariff tax from consumers. This latter class outnumber the laborers in the protected industries by ten to one, and they are, or ought to be, next the farmers.

Thus, while the tariff has hampered and crippled about 380 of the manufacturing and industrial occupations of the country out of 390 listed in the census, and has thus prevented the blacksmith, the carpenter, the stove-maker, the tinman, the clothier, the shoemaker, and the like from following the farmer into distant States as rapidly as they would have gone in the absence of Government interference, every effort has been made to diffuse the farming population at the most distant points—land-grant railroads have been built out into the wilderness, and the farmers, led by the vision of cheap land and a virgin soil, have been induced to follow.

The true need of the farmer now is, not so much to cheapen the cost of transportation to distant markets as to bring the market near to him, by establishing around him that diversity of employment, and next to him that true home market, without which no thorough prosperity can possibly exist. To this end the distrust of railroad bonds and stocks which may come from the wild blows that the farmers are now striking will surely tend. They will cause capital to avoid building more roads at present; farm products being in excess, other occupations will come in. The mechanic as well as the farmer will migrate, and presently Iowa, Minnesota, and Nebraska will cease to export food, as New York and Ohio have done, for the reason that their own home market will need it all. When they depend only on distant markets to take the smaller rather than the larger parts of their crops, their true prosperity will have come. How, then, will New England be supplied? Let her alone and she will find an answer. By meddlesome interference, the Government have succeeded in promoting discontent on every side and in every section. Is it not time to try the method of liberty and freedom from the perversion of the power of taxation?

New Englander.

Notes.

A NEW edition of Bishop Berkeley's 'Principles of Human Knowledge,' edited by Prof. Charles P. Krauth, is announced by J. B. Lippincott & Co. It will include a life of Berkeley, an essay on his philosophy, the entire notes and illustrations of Fraser and Ueberweg, besides much original matter by Dr. Krauth. The same house will publish a 'Lord Lytton edition' of Bulwer's works, and have besides in press the following: 'Thinkers and Thinking,' by J. E. Garretson, M.D.; 'Liberty and Law under Federative Government,' by Brittan A. Hall; 'Mission of the North American People, Geographical, Social, and Political,' by William Gilpin, late Governor of Colorado, who used, we remember, to believe that mission to be to come up and settle about Pike's Peak; 'Sparks among the Ashes,' almshouse reminiscences of Rev. F. C. Pearson; and 'Berrytown, and Other Stories,' by Mrs. Rebecca Harding Davis.——The Harleian Society is about to publish the 'Visitation of London,' made in 1633–4–5, under the editorship of Dr. J. J. Howard (who has already edited the 'London Visitation' of 1568) and of our countryman, Col. J. L. Chester. This publication will interest Americans who trace their descent from old London ancestors. The donation of one pound for the purpose of illustrating it with woodcuts of the coats of arms, etc., occurring in the 'Visitation,' will entitle a subscriber to a second copy. Dr. Howard is the Society's treasurer, and may be addressed at 3 Dartmouth Row, Blackheath, Kent. ——J. R. Osgood & Co. will, we believe, publish a series of lectures on Church and State in North America, lately delivered in Berlin by the Rev. Dr. J. P. Thompson, formerly of this city. A German translation, published by L. Simion, has met with a very favorable reception in Germany, and the work is calculated to prove a useful and timely contribution to the discussion of the principles with which it deals. ——Gebbie & Barrie, Philadelphia, have undertaken to reproduce Boydell's

Shakespeare Gallery by the heliotype process. The work comprises 100 plates, and will be issued in twenty-five parts, at $1 each. The reduction in size is about one half.

—The works which gave Mr. Bret Harte a national reputation have begun to find, through translations, a very appreciative audience in Germany. In late numbers of the *Weser-Zeitung* 'Mrs. Skaggs' Husbands, has been thus reproduced, and simultaneously at Leipzig have appeared (1) a selection from our author's prose tales (*Californische Novellen*), by Wilhelm Hertzberg; and (2) the first volume of a complete version, both prose and verse (*Die Argonauten-Geschichten*), by an anonymous translator. Hertzberg had already acquired distinction as a translator of parts of Chaucer, Shakespeare, and Tennyson, and his work in the present instance is pronounced much better than that of the rival edition, with which, as far as it goes, it may be directly compared. It embraces the 'Luck of Roaring Camp,' 'Bliss,' 'Brown of Calaveras,' and 'Princess Bob.' In the difficult task of rendering the California dialect, Herr Hertzberg has used the familiar language of Germans in humble life, which of course inadequately represents the slang of the mining camp. It is, however, probably the best that could be done under the circumstances. The report, which originated in this country, that Freiligrath was to undertake a translation of Mr. Harte's works, does not appear to be confirmed. He has indeed contributed versions of one or two of the latter's poems to Paul Lindau's periodical, *Die Gegenwart*.

—Mr. Wm. F. Poole's report of the condition of the Cincinnati Public Library for the year ending June 30 presents a very encouraging picture of progress. The number of volumes has grown in less than three years from twenty-three thousand to nearly sixty thousand. Part of this increase has been due to the deposit with the Library of certain special collections, theological and medical (Cincinnati Hospital Library), which will serve as the nuclei of departments of the general collection. The classification of the books circulated during the year is almost identical with that of 1872. A slight gain was made in German and French literature (11·2 per cent. against 10·5), and a gain (by loss) of 1 per cent. in English Prose Fiction and Juveniles (73·8 per cent. against 74·8). It still remains true, therefore, that three-fourths of the utility of any public (or perhaps we should say popular) library is to gratify the taste of novel-readers. In Cincinnati, as Mr. Poole shows, the female sex does more of this reading than the male. "Of all persons taking books, those below the age of twelve years are 2·9 per cent.; those between the ages of twelve and sixteen are 19·4 per cent.; and those above the age of sixteen are 77·7 per cent." From this it might be inferred that two-thirds of the adult readers were addicted to fiction, but we presume this not to be the case. It is quite likely that the twenty-two or three per cent. of readers under sixteen devour twice as many books as those who have passed that age. The experiment of Sunday opening has proved so entire a success that, as the president and superintendent of the Young Men's Christian Association inform the librarian, they are not only earnestly in favor of it, but know of no opposition to it among the evangelical clergymen and laymen who belong to their Association.

—As we make out from its issue of July 31, the Toledo *Blade* has been offering a book premium on subscriptions, and the account it gives of the direction of the popular taste in the choice of reading matter is rather surprising. According to its list of books called for "in the past few weeks, the proportion stands about as follows": Leading off, and apparently at the head of the roll, stands our old acquaintance, Flavius Josephus, of whose works no less than 700 copies were ordered. But if we understand the matter aright, it is only apparently that Josephus is at the head, and really the superiority must be awarded to Shakespeare by large odds: "The 'Shakespeare' of list No. 1" is set down as having been ordered by 528 persons, "the 'Shakespeare' of list No. 2" by 230, and "the 'Shakespeare' of list No. 3" by 627, and these figures give a sum of 1,385, or within fifteen of being double the number of those persons who chose Josephus. Still, that 700 people out of 2,677—which is the total number of persons recorded as having taken a premium at all—should have selected Josephus is something remarkable, and we need not wonder that Messrs. Lee & Shepard inform the editor that "the *Blade* orders have again exhausted the supply of Josephus in this country," and that they will have to send to Scotland for more. The historian cannot have been in such request for years. Very probably it was the progenitors of this generation of "Western Reserve" Republicans who transmitted to their descendants the respect which these are now showing to the confirmer and illustrator of the sacred books, and transmitted also the sort of affection and personal gratitude which the Connecticut boys and girls of half a century ago used to entertain for the historian of the siege of Jerusalem—as the author of the only readable reading that in those days was allowed them on Sundays. Besides the 1,385 'Shakespeares' and the 700 'Josephuses,' the *Blade's* subscribers have called for "330 'Arabian Nights' of list No. 1, 132 'Arabian Nights' of list No. 3, and 122 'Byrons.'" It will be agreed that this is not a bad showing for the newspaper readers of the region round about Toledo. And the standard character of the works selected, if it leaves us in the dark as to the nicety and delicacy of the literary taste of the Rev. Mr. Nasby's subscribers—for the *Blade* is Mr. Nasby's paper—speaks well for their conservatism of temperament. And on the whole, the regular reading of the Bible, with Josephus as a commentator, 'Shakespeare,' the 'Arabian Nights,' 'Lord Byron' in small quantity, and a weekly paper like the Toledo *Blade*, ought to result in a fairly good type of Ohioan and citizen.

— The third volume of the 'Transactions of the American Philological Association' has just appeared. It may be got by application to the Secretary of the Association, Professor G. F. Comfort, on payment of two dollars, and the first and second volumes of the series are to be had at the same price. They make an interesting series of books, the contents of which are various in value but all worth having and some excellent. This third volume contains ten articles, which treat respectively of the following subjects: "Studies in Cymric Philology" (Prof. E. Evans); "Words derived from Indian Languages of North America" (J. Hammond Trumbull); "The Byzantine Greek Pronunciation of the Tenth Century" (Prof. James Hadley); "The Substantive Use of the Greek Participle" (Prof. W. A. Stevens); "Erroneous and Doubtful Uses of the word 'Such'" (C. A. Bristed); "Notes on the Lingoa Geral of the Amazonas" (Prof. Ch. Fred. Hartt); "Material and Form in Language" (Prof. W. D. Whitney); "Is there an Anglo-Saxon Language?" and "Some Irregular Verbs in Anglo-Saxon" (Prof. F. A. March); "Notes on Forty Versions of the Lord's Prayer in Algonkin Languages" (J. Hammond Trumbull). There is also a paper entitled "Proceedings—Fourth Annual Session, Providence, 1872," which makes brief synopses not only of the articles just named but also of others that were read before the Association. Of most interest to the general reader is Mr. Hammond Trumbull's article on English words now or formerly in use and derived from the Indians. Of this we have spoken once before (*vide Nation*, No. 370, p. 74), but not at length. Mr. Trumbull's list includes "wigwam," "totem," "wampum," "succotash," "hominy," "samp," "suppaun," "persimmon," "pekan" (pekan nuts), "hickory," the Canadian "toboggin," which is the same as our (obsolescent?) "pung," "tomahawk," "papoose," "canticoy," "cockarouse," "canoe," "tobacco," "barbecue," "buccaneer," and the famous "caucus" which has so often, after the true fashion of false philology, been derived from "caulkers," and attributed to Tory derision of patriotic ship-caulkers' meetings at the North End of Boston. Mr. Trumbull finds its origin in an Indian word (caw-caw-was-sough), meaning one who advises, a pusher on, a promoter, a caucusser. From this same word he derives the term cockarouse, once colloquial in ante-Revolutionary Virginia, where it meant "one that has the honor to be of the king's or queen's council." Canoe, tobacco, buccaneer, barbecue, and hammock Mr. Trumbull regards as importations into Virginia from the Antilles. As early as 1635, the English in Guiana used the word "barbecue" to denote "the Indian method of curing meat or fish by laying it on a hurdle or wooden gridiron supported by four stakes driven into the ground, and exposing it to the heat of the sun or the smoke of a slow fire." So too of buccaneer: the West Indian "buccaneer" was originally a hunter of wild cattle who "boucanned" his meat to preserve it, the Brazilian Indians giving to the process of grilling which the Guiana Indians called "barbecue" the name of "boucan." In process of time, the wild hunter's name was transferred to the lawless sea rover and robber. "Pâcan" was the common name for all nuts of so hard a shell as to require a hammer for cracking them, but at the West and South this term, in the form "pekan" or "pecan," has been exclusively reserved for the fruit of the *Carya olivæformis*. "Hickory," from the Virginian "powcohicora," is properly the name neither of the tree nor the nut, but of a kind of milk or oily liquor pressed from the shells. Hence, perhaps, the name of "hickory" given to cloth dyed in a decoction of hickory shells, or hickory bark, whichever it is. The Canadian "tarbogin"—to adopt Mr. Trumbull's way of spelling it—is from a northern Algonkin equivalent, "ooda"ba"gen," "that on which something is drawn," from which the transition to "tarboggin" or "toboggin" was easy. That "pung" is derivable from the same source does not look so plausible till we learn that a hundred years ago the pung was the "Tom Pung," with the emphasis apparently on the "Tom"; as for instance in a description of Roxbury in 1798 as

> "That famed town which sends to Boston mart
> The gliding Tom Pung and the rattling cart."

Altogether, this will be found a very entertaining essay by every one who likes to dabble in etymologies, and dabbling in etymologies is a pleasure to an incredible number of people.

—A few months ago it was stated, on very high authority, that Aristotle knew more about the shark than anybody since his day, and could still be profitably consulted on that subject. This was, perhaps, not one of the "extravagant claims urged in favor of the recognition of Aristotle as an exponent of classificatory science" which Dr. Gill had in mind, but it was recalled to us on reading his paper in the August number of the *American Naturalist*, "On the Status of Aristotle in Systematic Zoölogy." Dr. Gill is not only abundantly qualified to speak to this point, but he professes to do so while being "a hearty admirer of the great philosopher (more excellent in intellectual than in physical science)" and after "careful and repeated perusal of Aristotle's biological treatises." In general, he finds that Aristotle "was a tolerably good observer and compiler, and surpassed ordinary men, perhaps, in ability to embody in words the results of his observations of various disconnected facts. There is, however, no co-ordination of the facts observed, no valuation, and no subordination which would entitle his observations to be considered as a body of scientific facts or doctrine." Thus, touching his complete and scientific recognition of the Class as now limited, it appears that "among the viviparous animals are included man, the horse, the seal, and others with hair; and, among marine animals, the cetaceans; but"—and here the shark comes upon the scene—"so are also the *Selachians* (I. iv. 1); and, in another chapter (I. vi. 2), the viper is added." Homologies Aristotle recognized in a vague manner, but "adopted the current view that all animals, except the elephant" (he forgot even the monkey) "differed from man in the contrary flexures of the limbs"; stated that the lion has no vertebræ, but only one bone in the neck; and, instead of noting this creature s resemblance to the cat, likens its internal parts, when exposed, to those of the dog. The groups which Aristotle recognized were obvious to common observers, and "are the crude materials with which the naturalist has to deal. He was unacquainted even with the characters which furnish the criteria for classifying them, and to assign to him any definite views respecting their relationship is an anachronism, and may involve wrong to himself." Another paper in the *Naturalist* which will repay reading is that on the Distribution of Californian Moths. The writer, Dr. A. S. Packard, jr., extends to insects the doctrine of a circumpolar origin which Dr. Asa Gray has shown to be demonstrable for vegetation, when discussing the astonishing similarity of the flora of the Atlantic United States with that of Northeastern Asia.

—The notorious English clergyman who calls himself a Benedictine monk, and goes about the country under the name of "Brother Ignatius" or "Father Ignatius," wearing a mock-monkish costume, keeping the crown of his head shaved, carrying a crucifix, and so forth, has recently been having some experience in the courts. It appears that on the fourth of June last a youth, aged seventeen, the son of a Mr. Todd, who had been placed in a London counting-house for the purpose of being bred a merchant, suddenly informed his father that he wished to become a monk. His father, who was naturally startled and displeased at this information, withheld his consent, and on the fifth of June young Todd disappeared, leaving behind him no clue as to his whereabouts, except a letter from a Mr. Joseph Leycester Lyne, appointing the place and time for a meeting between the boy and himself. This Mr. Lyne is no other than "Father Ignatius," Lyne being the real name of that gentleman. The boy was, by-and-by, traced to a village near Hounslow, where there is an imitation convent in which a certain number of women are living an imitation conventual life under the supervision of the Rev. Mr. Lyne. From this place, and in reply to a communication from his father, young Todd wrote that he felt convinced that he was doing right, and that at the end of six weeks he was going to take "the novice's vows." Upon this, his brother and his uncle went to the house, but found that the boy had been removed to Llanthony, where Mr. Lyne has set up a Benedictine monastery, so-called, and where, by-and-by, Todd's relatives found him, with his head shaved and his body clad in appropriate raiment of a monastic fashion. They could not prevail on him to obey his father, and were obliged to go away without him—leaving, however, a letter for Lyne, warning him of the consequences that would ensue if he abetted the boy's disobedience. Various letters followed this one, all of Lyne's beginning with a formula which, as it appears, that gentleman always uses—"Jesus only. Pax"—which of itself must have exasperated Mr. Todd not a little. In one of these agreeable communications, Ignatius invited the elder Todd to effect a specified pecuniary transaction with him, as, if this was not done, Ignatius would be compelled to turn the younger Todd into a menial servant of the abbey. Apparently, this convinced Mr. Todd that the point of too much for human endurance would speedily be reached, and he betook himself to the law. In this storehouse of wonderful devices he discovered the effective weapon for which he was looking. Acting under legal advice, he began by purchasing for Master Todd one hundred pounds' worth of consols, and constituting himself a trustee of that amount; then he filed a bill in Chancery, so as to make young Todd a ward of the court, and directed his solicitors to write to Ignatius, requiring him to restore the boy. To this the reply was: "Jesus only. Pax. It is quite news to me that I am a ward in Chancery. Directly the Lord Chancellor requires my presence in court, I have no doubt the Reverend Father Superior will allow me to come up for the occasion." The order was soon forthcoming, and on the twenty-fifth of July the Vice-Chancellor, Sir R. Malins, ordered Master Todd into the custody of Mr. Todd—much to the satisfaction of the latter; much, also, to the satisfaction of a Protestant Episcopal and Nonconformist mob outside, which hooted Father Ignatius very much, as he drove away in a cab, and which a friend of his describes as having been far more blasphemous than any set of persons ever before under his observation. Within the court, however, Father Ignatius is said to have been treated with great benignity, and to have been in return extremely mild and sweet himself—these suave qualities, however, not decreasing, but rather augmenting, the rage and fury of his enemies, who become all the more excited the more the good Father turns up his eyes in prayer for them and exhibits marked blandness. Sir Robert gently questioned him about his seeming contumacy, and Ignatius was profuse in expressions of respect for the laws, and declared that his "character as a Christian" would alone render it impossible for him to disregard an order of the Vice-Chancellor.

—The case of Todd *versus* Lyne has moved the *Pall Mall Gazette* to give a particular account of Mr. Lyne, and to discuss the nature of "vows" taken by persons who disown allegiance to the Pope. As for Mr. Lyne, he appears to be a very insupportable person. In a recently published discourse, he speaks of himself as having lain pawned in the devil's pawnshop until Christ came and redeemed him. "Do you know," he adds, "I often think Christ must have very bad taste to choose a poor wretch like me?" "Troubles," he goes on afterwards, "drop off the saint like water off a duck's back." "Some saints," he says, "are so overcome by a sense of their own unworthiness that they are obliged to cry out, 'No, don't, Lord; please don't; this is too much.'" In the same discourse, he indulged in the following pleasantry: "I always feel tempted to say funny things when I am preaching; it appears to me that when I haven't been thinking of Christ I get a fit of spiritual indigestion." In extenuation of this kind of remark—for repeating which we ought perhaps to make an apology—it may be said that it was uttered before an illiterate audience, and that the preacher probably thought it his best course to talk down to the assumed level of the congregation's intelligence; but we can all see the plight in which this plea leaves the good judgment and good taste of the preacher, and how natural must be a parent's resolution to prevent his son's taking "the novice's vows" in Mr. Lyne's establishment. As for the difference between vows taken in the Roman Church and those taken in the English, it is thus defined by the *Gazette*: A vow is a contract between a man and God—a contract in which the person has no power whatever to withdraw from his engagement without the express permission of God himself. Now, in the case of all monastic vows, the Pope acts as the representative of God, and the superior before whom the vow is made is the intermediary between the Pope and the person making the vow. The Pope, in the exercise of absolute divine authority, accepts the vow, and gives God's sanction to the contract, which is a complete contract as soon as the novice is informed that God has ratified it, and cannot be broken without grievous sin. The Pope can absolve any monk from his vow just as he can accept the vow; in annulling, as in accepting, he speaks as God, having in fulness the divine authority. Now, in the English Church do the wildest of superiors or superioresses maintain that in receiving vows of obedience they are the personal representatives of God, capable of speaking for him and making a binding contract between him and the person vowing? To ask this question is to answer it. The whole thing is an audacious profanation; not intentional, of course; but as a matter of fact, and in itself, the assumption of the clergy who accept these vows is as audacious a profaneness as the annals of priestcraft have to record. In reality, continues the *Gazette*, there is not a shadow of difference between the quiet, piously meant, secret self-sacrifices now encouraged in various convents of the Church of England and "the profound irreligiousness of this mock Benedictine monk, with his advertisements in the newspapers, as he goes starring about the country." The inmates of the convents would repudiate his proceedings with disgust; but in the essential respect of the binding quality of the so-called vow, that administered by him and them is alike worthless.

—It seems from an article by the late Mr. Mill, published in the *Examiner*, that the designs of the English "Land Tenure Reform Association," as Mr. Mill understood them, were not so comprehensive as the public generally supposed. According to the popular notion, it was the belief of the Association that the state ought to take for the general use of the community whatever increase of value in land came from the general improvement in prosperity of the country, and did not come from the labor of the owner. What

portion of the value has come from the labor of other people, and not his own, should belong to those others; if it be improvement made by a tenant, they or their value should belong to the tenant; if it be through a general improvement in the social condition of the country, brought about by general activity, the country at large should reap the benefit. "The growth of towns, the extension of manufactures, the increase of population consequent on increased employment, create a constantly increasing demand for land, both for the habitations of the people and for the supply of food and the materials of clothing. They also create a constantly increasing demand for coal, iron, and all the other produce of mining industry. By this increase in demand the landed proprietors largely profit, without in any way contributing to it. The income from rural lands has a constant tendency to increase; that from building lands still more, and with this increase of their incomes the owners of the land have nothing to do except to receive it. The Land Tenure Reform Association claims this increase for those who are its real authors." Mr. Mill says, however, that though the Association asserts the extreme right of taking all this increase by special taxation, it has "no intention of paring down the increment of rent to the utmost farthing." A margin ought to be left to ensure against mistakes. This modification is a very important one, for it recognizes the fundamental difficulty in the imposition of such a tax—the difficulty of being able to distinguish between the increased value which comes from the general labors of the community and that which comes from other causes which it is impossible to investigate. In this country, the principle, so far as it relates to the increase produced by tenants' improvements, has been generally recognized and provided for by legislation. The other tax will probably never be laid in this country, whatever may be the fate of the proposition in England, until some method is discovered of keeping an accurate record of the annual increase in value of each square foot of land throughout the country, combined with a register of every ounce of manure or phosphate put upon it, every day's labor hired, every tree planted, and finally every thought, doubt, hope, and fear of the landlord weighed in the balance and accurately estimated. When this is done, it will be probably found that the difference in most cases between the present value of the land and the value of the money actually invested in it at compound interest, would be extremely small.

THE CREDIBILITY OF MYTHICAL HISTORY.*

STUDENTS wonder at the slow credence obtained among men of common sense for the negative results of historical criticism. More than a generation has passed since Niebuhr gave a new turn to historical speculation, yet every day makes it plain that the doubts thrown by him and his followers on the credibility of early myths and legends have penetrated but a little way into the minds of so-called educated readers. Last year an assembly of politicians, church dignitaries, and professors celebrated at Oxford the thousandth anniversary of a supposed event in English history which every historian knew had never taken place. You may read any day in newspapers addressed to an educated public naïve expressions of doubt as to the legend of William Tell, while any man who has looked even cursorily into the subject may learn for himself that the story of Tell and his bow is one of those few myths of which the falsehood can be shown almost to demonstration. Every year writers appear who think they can re-establish belief in early Roman history by showing that it is within the bounds of possibility that a wolf may suckle a couple of deserted babies, and the public obviously hold that such theorists have a right to as respectful a hearing as the men who have by laborious research established the difference between myth and history. Persons who see the depth of ignorance which exists as to the nature of historical evidence are far too apt to overlook the real cause which hinders men of intelligence from accepting results which at least ninety-nine out of every hundred students hold to be established past question. Yet until this cause is appreciated, it is impossible to remove those misconceptions as to the credibility of legends and myths which students are apt to attribute to simple prejudice or perversity. The cause is not hard to find. A man of common sense who hears for the first time that the history, *e.g.*, of the Roman kings is open to doubt, naturally approaches the subject as follows:

"What reason is there why I should disbelieve the events of the reign of Romulus or of Tarquin? They have been believed for centuries; they are handed down to us by grave historians, the mass of whose assertions no one questions. Surely the burden of proof lies on those who maintain that early Roman history is incredible. To show that some of the events narrated are strange, or even portentous, amounts to little or nothing, for the same thing may be shown with regard to the most certain historical transactions; and when you have proved that some of the anecdotes told of Romulus or Remus have an air of poetry about them, you have proved little more than that ancient history is, like other history, not strictly accurate, and have certainly not proved that the early annals of Rome do not represent a substantial basis of fact."

To a man who argues in this way, the single criticisms of Niebuhr and his followers appear to have little weight. The fall of the Tarquins is not in itself more incredible than the expulsion of the Stuarts. If there is something marvellous in the legend of the defence of the bridge by Horatius, there is much that is marvellous in Hannibal's march from Spain to the walls of Rome. Our supposed man of common sense asks himself why he should not believe Livy when telling of the siege of Rome by Porsena, if he is to put full credit in his account of the battle of Cannæ, and comes to the conclusion that the one event is well-nigh as credible as the other, and generally that the doubts thrown on the credibility of early Roman history are the fruits of professional scepticism, untempered by everyday common sense. This line of argument, or something in substance like it, is harder directly to refute than students are quite willing to admit. The only way to attack it with success is to deal directly with the assumption on which it rests. This assumption is that tales that have long been believed as history, and have been handed to us in good faith by respectable historians, have *primâ facie* a strong claim to be believed, and ought to be treated as history until their baselessness can be all but demonstrated. Grant this assumption, and there are few of the ancient myths, from the tale of Troy downwards, which cannot make out a fair claim to pass as historical narratives. They have been believed to be true for centuries. They come to us forming part of the works of writers who transmit to us an immense number of unquestioned historical facts. The ages in which the alleged events took place are so utterly unknown to us that it is in most cases impossible to show that the narrative we have received is inconsistent with other known facts. If you grant the assumption that there is a strong *primâ-facie* ground in favor of early Roman history, you will scarcely be able to prove that Romulus was not the founder of Rome and did not slay his brother Remus. The point to be disputed is the assumption. All history depends on evidence. The question in every case is not, why should you disbelieve, but why should you believe, an assertion as to the past? The reason why you believe that Cæsar died by the hand of Brutus and his fellow-conspirators is at bottom because you can trace up the assertion that he did so to a large number of persons living at the time and knowing the facts and making assertions which are fully accounted for by the fact that Cæsar was murdered, and which could never have been made at all unless the fact asserted had really happened. Unless, for example, Cicero's letters could be shown to be a forgery, the main facts of the fall of the Republic are as certain as the main facts of the French Revolution. You believe that Brutus killed Cæsar, not because the fact has been long received as history, but exactly for the same reason on which you believe that the Convention put Louis XVI. to death. Take the early history of Rome, and you will find that no similar reason for belief exists. Livy lived centuries after the events he narrates. He narrates them as if he knew the words and thoughts of the actors in the drama, but we know that the evidence which induced him to believe in the existence of Romulus was merely the fact of the tradition that Romulus existed, and of the worth of this tradition we are better judges than Livy or any man of Livy's century.

It will of course be urged that the mere existence of the tradition is *primâ-facie* evidence of the truth of the facts handed down. It is exactly at this point that historical investigators, and what for want of a better term may be called men of common sense, join issue. The one class assert that a tradition, no doubt, sometimes may and does embody real facts, but that the mere existence of the tradition is certainly no proof of the truth of what it reports. The other assert or rather imply that the mere fact of a narrative having long passed as history affords a strong presumption of its truth. The negative views of historical critics will never gain the currency they deserve until historians have boldly met the issue presented to them, and have made it perfectly plain that the mere existence of a tradition affords but the very slightest presumption in favor of the truth of an event unsustained by other evidence. How to make this plain is the chief difficulty which meets all persons who wish to propagate sound views of criticism. The only way in which, as it seems to us, their object can be effectively achieved, is to take some definite myth which has long passed current as history, and show its historical baselessness. It is, as we have already pointed out, very rarely that this can be done, but occasionally the desired result can be achieved, and when once obtained it is of inestimable worth. Show demonstrably that one piece of received history which rests on no sound evidence is certainly untrue, and you weaken indefinitely the weight of authority in favor of tales which men still think themselves bound to believe, simply because, for a long time, these tales have been reputed true. Looked at from this point of view, the

* 'Fables respecting the Popes of the Middle Ages. By John J. Ign. von Döllinger. Translated, with Introduction and Appendices, by Alfred Plummer, Fellow of Trinity College, Oxford.' London: Rivington & Co.

actual importance of the legend criticised becomes of minor consequence. Any tale, however childish in itself, is a good *corpus vile* on which to execute the experiments of criticism. It is this reflection which makes every careful reader consider Dr. Döllinger's 'Fables of Papacy' a weighty contribution to the philosophy of history. The book possesses a transitory interest as bearing on Papal controversies, and as a work of controversial importance and of curious erudition received due attention when it first came out in 1853. The appearance of an excellent translation by Mr. Plummer, accompanied by very valuable appendices, which are the work of the translator, shows that the educated public appreciate the permanent importance of Dr. Döllinger's investigations. Our object at present is to neglect entirely their controversial aspect, and to call attention to the light they throw on, at any rate, the possible worthlessness of legends which have long usurped the name of history.

No tale ever established a better *primâ-facie* case to be counted historical than the story of Pope Joan. About 850, so ran the tale, a woman came to Rome disguised as a man, and gained a high reputation as a professor. This teacher, on account of her irreproachable character and immense attainments, was, without any one even suspecting her sex, elevated to the Papacy. The Popess, to use Mr. Plummer's convenient term, reigned for rather more than two years. In the midst of a procession she gave birth to a child and expired. Her strange career left permanent traces on the ceremonies attending the installation of subsequent Popes, and was commemorated for all time by the fact that Papal processions always avoid the street in which she expired.

The story sounds to modern ears incredible enough, and a suspicion suggests itself that the tale owes its origin to Protestant malignity. But the legend, whatever its worth, is long anterior to the days of the Reformation. The history was apparently at least recorded in 1278 by Martinus Polonus, who lived at the Papal Court, and whose annals of the popes have some title to be considered an official history issuing from the Curia itself.

"Quite at the beginning of the fifteenth century, the bust of Pope Joan was placed in the Cathedral at Sienna along with the busts of the other popes, and no one took any offence at it."

Not one of the three popes whom that city produced thought of having the bust removed. At the Council of Constance, Huss supported his argument by appealing to the case of Pope Joan, and Chancellor Gerson proved from the history of the woman-pope that the church could err in matters of fact. No one dreamt of denying the fact on which the Reformer and Gerson relied. It will further be found that the history of Pope Joan was spread far and wide by the Dominican order, and was, in short, for ages looked upon as an historical fact as certain as the martyrdom of St. Thomas of Canterbury. If it is urged that the tale bears its own falsehood on its face, the strangeness of the story cuts two ways, and it might well be argued that a legend so improbable could never be invented, but must at any rate have been suggested by some real event. Who, it may be said, could believe that from Rome itself, from the very mouth, so to speak, of the popes, would issue a lie which covers the whole Papacy with discredit? This is precisely the argument on which the German writer, Luden, relies:

"It is inconceivable," he says, "how it could ever enter into any man's head to invent such an insane falsehood. He must either have invented the lie out of sheer wantonness, in order to scoff at the Papacy, or he must have intended to gain some other object by means of it. But of all the dozens of writers who mention Pope Joan and her mishap, there is not a single one who can be called an enemy of the Papacy. . . . Moreover," he adds, "it is inconceivable how people in general could have believed in the story, and that without the slightest doubt, for nearly five hundred years from the eleventh century onwards, if it had not been true."

Dr. Hoefer, in a French work published in 1858, treats the belief in Pope Joan as one which had "reigned in the Christian world from the ninth century to the Renaissance"; and Mosheim has added his weighty authority to the support of this astounding tale. After narrating the history of the Popess, he remarks:

"During the five subsequent centuries the witnesses to this extraordinary event are without number; nor did any one prior to the Reformation by Luther regard the thing as either incredible or disgraceful to the church. But in the seventeenth century learned men, not only among the Roman Catholics, but others also, exerted all the powers of their ingenuity both to invalidate the testimony on which the story rests, and to confute it by an accurate computation of dates. . . . Something must necessarily have taken place at Rome to give rise to this most uniform report of so many ages; but even yet it is not clear what that something was."

In short, every *à priori* argument which can be urged in favor of the credibility of a myth has been urged, and that by men of undoubted ability and learning, in support of the legend of the woman-pope. The prevalence of the belief, the existence of ceremonies supposed to have their rise in the facts handed down by the tradition, the improbability of error, the absence of any temptation to fraud on the part of those who propagated the report of this papal scandal, the very improbability of the tale, have all been urged with prodigious force to prove it true, and are exactly the considerations which suggest themselves to every one unacquainted with early history when attempting to estimate the value of mythical narratives. Yet we venture to say that no intelligent man can read Dr. Döllinger's essay without coming to the conclusion that there is no more reason to believe in the existence of Pope Joan than the existence of a centaur or a chimera.

Our space does not allow us to trace out minutely the course of Dr. Döllinger's argument. The lines of reasoning by which he assaults the credibility of the tradition are, speaking generally, as follows: He shows, in the first place, and this point he may be said absolutely to demonstrate, that the tale, despite a *primâ-facie* appearance to the contrary, cannot be traced to any date earlier than 1278, and that there is every reason for supposing that it did not circulate even as a popular tradition till three or four centuries after the date assigned to Pope Joan's death. He again shows that, as is the way with legendary tales, the tradition becomes more and more circumstantial the further it removes from the time of the events to which it refers. He lastly takes the ceremonies and other circumstances which are supposed to bear witness to Pope Joan's death, and shows that each of them has in reality no reference to her, but that collectively they probably afford the basis, slender as it is, on which popular imagination built up the legend. The avoidance by the Papal cortége of a particular street because it was too narrow for a procession to pass through it; the existence of a strange statue which seemed to the populace to resemble a woman; the fact that a pope at his installation seated himself on an oddly-shaped seat, seem to have been the materials which suggested to the fancy of the ignorant and imaginative inhabitants of Rome the marvellous legend which was created by the people, caught up by annalists and preachers, and at last intruded into the records of history.

As Dr. Döllinger treats the legend of Pope Joan so he treats the Donation of Constantine and the myths which have grown up round Sylvester II., and turned a pope held in great honor by his contemporaries into a necromancer who entered into a league with the devil, and exercised his pontifical office in the devil's service. The tales he deals with are of various degrees of interest, but his mode of treatment is unvarying, and the result of his careful analysis is always the same. He invariably establishes the one great and important result, that in certain stages of civilization, and under certain conditions, myths spring up with the rapidity and exuberance with which weeds arise in a rich but uncultivated soil. It is of course perfectly true that to prove one tradition false or uncertain, is very far from proving, what no competent critic would maintain, that traditions never embody popular reminiscences of real transactions. The immediate effect of such speculations as Dr. Döllinger's is merely negative. They show that the mere fact that narratives have been for ages received as history does not of itself afford any strong presumption that they are historical. But if once this be granted, the groundwork of the argument in favor of the credibility of, *e.g.*, the early history of Rome is knocked away, and the person who makes the concession is prepared to commence historical investigations at the right end, by asking not why should we disbelieve, but why should we believe, the facts of so-called mythical history? This enquiry suggests the further and most interesting question, Is it possible to lay down any rules or canons by which to discriminate the mythical and historical elements of tradition? This is an enquiry to which we may at some future day return, but which is not directly proposed or answered in Dr. Döllinger's beautiful analysis of 'Papal Fables.'

'THE RED COTTON NIGHT-CAP COUNTRY.'*

MR. BROWNING'S latest poem tells with rather less than his usual convolutions a story which has to the full the quality of psychological subtlety in which he so much delights. The introduction, too, is fine-drawn to a degree that corresponds with the structure to which it is the porch. It is, perhaps, indefensibly whimsical, and wraps up in as many wrappings as Mr. Browning used to allow to a mummified princess, a body of little or no value. Still it is read with pleasure as well as curiosity, though one smiles to think of what would be made of it all by a reader who had not been broken to Browning before he wrote 'The Red Cotton Night-cap Country.'

It seems that Miss Thackeray, the novelist, who knows Normandy well by often summering there in "the quiet seaside country," has been struck by the drowsy aspect of life in that old province, where nothing stirs but the fingers of the high-capped peasant women plying their lace bobbins:

* 'The Red Cotton Night-cap Country; or, Turf and Towers. By Robert Browning.' Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.

"Bobbins that bob you ladies out such lace!
Oh, you observed! and how that nimble play
Of finger formed the sole exception, bobbed
The one disturbance to the peace of things,
Where nobody esteems it worth his while,
If time upon the clock-face goes asleep,
To give the rusted hands a helpful push."

And all this slumberousness so suited and soothed her eye that she was moved to make a small descriptive joke:

. . . "Call the land
By one slow hither-thither-stretching, fast
Subsiding-into-slumber sort of name,
Symbolic of the place and people too,
White Cotton Night-cap Country."

Excellent, most excellent this effort of description seems to Mr. Browning, who never stints compliments to his female friends, and who is quite enraptured over so extraordinarily happy a piece of nomenclature. Evermore, he says, shall Normandy be "named and famed 'White Cotton Night-cap Country.'" Then he thus goes on to speak of a related matter:

"Do I hear—
Oh, better, very best of all the news—
You mean to catch and cage the winged word,
And make it breed and multiply at home
Till Norman idlesse stock our England too?
Normandy shown minute yet magnified
In one of those small books, the truly great,
We never know enough, yet know so well?
How I foresee the cursive diamond-dints—
Composite pen that plays the pencil too—
As, touch the page and up the glamour goes,
And filmily o'er grain-crop, meadow-ground,
O'er orchard in the pasture, farm a-field,
And hamlet on the road-edge, floats and forms
And falls, at lazy last of all, the Cap
That crowns the country! we, awake outside,
Farther than ever from the imminence
Of what cool comfort, what close coverture
Your magic deftly weaving shall surround
The unconscious captives with. Be theirs to drowse
Trammelled, and ours to watch the trammel-trick!
Ours be it, as we con the book of books,
To wonder how is winking possible!"

And yet, says the poet, he himself is at such a distance from the world that it is the whole world which commands his regard, not any part of it, albeit that part be a province perfect in itself; and the backward glance that he gives over the subject returns laden with other spoils of vagrancy, and he puts the question,

"Which sort of night-cap have you glorified"

after all? He imagines Miss Thackeray answering that of course it is the normal night-cap, "old honest guardian of man's head and hair":

"What should the Night-cap be
Save Night-cap pure and simple? Sorts of such?
Take cotton for the medium, cast an eye
This side to comfort, lambswool, or the like,
That side to frilly cambric costliness,
And all between proves Night-cap proper. Add
'Fiddle!' and I confess the argument."

The feminine expletive in the last line gives the poet opportunity for a digression on violins and the exhibition of violins at Kensington a year ago, the return to the immediate subject being effected by supposing a similar exhibition of nightcaps—Pope's "sickly head sustainment," Cowper's "soothing sarsnet stripe," the night-caps which Hogarth used to clap on the heads of his figures, "Voltaire's imperial velvet," last of all the cap that the hangman draws over the eyes of the criminal. No, not that; another:

"If we needs must trench
For science' sake, which craves completeness still,
On the sad confine, not the district's self
The object that shall close review may be."

The object that closes review is the red cap of liberty, that on a certain day in 1792 King Louis was shown in while the mob howled below. Here there is introduced a somewhat vigorous, but really somewhat cheap and commonplace, picture of young Lieutenant Bonaparte, the King's antipodes. Still, such as it is there is not much in the poem that is at all better:

"And note the ejaculation, ground so hard
Between his teeth, that only God could hear,
As the lean pale proud insignificance
With the sharp-featured liver-worried stare
Out of the two gray points that did him stead,
And passed their eagle owner to the front
Better than his mob-elbowed undersize—
The Corsican lieutenant commented,
'Had I but one good regiment of my own,
How soon should volleys to the due amount
Lay stiff upon the street-flags this canaille!
As for the droll there, he that plays the king,
And screws out smile with a Red night-cap on,
He 's done for! somebody must take his place.'
White Cotton Night-cap Country: excellent!
Why not Red Cotton Night-cap Country too?"

To this question Miss Thackeray is understood to reply by demurring that exceptions do not make rules, and that the poet's scruple whether "white" or "red" describes the local color best she finds inopportune and impertinent. Little Saint-Rambert, where they converse, has certainly conserved the pure tradition; it is white from head to heel; the nearest approach to the sinful scarlet is made by this Saint-Rambertese here, who has just been caught smuggling half a pound of tobacco; or perhaps this other who, without a shooting license, has despatched a hare which he avers he took to be a hedgehog, the clods obstructing his vision. As for the women of Saint-Rambert, there is no possibility that the poet can find the faintest ruddy tinge, the least suggestive of a romantic fault, in any of them. To all this the male interlocutor answers, that he sees his antagonist has got her shelf in the night-cap exhibition completely filled with white caps, while his red shelf is as yet an empty cavern. He will fill it, however; he only insists that as everything about them is so white, he shall be considered the victor if he can show in the land or the people the least "faintest pretension to be wrong and red and picturesque"; "any the least flush of pink" he demands shall be accepted for red, and "labelled scarlet for the nonce." It is so agreed, and the story begins of the pious Léonce Miranda, wealthy, who gave more than a tithe of his substance to the poor—young, yet a model of piety and devotion and a favored servant of the church. "This first white rag that flutters snowily in sight" the poet will take and rub it to a thread; surely if in that glistering fabric he can find traces of the fatal dye he must be adjudged the prize of the contest between "British man and British maid," and the country must be Red Cotton Night-cap Country, and not White.

It is not necessary to say that he who told the story of the "beautiful girl, too white, who lived at Pornic down by the sea," succeeds perfectly in his task. The poet who gives in his adhesion to Calvinism for this one thing alone, if for no other—that it teaches the corruption of the human heart and the total depravity of the will, is very safe to show us the corruption of young Miranda's and Clara Muhlhausen's after he has handled them long enough and pulled them to pieces sufficiently.

The performance of this familiar task may be said to be the main business of the poem, but of course one line of thought sedulously adhered to and obviously presented is not commonly to be looked for in anything that Mr. Browning writes. For him, the morning and the evening are never the day, as they are apt to be with poets of his rank; the goings forth of his day are pretty sure to be the million incomings and outgoings, downsittings and uprisings, and all the thousand details of the twenty-four hours. This is perhaps the least poetical, in fact the most prosaic, of all his works; for it is prose which not only has almost no poetry interfused, but which wants also that unprosaic if not strictly poetical element which Mr. Browning's writing very frequently contains in enormous measure. For example, the spiritual and religious questionings and theories of this poem we find ourselves compelled to consider of little interest or importance. How, it asks, shall we reconcile faith and reason in the mind of a man who is the son of a Spanish father, with a Spaniard's inherent capacity for fiery faith, and of a cool-headed French mother, the son being rather a weak-minded man, who apparently goes mad in the struggle? We do not know, and we do not know that the reader need care much, and this especially as the victim of the problem is so far from being a universally typical personage that about two years ago his name was figuring in a French court at Vire, and perhaps was sole and unique. Or what is the possibility of morality and right conduct if it is unbraced by religion? An important question enough, but not set forth here very profitably in all this allegory, to call it so, of Turf and Tower. Or what are we to say as to the relative merits of Clara Muhlhausen, with her *artistically* rounded, shallow, and hard nature, and of Léonce her lover, who perpetually fretted in the bonds of a sinful connection which yet he could not break and hardly wished to break, yet which at last killed him? Mr. Browning gives the case in favor of Miranda, and the reader goes with him—or would, if the reader did not remember that we have here again two particular cases, not the general case, and that to settle the relative worth or worthlessness of a self-seeking, unreligious woman, and a semi-Spaniard who is partly a fool and partly a madman, is a matter not of high obligation, and one that can concern neither us nor the poet very much. Here we may quote the passage in which Mr. Browning delivers judgment for Miranda. Part of it suggests some thoughts as to the subject-matter of much of his poetry, both early and late, and as to his poetical methods and poetical rank, and suggests, as nearly all men will admit, no little condemnation of them all:

"Clara I hold the happier specimen—
It may be, through that artist preference
For work complete, inferiorly proposed,
To incompletion, though it aim aright.
Morally, no! Aspire, break bounds! I say
Endeavor to be good and better still,
And best! Success is nought, endeavor's all.
But intellect adjusts the means to ends,
Tries the low thing, and leaves it done, at least;
No prejudice to high thing, intellect
Would do and will do, only give the means.
Miranda, in my picture-gallery,
Presents a Blake; be Clara—Scissonier!

> Merely considered so, by artist, mind!
> For, break through Art and rise to poetry,
> Bring Art to tremble nearer, touch enough
> The verge of vastness to inform our soul
> What orb makes transit through the dark above,
> And there's the triumph!—there the incomplete,
> More than completion, matches the universe—
> Then, Michelagnolo against the world!"

Nor need one care much to find in one's book of poetry a statement of the author's belief that Protestantism is a form of religion preferable to Catholicism, the latter being essentially wrong in its attitude toward the human mind and soul, and infested with superstitions. Doubtless, that is a proposition which can be made good in both prose and rhyme; but, for choice, prose might better be used.

On the whole, the admirer of Browning will find in this poem, or this story in blank verse, a pleasant production of the *musa pedestris* of its author; and an occasional touch reveals the master—as where the poet meets his fair friend as if their meeting-place

> . . . . "Were just that Rome
> Out in the champaign, say, o'er-rioted
> By verdure, ravage, and gay winds that war
> Against strong sunshine settled to his sleep."

But no new admirers will it give him; and some backsliders it will confirm in their fallen state.

Coal Regions of America: their Topography, Geology, and Development. By James Macfarlane, A.M. (New York: D. Appleton & Co.)—Nearly every State in the Union where coal has been discovered, or supposed to lie buried beneath the surface-rock, has expended more or less money in conducting geological surveys, with greater or less ability, for the purpose of developing the natural resources of its territory. The results of these surveys, many of them extending over periods of several years of diligent labor, have been published in large, unwieldy volumes, as official documents, either by the State or General Government. Many of the original works are now only procured with difficulty. These official volumes form the basis of Mr. Macfarlane's work; from them he has collected, with great care, all that is of practical importance for his subject. He has shown much skill and judgment in the selection of his facts, discarding everything of a strictly scientific nature. He has brought together, in a comprehensive manner, a large amount of material relating to the structure, position, character, and extent of all our coal-fields. This book is not the work of a professional geologist, as is occasionally evident in the reading, but rather, as we are told, of one who gives his experience "picked up in the course of sixteen years' active employment in a large coal business"; and it carries indications throughout that the author has watched the progress of innumerable coal-mining companies, studied the causes of their success or failure, and recorded the results of his observations. The interest of the work consists, therefore, not merely in the bringing together of the geological data of coal, but in the consideration of the practical bearing of the science, with the important questions of management, production, transportation, and the relation of railways to mine and market. Upon the value of geological surveys Mr. Macfarlane places a high estimate. His opinion, coming from a man of wide mercantile experience, is noteworthy. Speaking of Pennsylvania, he says:

"All the appropriations made by the State for the survey from 1836 to 1855 appear by the statute laws to have amounted to $111,570, of which $34,750 was for the publication of the report, leaving only $76,820 spent in making the survey itself. Unfortunate as was the delay attending the publication, and the loss from the failure of the first contractors for printing the final report, yet the State has never before or since derived so much benefit from the expenditure of the same sum of money. No State now so much needs another geological survey as Pennsylvania."

Treating the coal regions in their geological order, the carboniferous coal measures, divided into four large fields, are first considered, and occupy the greater part of the volume. The first, the Appalachian field, embraces the States of Pennsylvania, Maryland, West Virginia, extending westward to Ohio and southward to Tennessee. In this large area Pennsylvania stands decidedly foremost, and the chapters on the bituminous and semi-bituminous districts form the best portions of the work. The second field lies within the State of Michigan, is of poor quality, highly impregnated with sulphur, and the production limited to a few thousand tons. Indiana, Illinois, and Western Kentucky claim the third, while the fourth field lies west of the Mississippi, in Iowa, Missouri, and Eastern Kansas. Two brief chapters discuss the position and present condition of the Triassic coals of Virginia and North Carolina. Mr. Macfarlane then passes to the lignite formations of the Rocky Mountains and the Pacific coast. For his information and data of the Wyoming and Colorado coal-fields he relies almost exclusively on the report of Mr. J. T. Hodge, who confined himself chiefly to a description of the localities and amount of work accomplished in the mines up to the summer of 1870. Mr. Hodge agreed with Dr. Hayden in placing the coal-beds in the Tertiary, but our author follows Clarence King and others in referring them to the Cretaceous—a view now very generally adopted by geologists. These Western lignites, although far inferior as coals to the Pennsylvania deposits, are destined to play an important part in our national economy, even if limited in application to the generation of steam for locomotive boilers along our great and rapidly increasing lines of railway in the far West. But the time is not very distant when they will be not only largely utilized for domestic fuel, but become of still greater value for metallurgical purposes. Recently conducted experiments have demonstrated the calorific power of these lignites to be higher than that of any similar coal in the world, and comparison has shown that many of them are but slightly inferior in heating power to the Sand Creek block-coal of Indiana, now successfully used in iron smelting.

Five Hundred Mistakes of Daily Occurrence in Speaking, Pronouncing, and Writing the English Language Corrected. Thirty-second edition. (New York: James Miller. 1873.)—The fashion of writing hand-books of manners, etiquette, deportment, and so on, which was in a flourishing condition a generation ago, seems to be now almost superseded by the fashion of writing hand-books of language. Vulgar errors in pronunciation, in spelling, or more frequently in speaking, take the place in these treatises of vulgarities in dress, in conduct at the dinner-table, or at evening parties. There is one similarity, however, in these widely different kinds of books, which is perhaps worth a moment's attention, and that is the apparent similarity of the audiences for which they have been prepared. The general impression derived from looking over a "young ladies' guide" used to be of a deeply degraded condition of taste on the part of those for whom it was written. That all young ladies were by nature endowed with a more than male brutality and ignorance seemed to be generally taken for granted by the authors, the value of whose advice was certainly not to be disputed if the assumption were correct. The young lady of the period was counselled, for instance, "not to poke her neighbors' ribs at table with her elbows"; not to snatch things out of servants' hands, and particularly not to "throw her bones under the table." In the same way, the audience for which the writers of hand-books of language write seems to be supposed more in need of elocutionary instruction of the sort given by the careful mother of a Christian family than of any minute or abstruse philological study. In the case of 'Five Hundred Mistakes Corrected,' we find that even thirty editions already exhausted have failed to eradicate some of the most shocking errors in popular use. To take one or two examples. That there were people in the lower walks of life who were in the habit of saying, "I done it," instead of using the more correct phrase, "I did it," we were aware; but surely the perversity which leads any one to make use of such an expression as "I know I am him whom he meant" is so ingenious that there can be little hope of influencing him for the better. Some people, it seems—perhaps they belong to the same class as those do who insist on saying, "I dislike to be eaten out of the same plate with"—still cling to such forms. We should be inclined to think those who use the term "sparrowgrass" were also beyond reproof or warning, for, as the author justly remarks, "it is only the grossest ignorance which confounds this word with "asparagus." The same is the case with "ing-uns" for "onions," in the agricultural districts, "soldier arms" among military men, and "foudling" for "foundling," and "genus" for "genius," in a still different class.

It would be only natural to infer from such corrections as these that the class of readers who had absorbed thirty-one editions of this book were not the most cultivated in the world, and therefore the reader may fairly object to some of the rules as altogether too puristic and nice. For example, instead of "the *two last* letters were dated from Calcutta," the 144th mistake corrected directs us to say, "the *last two*, etc." The 145th rule, too, is of the same kind: "The soil in those islands is so very thin that little is produced in them *beside* cocoa-nut trees"; "*beside* cocoa-nut trees" means strictly *alongside* or *by the side* of them. *Besides* or *except* should be used. *Besides* also signifies *in addition to*; as, "I sat beside the President, and conversed with him *besides*." It seems hardly probable that distinctions so delicate as this will be grasped by gentlemen who say sparrowgrass for asparagus, or inguns for onions, or by ladies who say of one child that he is a "fondling," of another that he is a "genus." We should make the same objection to the 146th rule: "He could neither *read nor write*;" say, more properly, *write nor read*. "All persons who can *write* can *read*, but not all who *read* can *write*. This sentence as corrected is much stronger than the other form." These, however, are slight blemishes. On the whole, there is much consistency in the work, which, affording a great deal of innocent pleasure to the general reader, is well calculated to stimulate the curiosity and feed the mind of the ignoramus.

Thoughts on Life and Character. By S. P. Herron. (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1873.)—The thinking on life and character which has been done by Mr. Herron is not, he tells his readers, to be confounded with the labored productions of writers who reflect in set forms of thought, for the author has not so much called these thoughts into existence as arrested them when they spontaneously presented themselves to his mind. This system has some advantages, and also some dangers; a man who arrests and takes into literary custody a spontaneous thought is sometimes wiser and sometimes less wise than he who makes haste to drive the thought spontaneously out of his mind as soon as it has entered: which course to pursue depends entirely on the character of the thought. For example, in the division of these "thoughts" called "Notes and Laconics," Mr. Herron arrests the thought in its passage through the mind that "an angry word, if it can be suppressed till to-morrow, will not then be so urgent in its demand for utterance"; and adds, that in "virtuous minds anger is a coal that is sure to die in a little while; and it is great wisdom to wait for that event before we act"—a timely suggestion for irascible readers. But when on the same page Mr. Herron says that, driving along a few days ago, and crushing with his wheel a worm as it crept in haste across the road, he reflected that he had done something for which he ought to be humbled, that he owed an account to the Deity for the unfeeling selfishness that would not take the trouble to save a life that he had given, that He who made both author and worm must take note of the transaction and behold it with a look of displeasure which penitent confession must disarm, that if he would reflect he would be convicted of a blind and savage cruelty which he would shudder and abhor in another being as much superior in size and strength to him as he is to the worm, we must confess that we incline to think Mr. Herron has arrested one thought too many, or else that he must live in a part of the country in which worms are rarer and more easy to avoid than they are with us. This, however, is a trivial blemish. In the main, Mr. Herron's thoughts are perfectly safe—for example, the thought that "as a blade of grass, as it springs, pierces without displacing the withered leaf that happens to lie upon it, so the gentleness of love conquers others without alienating their affection, or giving them pain"; or a botanico-political reflection such as this: "To-day, on my accustomed walk in the woods, I observed where the trunk of an old and naked pine, overthrown by the wind, had dashed to the ground as it fell two young and flourishing oaks. Thus, long-cherished political evils, however ripe for destruction, seldom perish but with violence and without spreading melancholy devastation around them. Hence the danger in forming national constitutions of allowing a place to any element that is unjust or favorable to the pride or avarice of mankind." These last extracts are well adapted to show the extraordinary flexibility of the human mind when it is honestly set spontaneously at work. Mr. Herron divides his work into "Notes and Laconics," "Essays," and "Themes from Battle-fields." In these distempered times it is a satisfaction to find a man so filled with thoughtful earnestness as the author. The book ought to do something to help "roll the stone from the sepulchre of public virtue."

Old New England Traits. Edited by George Lunt. (New York: Hurd & Houghton. 1873. 12mo, pp. 244.)—There is a very unnecessary show of mystery about Mr. Lunt's book. It would not be hard for an entire stranger to discover that the town in question—whose name is never once mentioned, except incidentally in the Appendix—is Newburyport; and if the title had plainly said so, it would have described the book far better. For the subject is not "New England" as a whole, but one New England town, and, for the matter of that, it is properly not "Traits," but "Incidents" or "Anecdotes." Further, whatever personalities are left undetermined in the book itself are, for the most part, explained in the Index, and it seems a piece of affectation to make any pretence of keeping them concealed. For the rest, the book is made up of such material as could be gathered in any old town—material very well worth gathering. The characters described are those strong and individual ones in which New England abounded in the olden times. The stories are, many of them, entertaining in themselves, and many of them such as can be very entertaining in the mouth of a good story-teller. We are sorry to be obliged to add that they are not here particularly well told, and that many of the anecdotes appear rather flat. The style is heavy and lacking in directness. Boston, for instance, is generally spoken of as "the capital of the State." The material does not seem to have been arranged on any special plan, but to have been jotted down as the several items came into the writer's head. On the whole, while a book of this class is always acceptable, it must be said that a far better book could have been made out of Newburyport, or any other New England town of its age and standing. The Appendix contains considerable valuable matter.

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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

AUGUST 11, 1873.

THE past week has been unusually dull and without any interesting features. The hot weather has taken many of the leading men from the Street, and during their absence it has been impossible to get up anything like an active market. Money continues easy at 3 and 4 per cent., and difficulty has been experienced in using balances on call at these rates. Time loans are quoted as follows: For thirty days, 4 and 5 per cent.; 5 and 6 per cent. for sixty days; 6 and 7 per cent. for ninety days; and 7 per cent. gold for five months.

Cable advices report that the Bank of England gained £307,000 in bullion last week, but the discount rate remains unchanged. The Bank of France lost 37,000,000 francs in specie, in consequence of the German indemnity payment on the 5th inst.

The weekly statement of the Clearing-House banks on Saturday was again unfavorable, showing a falling off of $1,488,400 in the total reserve (mostly in legal tenders), and a decrease of only $1,682,300 in the total liabilities, which, as shown in the statement published below, is equal to a net loss of $1,067,825 in the surplus reserve.

The following are the statements for the past two weeks:

	Aug. 2.	August 9.	Differences.
Loans	$289,986,200	$290,758,100	Inc. $771,900
Specie	32,272,200	29,820,000	Dec. 452,200
Circulation	27,188,000	27,223,500	Inc. 35,500
Deposits	238,840,900	237,123,100	Dec. 1,717,800
Legal tenders	50,038,500	49,002,300	Dec. 1,036,200

The following shows the relation between the total reserve and the total liabilities:

	Aug. 2.	August 9.	Differences.
Specie	$30,272,200	$29,820,000	Dec. $452,200
Legal tenders	50,038,500	49,002,300	Dec. 1,036,200
Total reserve	$80,310,700	$78,822,300	Dec $1,488,400
Circulation	27,188,000	27,223,500	Inc. 35,500
Deposits	238,840,900	237,123,100	Dec. 1,717,800
Total liabilities	$266,028,900	$264,346,600	Dec. $1,682,300
25 per cent. reserve	66,507,225	66,086,650	Dec. 420,575
Excess over legal reserve	13,803,475	12,735,650	Dec. 1,067,825

The following table separates the National from the State banks:

	National.	State.	Total.
Loans	$249,908,100	$40,850,000	$290,758,100
Specie	26,695,400	3,124,600	29,820,000
Legal tenders	43,194,000	5,808,300	49,002,300
Deposits	204,407,800	32,715,300	237,123,100
Circulation	27,191,300	32,200	27,223,500
Percentage of reserve to total liabilities	30 18-100 p.c.	27 28-100 p.c.	29 82-100 p.c

The leading feature in the stock market was the sharp advance in Pacific Mail from 37⅞ to 41⅞. The dealings in the stock were comparatively active, and the sales reached 117,600 shares for the week. The advance in the stock is apparently due to the efforts of some of the "shorts" to cover, and rumor mentions one of the directors of the Company as the moving spirit, assisted by a certain Broad Street speculator. No unfavorable reports have been circulated recently in relation to the Company's affairs, and it would seem as if the "trustees" of the stockholders had exhausted for the present at least their means of creating any panic and forcing holders to sell out so as to allow them to purchase. Beyond the movement in Pacific Mail, there is nothing worth noticing in the speculative share list.

The usual five per cent. semi-annual dividend has been declared by the Chicago, Burlington, and Quincy Railroad Company. The price of the stock has advanced since our last to 106, at which figure small sales were made on Saturday and to-day.

The following shows the highest and lowest sales of the leading stocks at the Stock Exchange for the week ending August 9, 1873:

	Monday.	Tuesday.	Wed'day.	Thursday	Friday.	Saturday.	Sal s.
N. Y. C. & H. R....	105⅜ 105⅞	105¼ 105⅜	105¼ 105⅜	105⅛ 105⅜	105⅛ 105⅜	105½ 105⅝	15,8 0
Lake Shore.....	94⅞ 95¼	94⅜ 94⅝	94¼ 94⅝	94⅛ 94⅜	94¼ 94½	94⅜ 94⅝	32 600
Erie.....	59⅜ 59⅝	59⅜ 59⅝	59⅝ 59⅞	58⅞ 59¼	58⅝ 59⅜	59⅜ 60	23,8 0
Do. pfd...	 73	.... 73¾	 75	.... 73½	72¾ 74½	....	.....
Union Pacific.....	28½ 29	28⅛ 28⅜	28½ 28¾	28⅛ 28⅜	28¼ 28½	28⅜ 28⅝	41,100
Chi. & N. W.....	67⅜ 68¼	67¼ 68¼	67½ 67⅝	67½ 67⅝	67½ 67⅝	67⅜ 68¼	12,300
Do. pfd...	83⅛ 83⅜	83¼ 83⅜	83 83¼	83¼ 83⅜	83 84	....	400
N. J. Central.....	103 103½	103⅛ 103⅜	103 103½	103⅜ 103½	103⅜ 103⅝	....	400
Rock Island.....	110½ 110⅜	110⅜ 110½	110½ 110½	111⅜ 110½	110⅜ 110⅜	110½ 110⅜	3 600
Mil. & St. Paul.....	53⅛ 53⅜	53 53⅜	52½ 52⅝	53⅜ 52⅞	52⅜ 52½	52⅜ 52⅝	8 900
Do. pfd...	73⅜ 73⅞	73 74	72½ 73⅛	73 73½	73⅛ 73⅜	73 73⅜	3 800
Wabash.....	72¼ 73	72¼ 73⅜	72 72½	71⅜ 72	71⅜ 71⅞	71⅛ 72	7 200
D. L. & Western..	101⅞ 102	01⅜ 101⅜	101⅜ 101⅜	101⅜ 101⅜	101⅜ 101⅜	....	8,300
B. H. & Erie.....	2⅜ 2⅝	..... 2⅞	2½	2½ 2⅝	2½ 2⅝	....	800
O. & M.....	39⅜ 40⅛	39⅜ 39⅝	39½ 39½	39½ 39½	39⅜ 39⅝	39⅜ 40⅛	26 8 0
C. C. & I. C.....	31⅜ 32⅛	31⅜ 31⅜	31⅜ 31⅝	31⅜ 31⅜	31¼ 31⅜	32 32⅛	8 5 0
W. U. Tel.....	92⅜ 93⅛	92 92⅛	91⅞ 92⅜	92 92½	92 92⅜	92½ 93⅛	45 700
Pacific Mail.....	37⅞ 38⅜	37⅞ 38¼	38⅛ 39¼	38¾ 39⅜	38⅜ 41½	40⅝ 41⅞	117,600

Government bonds are strong and in good demand in both this and the foreign markets. The London quotations show a fractional improvement, and cable advices report a strong demand for U. S. bonds in Germany, where the recent purchases by the Government have added to the feeling of confidence which the people of that country have always had in our bonds.

The bull clique in gold have again been checked in their movements to advance the premium. The Treasury sells $6,000,000 during this month—an amount which the clique can hardly be in as good condition to manage as it was at the commencement of its operations. The short interest, always a great element of strength to the bulls, is not likely to be increased after the experience which business men have already had, and whom the clique will find to sell out to is just now an important question. During the week the price has ranged between 115¼ and 115½

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 21, 1873.

The Week.

THE Special Commission, consisting of Messrs. John Jay and Thomas McElrath, appointed by the State Department to investigate the charges against General Thomas B. Van Buren, have made a report which ought to set the Vienna scandal at rest. They find that no malfeasance is proved against any of the old commissioners except General Van Buren and his assistant Mayer. The taking of $500 by the former from Hitzel for bars, and $1,000 from Boehm & Wiehl for the same purpose, the Commission condemn in terms sufficiently plain, and they find the general management, "which General Van Buren appears to have left to his subordinates, to have been marked by a lack of judgment and foresight, an absence of effective system and order, and a looseness in contracts, in instructions, and in accounts, calculated to ensure the ruin of any private business, and which in a great national trust like that entrusted to General Van Buren was to the last degree discreditable and intolerable, as indicating indifference or incapacity, or both combined." With regard to Mayer, the Commission do not examine his defence in detail; among other reasons, because it merely consisted in shifting the responsibility for the taking and soliciting money upon General Van Buren's shoulders. No approval by the chief commissioner could have rendered the acts of which Mayer is accused any less criminal. With regard to the management of the new Commission, the report speaks of their efforts in complimentary terms, and says that they have done as much as was possible to redeem the reputation of the country from the disgrace brought upon it by General Van Buren.

The Southern Historical Society, formed some years since and now endeavoring to get at work, has been in session during the past week at Richmond, and urges its members to enter with vigor on the work of collecting at once, and where possible from the living actors, materials for the true history of the late war. In the end, at all events, they will be materials for such a history; at first, and we do not know that it is possible or even desirable that the case should be otherwise, they will probably be materials for a very Southern and biassed history of the war. But we need not deny that there are extant some Northern histories of the same series of events which are not exactly impartial either. In the end, the truth will appear from a comparison of all accessible sources of information, and no more need be asked. The only thing in the proceedings of the Society which appears to us to require unfavorable comment is the behavior of Mr. Jefferson Davis, who was present, and who made a speech which could not have been less to the interest of the South, and of the North also as bound with the South, had Mr. Davis deliberately resolved to make as much mischief as he could in the time allotted him. He said that the late Confederacy had been cheated into a surrender rather than conquered; that had the Confederate authorities not placed too much reliance on certain promises which, as he implied, had been made by the United States officials, the Confederacy would have fought on till its independence was acknowledged; finally, that he was glad to say that, however it might be with Southern men, he had never yet seen a reconstructed Southern woman. This language is very unworthy of a man who has in any way, *ex-officio* merely or otherwise, held a conspicuous place among historical personages. Its falsity to historical fact is equalled only by its extreme puerility. But it will do harm all the same, although it is, speaking plainly, ill-advised to the point of silliness.

The well-known talent of the Hoar family for letting drop a few words calculated to attract attention and secure order in meeting has been exercised this week by Mr. George F. Hoar in behalf of Mr. B. F. Butler, who, to do him justice, appears to have awakened about as much of Mr. Hoar's wrath on this occasion as he has on all occasions enjoyed of Mr. Hoar's contempt. The result is a letter, which is lively reading; and the address to the electors, which the Hamilton Hall Committee is rumored to be preparing, will have to be a clever document to attract more attention than this document, and to command more approval and disapproval in the Anti-Butler and Butler camps respectively. The letter was devoted to two general topics, Mr. Butler's character and history for one, and for the other Mr. Hoar's application of his "back pay" to the needs and uses of some educational institution in his district, which Butler suggested was to curry favor with the mechanics. Mr. Hoar's way of treating Butler is refreshing, because of its comparative newness and its trueness, in both which respects it appears to us superior to the common way. Mr. Hoar has no marked respect for Butler's conduct during the rebellion. He can see no enormous and unpaid-for merit in his keeping a city full of women reasonably quiet by means of a United States army in 1862, nor in his out-blackguarding a New York mob in 1864. There is no doubt something of the exaggeration of contempt and dislike in this synopsis of Butler's warlike achievements; but it is not substantially unjust if we consider how many things and what sort of things would have to be included in any record that should be full, and if we consider the enormous amount of talk that has been contrived to be made about the New Orleans exploits. Nor does Mr. Butler's courage, any more than his energy and efficiency, seem to Mr. Hoar so tremendous a quality as some "office-holders of feeble virtue," as he calls them, would have it appear. He is always blustering, says Mr. Hoar, always quarrelling, and always failing. Swagger, quarrel, and failure sum up his history. "He has quarrelled with Grant, Wilson, Colfax, Blaine, Andrew, Sumner, the Washburns, Bingham, Schenck, and Dawes, and they have been compelled, each in his own way, to chastise and punish him, because he deserved to be whipped." This, it has been maliciously suggested, is not the way in which it has been usual to speak of the imperfect members of the party; but indeed the cup of this one has been running over for a longer time than that of any other that we can recall.

As for his "back pay," Mr. Hoar is at pains to explain his course—perhaps at too much pains, for we suppose it is not the amount of money which will be taken out of the Treasury that people care about so much. We dare say they acquiesce without anger in the increase of all the salaries except those of Congressmen. Nor is it that they think the act itself illegal; they know well enough that it is not. But it is far more the brazen indifference to decency which could prompt such a proceeding as the exorbitant comparative increase in the salaries of Congressmen, who, if we are to try them by a wages standard, notoriously do their half-year's work so ill; and the still more brazen impudence of making the bill retroactive. We do not suppose ill-will is going to be harbored against any man of approved character who, working honestly against the bill, afterwards showed his sense of the impropriety by putting the money away from him, even although he may have made a mistake in his disposal of it. Mr. Hoar's point would seem to be that it was clear to him that he could have nothing to do with the money: honor and delicacy, to say nothing of decency, compel honorable men to oppose such projects as Butler's Salary Bill, and preclude them from reaping benefit from it. But as to the moral obligation to dispose of it in one specific way, to the exclusion of all others, that was not clear to him. It was legally his money, equitably it was the people's money, and to the people it should go. He decided "within ten minutes" that his share should go to the people of his district. This may have been a right or a wrong settlement of the

point, but that matters little; in cases of this kind the honorable intention is everything.

We mentioned, some time ago, the case of the Postmaster at Westfield, Massachusetts, removed by the Administration for reasons best known to itself, against the wishes of the people of the town, and in the teeth of remonstrances from the soldiers and business-men of the place, and in spite of the fact that the Postmaster was a veteran as well as a Republican himself, and had for four years performed the duties of his office faithfully. As a curious instance of the subordination of every feeling to that of devotion to party, we may mention the fact, which we have on good authority, that this removal had no effect whatever upon the party loyalty, either of the veterans of the place or of the removed Postmaster, but, when the next campaign began, they all fell into line, and went to work to do all in their power to elect to Congress the regular party nominee, Mr. Dawes, to whom the removal was due, and who had been fiercely denounced by them at the time for the part he took in the affair.

This is an off-year in politics, and the regular party conventions which are being held in the various States chiefly occupy themselves with discovering safe candidates, and making what pugilists call "play." The Maine Democrats have nominated Joseph Titcomb for governor, and passed resolutions against "dead issues," in favor of a strict construction of the Constitution; against packing the Supreme Court, in favor of a revenue tariff, banking reform, and cheap money; denouncing railroad monopolies, complimenting the artisans and farmers; denouncing land-grants, favoring retrenchment; denouncing the Salary Bill, the interference in Louisiana, and "corruption generally," and also partially approving, as a correspondent puts it, compulsory education. The Maryland Democrats had only a comptroller and a clerk of a Court of Appeals to nominate, which they did, placing their candidates on a platform made up of the following planks: reaffirmation of Democratic principles, recognition of the Federal constitutional authority, strict construction, opposition to centralization and monopolies, affirmation of the co-ordinated independence of the three departments of Government, denunciation of a tariff for anything but a revenue, promises to promote the advancement of the laboring classes, redress of farmers' grievances and equal justice to all, declarations of adherence to the policy of preserving the public lands for actual settlers, and denunciation of land-grants and the Salary Bill, and a demand for the immediate repeal of the latter, promises of extension and improvement of the free-school system, recommendation and promises of rigid economy in the State government.

It might be inferred from the resolutions in Maine, Maryland, and Pennsylvania that things were pretty much as they had been with the regular organizations. In Iowa, the irregulars have taken the field in a convention of the Anti-monopolists, who declare both the Republican and Democratic parties dead; demand, in addition to legislative regulation of freights, "the abrogation of the theory of the inalienability of chartered rights"; the repeal of the Salary Bill, and the passage of another fixing "a lower and more reasonable compensation"; oppose land-grants; advocate a law which shall give every honorably discharged soldier a quarter-section; denounce the corruption of the Republicans and Democrats, and call on all men to help in putting an end to it. A free-trade resolution was also passed, demanding a general revision of the tariff, "free salt, iron, lumber, and cotton and woollen fabrics," and the reduction of the whole system to a revenue basis only. This resolution received more applause than any of the others. It is said that the convention, while not very large, was attended by farmers only, who had all been previously Republicans; and it is also said that the Democrats have given up all idea of contesting the State, or even making a nomination.

Senator Cameron has recently been endorsing, as it is called, several prominent politicians, and simultaneously the newspapers in several parts of the Union have been calling attention to the condition of politics in Senator Cameron's State, and asking, by implication, what Senator Cameron's endorsement is worth. The condition of Pennsylvania politics is too well known to make comment necessary, or anything but tedious, but what is the Pennsylvania opinion on that head has recently been made known in a very curious manner. In the constitutional convention, Judge Black, after remarking that everybody knew the State Senate, House, and lobby to be weltering together in moral putrefaction, proposed as a remedy the following measure: Within twenty days after the adjournment of the Legislature, every legislator whose term expires at the next general election shall go before a designated officer and make oath or affirmation that he has received no gift or bribe, that he has had the promise of none, that he has not knowingly listened to corrupt solicitation from interested parties or their agents, that he has not voted or spoken on any matter in which he was interested—in short, that in his legislative capacity he has acted as an honest man. It is difficult not to believe that this measure was proposed rather to cast a slur upon the party which has so long had the upper hand in Pennsylvania, than *bona fide* as a true remedy. But in fact both parties are no doubt equally amenable to the charge so openly preferred and acquiesced in by the convention, and neither Democrat nor Republican will seriously deny its perfect truth and its equal applicability.

To bestow many words on such a device would be useless, but people in their perplexity are groping after more than one of the sort. We are offered the details of one which in substance allows no bill whatever to go into effect till a legislature has discussed it at one session; and then at a second, after an interval of months, in which the people are to be supposed to have discussed it, the bill is to be enacted as a law. The general answer to all such schemes is that somewhere you have to begin to trust your representative, be he Assemblyman, Congressman, or Governor, and that to select a man of whom you are not ashamed, and whom experience has shown to be worthy of confidence, is the only safe rule. To be sure, it is true that even him it is no harm to watch; but the original selection is the important thing, and of that we have all been for a long time oblivious.

The reports as to the cotton crop from the South are very encouraging. The New Orleans Cotton Exchange Committee on statistics and information have published an account of the condition of the plant in ten States, which has been made up from answers to letters sent out by the Committee during the month of July. The month of July, for cotton, is a speculative month, during which veracious gentlemen who are interested in raising the price telegraph to the North depressing accounts of the condition of the crops and the ravages of the army-worm. Millions of fictitious bales of cotton change hands on the strength of these reports, the operation being one of the same kind with "short" sales of stock. It invariably turns out, so far as our experience goes, that the earlier reports are grossly exaggerated, and sure to be contradicted by later accounts. The New Orleans Committee say that in Mississippi the crop is "fully as large, if not larger, than last year"; in Louisiana, the "general condition of the crop is represented as being good," and the "area under culture is estimated to be about equal to last season"; in Texas, the area under cultivation "shows a marked increase over last year," and the condition of the crop is represented as good. The reports from Arkansas, Tennessee, Alabama, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, and Florida are all favorable. The worm seems to have done no serious damage anywhere, and the appearance of the plant is generally fine. The picking will begin generally later than last year.

Certain women in Laramie, Wyoming, have very innocently brought down on their heads a great deal of virtuous indignation from the male politicians of that Territory, who, at last advices, were fainting away in all directions over a disclosure of female corruption. The women have lately been "developing political strength in Laramie, and this summer showed a disposition to have some voice in choos-

ing their law-makers." Their first demonstration was to attend a primary meeting of the "Hash Party," "Hash" being a term of opprobrium applied to a political faction, and having none other than a political significance. The women demanded, modestly enough, that they be allowed one delegate in this faction's county convention. Not only was this proposal declined, but it was indignantly hooted down, and its proposers were compelled to leave the primary, which was then run in the usual male manner. The ladies were, however, not disconcerted. They called a mass convention of a size not stated, but, as they confess themselves, in a minority; and as the useful and, we may say, knock-down doctrine that a minority "with God" is a majority has not reached Wyoming, this mass convention only nominated two out of six candidates—one lady for the Territorial Council and one for the House. Now they say that whichever one of the two parties will accept these two candidates shall have their votes, for votes, be it remembered, they have, the men of the Territory some years since having conferred the suffrage on women. In other words, say the "Hash" organs with unaffected horror, they propose to "sell themselves out to the highest bidder"—an act unprecedented in our political history. The organs of the other party repeat this exclamation, and the women do not know what to say amid the objurgations heaped upon them. Meantime, the true friends of female suffrage, of whichever party, urge the women not to sell out to the other side in this disreputable way, but to work side by side with a certain set of male voters for the triumph of principles.

Christ Church, Chicago, the Rev. Mr. Cheney's, is once again the scene of trouble, and the condition of the new clergyman's mind is fully as unintelligible as ever Mr. Cheney's was. It seems that a year and a half ago a call was extended to the Rev. Mr. C. H. Tucker, of the diocese of Long Island, to become an assistant minister in the discordant parish. Mr. Tucker procured from his bishop the proper letters dimissory, and went out to Chicago, where he left his letters at Bishop Whitehouse's residence. The bishop himself he did not see. In a few hours Mr. Tucker received a letter from Bishop Whitehouse, enclosing a copy of the canon law on the subject of the settlement of rectors and assistants, and informing Mr. Tucker that the bishop had received no official notification of the action of the vestry of Christ Church in regard to the call. To this Mr. Tucker made what seems a very odd reply, but perhaps the facts are somewhat distorted in passing through the lay editorial minds which have narrated the story. As the story goes, Mr. Tucker replied that he was amazed to find that there was such a canonical provision as the one just submitted to his attention, but that he had Mr. Cheney's assurance and the vestry's that he should be called in full accordance with the canon law. The meekest or most careless of bishops might well enough deem it proper to be decisive with a cleric who should speak in that manner of the powers and duties of a gentleman who stands in Mr. Cheney's present relations to the clerical office. The recognized superior powers long since deposed him. Bishop Whitehouse, at all events, declined to receive Mr. Tucker's letters dismissing him, and commanded him to refrain from preaching and all other church work. Mr. Tucker would not refrain, and he was then requested by his own bishop, Littlejohn, to stop, and, not stopping, he was in due time summoned home to Long Island to stand trial for disobedience and violation of the canon. He did not go, thinking, it is said, that his attendance in person was unnecessary, and on the 14th of July last he was deposed from the ministry. What he is thinking now, or if he thinks at all, is not said, but he obeys no more than he did before. Of such mental process as does go on within him the outcome is that "God called him to Chicago; that such being the case, it would be an ungodly act for him to cease from his labors; that as it would be ungodly in him to stop, to admonish him to stop must be an ungodly admonitory act; that it was only to the 'godly admonitions' of his bishop that he promised obedience in his ordination vows; that therefore he is right to disobey both bishops.

We noticed last week the resignation of Mr. Ayrton, First Commissioner of Works, not a very popular member of the English Ministry. He had lately been getting himself into hot water in a peculiar way, exhibiting a spirit of insubordination which seems to have brought down upon his shoulders the whole weight of the English Constitution. A vote of £8,500 for the acquisition of land under what is called the Thames Embankment Act, over the execution of which Mr. Ayrton presides, being proposed by the Government, Mr. Ayrton took occasion to disclaim all knowledge of the expenditure and wash his hands of it. In the estimate as originally proposed by him, the amount was provided for expenditures of a different kind, and the Treasury altered the particulars, though not the amount, and struck out an explanatory note appended to the original draft. According to all the rules of ministerial government, Mr. Ayrton should, under these circumstances, have held his tongue, the Ministry being supposed to act as a unit, whatever differences of opinion may exist among its members. Mr. Ayrton was urged in the press to resign, the *Economist* going so far as to say that "his clear duty under the system which made him a great official was to appeal to the Cabinet. Instead of that he appealed to Parliament. He might as well, as far as duty was concerned, have appealed to the streets."

The French Assembly has been prorogued until November 5, and the Permanent Committee announces its intention of sitting every alternate Thursday during the recess. Before the adjournment, a message from the President was read by the Duc de Broglie, congratulating the Assembly on the satisfactory condition of affairs, and especially on the harmony between it and the Government, which had been productive of the happiest results, "important laws" having been voted "almost without debate." The rather novel view of the functions of parliamentary bodies implied in this congratulation attracts of course little or no attention, except from journalistic satirists of the non-Latin races. Just before the prorogation, the Chamber adopted the new treaties of commerce with England and Belgium. Before the meeting of the Assembly in the autumn, German occupation will have ceased. The rumors of a fusion of Legitimists and Orleanists are again revived, the Duc de Chambord having, it is said, declared his intention of being willing to forget the White Flag. It is also rumored that General MacMahon does not intend to retain the Presidency more than six months, as the interests of the country require his presence with the army. These two rumors do not conflict with each other, but nothing certain is known.

This commercial treaty with England is the old treaty negotiated by Napoleon III., which M. Thiers desired abrogated. This act, and the abolition of the *surtaxe* on foreign shipping, show a very liberal spirit in all that relates to trade on the part of the present Government. This *surtaxe*, according to the calculations of M. Thiers, was to have exceeded six millions of francs a year. It actually yielded, however, only one million ($200,000), a sum certainly too small to justify what is called in a recent official report "a great artificial dam, raised at great cost at the mouths of our rivers and ports, and the certain effect of which is to deprive France of the natural transit to which its position entitles it." An amusing instance of the extraordinary divergence in economical calculations between one French Government and another is to be found in the history of the tax on raw materials. When M. Thiers was in power, and had to raise six or seven hundred millions by new levies, he decided on this tax, and at once set the whole army of Government officials at work calculating what the tax would yield, adopting unassailable bases of calculation. They all reported that the tax would produce from 93,000,000 to 140,000,000 francs. M. Thiers went out of office, and M. Magne, the new Minister of Finance, sent for the same army of officials and requested a new report based on facts equally unassailable. They reported that the tax could not possibly be made to yield more than six millions, and the tax was suppressed.

THE "SITUATION" FOR SENATOR MORTON'S COMMITTEE.

THE best method for electing the President of the United States is now practically an open question, and Senator Morton's committee may proceed to find the right way with as much freedom as though no constitutional precedent existed to embarrass their conclusions. What are the desirable elements of the method? Upon what basis shall it stand, and by what process shall it be effected? Undoubtedly, most men will be ready to answer in a general way that these elements are equality of representation, safety in the means, and convenience in the machinery. And undoubtedly these are the elements in a general way; but when we come to give effect to them, a number of practical questions immediately arise. Shall the office of President represent population or States? Shall it continue to represent both in an imperfect manner, with all the irregularities of the present system, or shall the present system be modified while it is retained? These questions are of great importance; but of no less gravity are those which relate to the safety of the process—*i. e.*, the certainty of an election; its elevation above ordinary chances of fraud or violence; the assurance that it shall represent the people or the communities of whose will it is intended to be an expression, and shall not fall into the hands of those enemies of true government who seek the control of the Government as a mere personal or political acquisition.

Since the subject was first weighed by the statesmen of the Revolution, the ground for reflection has shifted. Then the great difficulties to be pondered were directly or indirectly those of representation: not, "how shall the President be elected?" but, "by whom shall he be elected?" Now it is thought by many that not only the groundwork of representation should be changed, but also that the means provided by the system of electoral colleges is so insecure as to amount to a constantly recurring danger to the Republic. The framers of the Constitution were manifestly more afraid of difficulties that would keep States out of the Union, than of dangers which might menace the Republic after its Government should be well established. Fraud, corruption, and the unscrupulous abuse of political power were evils which they did not have immediately confronting them. Since then a number of deleterious causes have combined upon the American political field. The management of the Government has passed from accomplished statesmen to "acute politicians"; the better classes of society have ceased to assume the control of national affairs; a class has gradually come into existence whose trade and business in life is to force the Government into the hands of their own party, or section of a party, unscrupulous as to means and regardless as to consequences. It was predicted by some of the wisest of American statesmen and jurists that if the Federal Government is ever shattered, it will be upon the rock of the transfer of executive authority from one Administration to another. All things now tend to confirm the prediction.

Mr. Morton is one of the very few public men of the day who with the pursuits of a politician has many of the capabilities of a statesman. In his avocation of politician he has been unscrupulous in efforts to keep up the dangers and the evils of a growing class of political "professionals"; but in his character of statesman he has the ability to perceive that the Presidential election is a danger, constantly increasing and not likely to grow less, so long as the presidency and its appointments are to be fought for with the same sense of glory and profit that is to be found in contests for "the champion's belt and a thousand dollars." Our fathers inherited from their fathers that jealous apprehension of government which is bred only under a limited, constitutional monarchy. They provided against tyrannical power in government as though our Government descended from above like the divine right of kings, instead of being the constant re-creation of the people; but they did not foresee that a class of men would gradually come upon the political stage to whom Government would be not a power or a terror, but a fund to be disbursed for their benefit. How completely the framers of the Constitution relied upon a community, intelligent, calm, scrupulous, not likely to resort to violence, certain not to countenance fraud, and able to comprehend the fact that political success should be only the means toward securing the end of the general welfare, nothing can better illustrate than the method which they prescribed for the selection as well as election of the President. We now know that there is literally no possibility of a President's posting his troops in the avenues of Washington and acquiring control of the United States by any such *coup d'état;* but we also know that there is very great danger of usurpation coming in the guise of law—of usurpation like the Democratic "system" in New York, or the Republican "system" in Philadelphia, or the conjoint "system" of Louisiana and of Congress. So long as Government is administered for the general welfare of the governed, so long there can be little to fear in an intelligent community from those changes which come in its course of constitutional routine. But when it is administered for the welfare of the administrators, and the transfer of executive power is regarded as a pecuniary prize by several hundred thousand "professionals" out of office, and as the loss of livelihood by a considerable number who chance to be in, and the legislative authority has been allowed to acquire a direct personal interest in the same official plunder, then it must be evident that every change is fraught with danger, and that fraud on the one hand and violence on the other may be the sequel of any Presidential election. The changes of Administration with us come with every fourth or eighth year, and their regularity leads the common mind to accept them as inevitable; but the changes from one political party to its opponents have been exceedingly rare, and we certainly do not know by experience how the self-control of the country can stand the strain which the sordid interests of the political class may throw upon it with the first transfer of power from one party to another. The plainest common-sense dictates that every servant of the nation should find his own welfare united to the cause of law and order; that the members of the civil service, like those of the military, should have a direct interest in the safety and maintenance of the Government; and that the number of those who are to win or lose by the result of a Presidential election should be reduced to our legislative representatives and a few chief officers of state. But while the public intelligence is slowly growing up to the dictates of common-sense, it is certainly desirable to guard against the danger, though the remedy does not go to the root of the disease.

The question, as we have said, is now an open one. It is indeed singularly open, for all of the old conditions of difficulty which perplexed the statesmen of 1789 have dropped off, and not a single new one has been imposed. The first difficulty which befell the framers of the Constitution was the fear of the small States that they would be absorbed or destroyed or in some indefinable way injured by the large ones. Hence they demanded not merely proportionate equality, but an influence or representation greatly exceeding the ratio of power and population which they were to contribute to the common stock. Experience has shown that these fears were utterly groundless; that no small State has ever suffered as such by the Union; and that the influence of a State in the national councils depends much more on the intellectual magnitude of its representatives than the disproportionate number of its votes. Nothing can now seem more preposterous than the spectacle of little Rhode Island standing out for two years against the Union; yet we see history renewing the spectacle in Prince Edward Island, which, with a population of 80,857 (in 1861), refused for several years to enter the Canadian Dominion. The boundaries of the States of this Union are for the most part artificial or political lines, separating imaginary rather than real interests, such as the sentiment of State pride. As soon as the conflict of real interests came, these lines gave way to those of natural geography, and instead of a visionary conflict of States there was a real conflict of sections. So long as the sectional lines were marked by free and slave labor, the small States chanced to be an important, almost a controlling, element in the contest, and any attempt to disturb their disproportionate influence would have been resented almost as much as if the disproportion had been

intended as an express guaranty to the South. With the universality of free labor the sectional lines immediately changed, and for the North and South we now have the South, the East, and the West. Between these three sections the small States are almost evenly distributed, and the inequalities which exist in the distribution are steadily growing less. So far as the map of the party manager is concerned, the uncertainties of future politics do not admit of anything very definite being said; and we suspect that there is hardly an "acute politician" in the country who has ever "posted up" the comparative influence of the small States, or can tell whether a change in the basis of their representation will in any way affect his future "slate."

It is next to be noted that the deliberative character of the electoral colleges has entirely passed away. One of the many difficulties for which our first statesmen had to provide a remedy, was the want of intercommunication between the people of the colonies which they were uniting into a country. It is not easy now really to apprehend the problem of providing for a people whose habitations extended from Maine to Georgia, and from the Atlantic to the Ohio, but who were absolutely without steamboats, railways, or telegraphs, and almost equally without roads, mails, and newspapers. We now have the means for an unfailing interchange of opinions. We have more—the means for an interchange of those primary thoughts and impressions which precede the formation of opinions. But, with such a want of means for the dissemination of intelligence as existed in 1788, it was wisdom, if not a necessity, to provide for the *selection* of the President by the same bodies that were formally to elect him. The country has outlived the deliberative character of the electoral colleges, for the simple reason that it has outlived the necessities of the situation. The electoral system is now without practical utility, and equally without a hold upon the minds or imaginations of the people. All men do not perceive the dangers which lie dormant in it, but to all it appears a useless piece of machinery, not inconvenient or expensive, but wholly without a rational purpose.

It is also to be remembered that the Convention thought it best to allay suspicion by allowing the States to choose the electors in their own way. Accordingly, in some of the States they were chosen by the Legislature. The people of South Carolina, we believe, down to the time of the Rebellion, never voted for a President of the United States. That phase of the old suspicion has also passed away, and the people of the different States gradually and voluntarily have come to employ precisely the same means for both selecting and electing the head of the Government. Finally, the three-fifths representation of slaves in some of the States, and the varying property qualification of voters in others, are no longer conditions imposed upon the constitution-builder. The variable values of votes in different States absolutely debarred Jefferson and Hamilton from allowing the citizens of all to meet in one poll and vote directly for whatever candidates they pleased. The complexity of their system was not voluntarily chosen, but was the complexity of the circumstances with which they had to deal. Now that we are relieved from the complication of the circumstances, there is no need of retaining the intricacy of the system. Messrs. Morton and Bayard are not bound by the restrictions that were set upon the first architects. The wonderful simplicity of those architects' plan we can only apprehend by studying the extraordinary complication of the circumstances to which it was adapted. Our present engineers come upon the ground after the Hill of Difficulty has been graded and the Slough of Despond filled up. The circumstances of their case are these: State distrust entirely passed away; sectional jealousy singularly in abeyance; every man a voter in every State (which gives to all votes an equal value); a practice already established essentially inconsistent with the old prescribed form of proceeding; a people entirely willing to put aside the old form, and self-educated to the conclusion that the most desirable elements in the method for electing the President are directness, simplicity, and safety.

THE CONDITION OF PARTIES.

THERE are now seven parties in existence in the United States, all possessing names, all issuing from time to time strenuous appeals for public support, all holding conventions, all making platforms and keeping up the appearance of an active organization and existence. Of the six, two have had a great deal of actual experience in governing the country, and have had in times past definite principles of government on which to act, or definite objects to attain. They are both now generally admitted to be destitute of either, except that one, being in actual control of affairs, desires to retain that control, and the other, not having been in control for some twelve years, desires to regain it. Whether parties in this condition ought to be called dead or alive is a question which seems hardly worth arguing. The one important thing about them is that neither has any more definite notion of its own aims than that we have just indicated. A most amusing and recent proof of this seems to have escaped most people's attention. It is only a year since the country was all ablaze with the fierce excitement of a Presidential contest. The union of the Democrats and Liberal Republicans brought into opposition to the Republicans a party one of whose principal aims was civil-service reform. The Republican party, however, assured the public that so far from being against civil-service reform, it was their own peculiar measure, and to convince all sceptics it was made a separate plank of the Philadelphia platform. There can be little doubt that the insertion of this reform in the platform saved many votes for the party. To make the matter still more prominent, General Grant was no sooner elected than a contest arose inside the party over some appointments which were said to have been made against the spirit of the rules adopted by General Grant's own Civil-Service Commission. The chairman of the Commission resigned, as the public understood, because it was impossible for him any longer to believe that the rules were to be followed. General Grant, however, renewed his profession of faith in the reform and his determination to carry it out. Under these circumstances, and considering all the public clamor made at the time of Mr. Curtis's resignation, one would have said that if there was one matter on which it was vitally important for the Republican party to keep straight, and one matter on which it was vitally important for the Democrats to keep the attention of the country riveted, it was civil-service reform. Yet we do not remember a single Democratic platform since the election which has taken the least notice of the resignation of Mr. Curtis or its assigned reasons, or a single Republican platform which has taken the pains to mention the subject in any way. Nobody who had lately come to the country and had read the late party platforms would imagine for a moment that one of the great reforms to which the party in power had pledged itself, and which the party out of power had denounced it for not carrying out, was the reform of the civil service.

The Liberal Republicans afford a curious instance of a party living everywhere throughout the country on the strength they are supposed to have somewhere else. It is no uncommon thing for gentlemen to establish what is called an international reputation in this way, growing famous in England on the strength of the reputation they are supposed to have in America, and famous in America from the reputation they are supposed to have in England. The Liberal Republicans have merely turned to the account of a party the methods which have heretofore been made use of among individuals. They are certainly as strong to-day as they have ever been, and are hardly likely to be, as an independent organization, stronger. It is impossible to distinguish a Liberal Republican when you see one from a Democrat. He professes the same principles, and on examination is found to hold them, though as a general rule he has not held them quite so long.

The Labor Reformers and the Female Suffrage Reformers can hardly be said to be in any better case. Labor Reform a few years ago seemed about to become an active cry in Massachusetts, but after polling some twenty-five thousand votes in one election, and twelve in another, the vote dwindled down to nothing and disap

peared. The Crispin Society, which was perhaps the most powerful organization whose support the movement had, is itself now in need of support to prevent its going to pieces; the labor-reform cries have ceased to be heard, and, indeed, for the last year there has even been a lull in the non-political labor movement—among the organizers of strikes. The advocates of female suffrage seem to have lost faith both in the feasibility and in the efficacy of their reform. As to its feasibility, the politicians have shown lately but little interest in it; and as to its efficacy, the growing conviction among the male population of the very slight value to the individual male citizen of the ballot, the numerous exposures of election frauds, and perhaps more than all the disagreeable vicissitudes in the lives of the Woodhull-Claflin sisterhood, have damped the ardor of the honest and sincere woman-suffrage reformers, and led them to that frame of mind in which they look upon the reform as one to be steadily kept in view rather than immediately adopted. The history of the causes which led to the introduction of female suffrage in Wyoming, too, recently published in a Western magazine, have not been of a kind to make converts. Wyoming has always been pointed to as a place in which the advantages of the reform have actually been tested and approved by experience. It seems, however, that there are a mere handful of women in Wyoming, and that the male citizens of the Territory, having heard that women desired above all things the right of suffrage, conceived the idea of attracting wives by promising them the ballot and allowing them to serve on juries. These calculations, however, turned out to be totally mistaken. However precious the ballot may seem to woman in the abstract, she will not go to Wyoming and be married to a Wyoming citizen for it, and the result is that there is a strong pressure for the repeal of the law. There have never been enough women in this Territory, or men either, to test the effect which the change would have in thickly settled communities. The Temperance party has as yet made no organized attempt to gain possession of the National Government, and is very unlikely to do so.

Of the Farmers' Movement we have spoken very often, not, as some of our contemporaries seem to suppose, in a cynical spirit, but simply for the purpose of examining into the causes of the farmers' discontent and the proposed remedy. The farmers have grievances enough, but it is a moral impossibility that any lasting party can be founded on such a declaration of principles as that chartered rights are not inalienable, that the State shall fix the price of all transportation, or that the swindling of directors shall be made up to the agricultural population out of the scanty profits of the stock and bondholders, who are the very persons in most cases who have been swindled.

The accuracy of this picture of the political field, so far as it relates to any one party, will not probably be questioned by a member of any of the other seven, but within the limits of each party there is a strong feeling that the fate of the country depends on its immediate success in the coming elections. Therefore, we hear on all sides terrible shouts of warning about Grant's third term, Cæsarism, monopolies, salary-grabs, land-grants, centralization, and many things besides. The newspapers are full of them naturally enough, because it is all news, in the ordinary acceptation of the word. Nevertheless, the excitement, unless we are very much mistaken, will pass away in a month or two, and leave the country very much in the state it was before. And this for many reasons, some of which we have just endeavored to point out.

One additional reason, and a very important one, is a reason which the popular orators and exhorters are not fond of taking into account; and that is, that the people are not only full of virtue and intelligence, and capable of great exertions in behalf of liberty, law, and order, fond of falling into line, and marching on to victory at the polls; they are also capable of fatigue, and just now the people are fatigued with politics, really weary to death of them. If the people had only one vote to cast every few years, the probability is that it would never grow weary of casting or pretending to cast it. Unfortunately, however, it is the privilege of the people to be able to cast a ballot every year, and often every six months, for a number of candidates for State, United States, and local officers about whom it knows nothing and hears everything. For the past year, it has heard not only that pretty much all the present incumbents of these offices are corrupt men or the tools of corrupt men, but that the political class itself is so depraved that all possible candidates are corrupt men or the tools of corrupt men. Under these circumstances, it cannot be wondered at that the people should look upon the extraordinary exertions to redeem and save various parts of the country, now being made by the various parties in the field, with a good deal of indifference.

THE NATIONAL UNIVERSITY SCHEME.

FEW people, probably, except editors of newspapers, and those professionally interested in the business of education, will read with care President Eliot's report on the scheme for establishing a national university at Washington. Most people take, as it appears from the report itself, very little interest in schemes for national establishments of the educational kind, and the public will probably in this case content itself with remembering the fact that Mr. Eliot came out in opposition, and was generally believed to have given the finishing blow, to a project—devised no one knows by whom, and to be effected no one knew how—of having an institution for the promotion of the higher education subsidized and fostered into life by the General Government. Indeed, this is pretty much all the public, as public, need care to know about the matter. The fact that the plan was opposed in a report signed by a gentleman occupying the position and commanding the respect due to Mr. Eliot, is reason enough for inferring, as the press seems generally to have done, that the plan has been really killed. We should have feared, *à priori*, that on the appearance of the report the charge would at once have been made that its conclusions were dictated by the jealousy of new foundations entertained by an older university. A few years ago this charge would unquestionably have been made. It is not difficult to recollect a time when the chain of reasoning which would have been found at the bottom of many of the editorials written on the appearance of such a report as this would have been of this kind: "President Eliot is President of Harvard; Harvard is a Massachusetts university; now we see why Mr. Eliot is so bitterly opposed to a national university." The hearty expressions of approval with which the report has generally met are gratifying in two ways—not only because of the intrinsic value of the report itself, but also as an illustration of the much more catholic and cosmopolitan spirit in which the subject of university education is now discussed.

The report is in fact a beautiful piece of destructive criticism, and has the merit, which so much destructive criticism lacks, of showing that the conclusions reached are not merely based on an examination of the reasons for opposing the plan, but also on a general and wide-reaching study of the subject in all its branches. Mr. Eliot does not merely give his readers to understand that for such and such reasons a national university would, instead of being a national blessing, be a national curse. He evinces at every turn a comprehensive grasp of the fundamental question—what an American university ought to be.

The history of the report is also interesting, as it shows what sort of a foundation of committees and organization and agitation is needed to lend an appearance of importance to any scheme which has a public title. On the 20th of August, 1869, it seems, a meeting of the National Educational Association was held at Trenton, New Jersey, at which a resolution was unanimously adopted directing the appointment of a committee, consisting of one member from each of the States, to take the whole matter of a national university, spoken of in the resolution as a "leading want" of American education, into consideration, and to report at the next annual convention. This convention was held at Cleveland in August, 1870, and meantime the committee, which was duly appointed, had done nothing. The chairman, however, Dr. John W. Hoyt, of Wisconsin, who was at the bottom of the whole movement, had done a good deal, and presented what was called a preliminary report, on the general subject, couched in elevated language, but without any definite recommendations whatever, except that there should be a single central university, and that for its creation the citizen, the State, and the General Government must unite, coupled with a request for more time, which was granted. It would have required, perhaps, no ghost to come from the grave to predict that at the next annual meeting, held in St. Louis in August, 1871, another report would be presented making a little clearer what the recommendations about the union of the citizen, the

State, and the United States meant. At any rate, at the St. Louis meeting Dr. Hoyt and a minority of his committee reported that the function of the United States was to subsidize the university, that the function of the several States was to have a voice in its management, and the function of citizens was that they "should be cordially invited to endow such departments . . . as shall most enlist their sympathies." The committee recommended that "there should be raised a new and permanent committee of less numbers than the present—say fifteen— . . . to be known as the National University Committee," "that a quite limited number of members thereof should be a quorum for the transaction of business at any regularly called meeting, and that a majority shall have power to supply . . . vacancies. . . ." The concluding sentence of the report was as follows: "A committee of this character would be able, in the first place, to concentrate the best thought of the country upon the various important questions involved in the perfection of a plan for the institution; and, secondly, to marshal the strength of the country in systematic and effective support of the measure, when at last formally brought to the attention of Congress."

The project had now got so far as to have secured a minority report. Enthusiasm was at its height, and the permanent committee recommended was appointed. The subsequent proceedings may be given in a few words. The members of the permanent committee were all busy men, and were scattered over the country from one end to the other. Several of them were appointed without their knowledge. There has never been a meeting of the committee competent to transact business. Dr. Hoyt, however, has been by no means inactive. Regarding the necessary enthusiasm as already created, he repaired to Washington, and spent the winter of 1871-2 in writing letters to a large number of persons interested in education, asking their opinion and advice about a national university, and enclosing a draft of a bill to establish such an university. These letters were supposed to have additional weight because they were written on the paper of the Bureau of Education, and were sent out from that office with envelopes for the free transmission of replies to that Bureau. At length Dr. Hoyt's plan of the campaign culminated in the introduction into Congress of a bill to establish the university, drawn by himself, and presented by Senator Sawyer of South Carolina, which was supposed by all concerned to be the bill of the National Educational Association, and was referred to by General Eaton, Commissioner of Education, in a letter to Mr. Eliot, as "favored by the committee" of that association; the committee, that is, which had never been called together. Another bill for the same purpose was also introduced apologetically by Senator Howe of Wisconsin, and, according to that Senator, was "drawn by some one, he did not know who." The bills were read twice, and referred to the Senate Committee on Education and Labor.

Mr. Eliot enters upon an examination of the scheme, as it appears in these bills, and shows very effectually that their passage could lead to nothing but jobbing and corruption, inefficiency, and an endless succession of scandals. Senator Howe's bill specifies ten different faculties and designates almost all the professorships. The president of the university is to be appointed by the President of the United States, with the consent of the Senate; the heads of faculties by the president of the university, also with the consent of the Senate. The president and heads of faculties constitute the university senate, and control all subordinate appointments. There is no reason whatever, Mr. Eliot very wisely says, to suppose that these appointments would be made on any better method than that which now prevails in United States custom-houses and post-offices, and he suggests that the spectacle of a national university "ring" would be even less edifying than that of a custom-house or post-office or even of an agricultural-college "ring." Here, indeed, is the root of the matter, so far as it relates to practical methods. There is no way of obtaining a grant of money from Congress for such an enterprise as this without giving the politicians an important voice in the appointment of officers, and every one knows that, as politics now go, this means an open door to every kind of iniquity. What a national university would be with its governors appointed by the same authority which has put Governor Holden into the Raleigh Post-office after the Legislature of his own State had impeached and convicted him for corruption—a conviction which for ever disqualified him from holding office under the State government; with its professorships and tutorships parcelled out among the various States and Territories geographically, and distributed among needy placemen, broken-down littérateurs, and rising poets, it is not difficult to imagine. It was impossible for Mr. Eliot to examine this branch of the subject with reference to the experience already obtained in the case of particular colleges which have been to a certain extent dependent not upon a distant central government, but what might be supposed much less dangerous, upon a local State government. There is, for instance, a university in California in which politicians had at one time a controlling voice, and their operations made the university a laughing-stock and by-word among those who knew anything about the matter, so that a story was told which was supposed to illustrate the peculiar condition of education in California at the time, of a certain important professorship the incumbent of which had made himself obnoxious to the political gentlemen at the head of affairs; they did not know how to get rid of him, as they had no reason to allege for his removal; but at length they bethought themselves of an old political device—they abolished the professorship itself. Mr. Eliot has had reason, also, to know the evils of State control in the case of the college of which he is president. The governing body of Harvard consists of a corporation and a board of overseers; the entire body were, till within a few years, elected by the Legislature of Massachusetts, and it is a well-known fact that so long as the board remained in the hands of the Legislature, it was used as a convenient place of repose for gentlemen whom their friends in the Legislature desired to find places for, and was inert and almost lifeless. A few years since the Legislature surrendered its prerogative to the alumni of the college, and the alumni now elect the overseers. The change has resulted in the conversion of the board into an active, energetic body, in full sympathy with the college, respected by the graduates, and taking a part it never had taken before in the government of the institution. Indeed, so far as the experience of Harvard College goes, we may say that it shows the prosperity of a university to be in the direct inverse proportion to the interference of the State.

No effective security is provided in either of the bills—and, in the nature of things, no effective security is likely to be provided by a Government which itself supplies the funds—that appointments will not be of the nature of political appointments, and the tenure of office a political tenure.

"This is a fatal defect in any Congressional bill to establish a university, so long as the principles of appointment to United States offices and the tenure of those offices remain what they now are. The only tenure of office which is fit for a teacher is the tenure during good behavior and competency, and this is the only tenure which will secure the services of competent professors in colleges and universities. The frequency of the elections of teachers is a very bad feature in our public-school system. Permanence of tenure is necessary to make the position of a teacher one of dignity and independence. Young men of vigor and capacity will not enter a profession which offers no money prize, unless they are induced by its stability and peacefulness and by the social consideration which attaches to it. The system which prevails in most of our large cities and towns of electing the teachers in the public schools at least as often as once a year, is inconsistent with this dignity, peacefulness, and consideration, unless a firmly established custom of re-electing incumbents converts the constantly recurring elections into mere formalities. We must all bitterly deplore the mortifying fact that for more than a generation neither dignity, peacefulness, nor social consideration has attached to any appointment in the civil service of the United States."

We have not space to examine in detail the two bills of Senators Howe and Sawyer, or perhaps of Dr. Hoyt, but among their peculiar features we may mention that the latter bill provides for a board of regents, consisting of one member from each State of the United States, to be appointed by the Governor, with the advice and consent of the Chief-Justice and the Superintendent of Public Instruction or other like officer of his State; five members from the country at large, and a number of *ex-officio* members raked together from all quarters. With regard to this provision, Mr. Eliot very justly says, that while the principle of local representation is natural enough for ordinary political matters, different States having frequently different interests with regard to taxes, railroads, commerce, and so on, it is absurd to apply the principle to the governing board of a university—philology, history, philosophy, science, and mathematics being pretty much the same in Massachusetts as they are in California. Besides this, Senator Sawyer's bill grants $20,000,000 in what Mr. Eliot calls the "singular form of an unnegotiable certificate of indebtedness of the United States, bearing interest at 5 per cent. a year," and both the bills plant the proposed university at Washington—a situation which, considering the physical and moral atmosphere of the place, would seem to have been selected for the purpose of putting into a practical form Artemas Ward's joke, that Harvard College was "pleasantly situated in the bar-room of the Parker House."

But in his demolition of this university scheme, Mr. Eliot does not stop at practical considerations. He considers also the theory on which the whole rests, and says very truly that it belongs to an order of society and development wholly different from our own, and that its importation would be a deplorable error. The National University is based on an obsolescent conception of the relation of government to society—the paternal theory of government. On the Continent of Europe this theory is in full force, and in France and Prussia paternal instruction is its necessary corollary, just as a state church is. The old American theory, on the other hand, has always been local taxes for universal elementary education, voted by those locally interested, and for the higher grades of instruction permanent endowments, administered by incorporated bodies of trustees. "This is the American

voluntary system," and is "in sharp contrast with the military despotic organization of public instruction which prevails in Prussia and most other states of Continental Europe. Both systems have peculiar advantages, the crowning advantage of the American method being that it breeds freemen."

FRANCE—THE POLITICAL INTERREGNUM.

PARIS, July 30.

THE French Assembly is prorogued for three months. The echoes of Versailles will be silent, and France will live for a while like the *Belle au Bois Dormant*. It would be idle to deny that the country is enjoying keenly this hope of silence and rest. Great satisfaction is felt at the liberation of the territory from the last German regiments, and the liberation of the political field from the ravages of the Left.

If we cast a glance over the last session, we shall find as complete a change as has ever perhaps been worked out in so short a period. When the deputies met a few months ago, the star of M. Thiers was in the ascendant, the monarchical parties seemed quite discomfited; one after another the old parliamentary warriors, as well as the young aspirants, joined the army of the so-called Conservative Republic. Every step, every word of M. Thiers was carefully noted; the ambassadors of all the powers had followed him to Trouville. They were to be found almost every evening at the Elysée or at Versailles. Bismarck was convinced that the Monarchists were only making themselves ridiculous by futile efforts against the all-powerful, ever-ready, bold, and resolute *petit-bourgeois* who had been treating with him. Prince Orloff was courting him and sounding him on the eventualities which might arise from a conflict between Germany and Russia. In every party election, the candidates, Conservatives or Radicals, offered themselves to the electors as the friends of the President. The Radicals all over France had, at the dictation of Gambetta, adopted the clever policy of representing themselves as the most ardent defenders of the Government; they overruled by this means the very prefects and all the timid agents of the administration. The country was drifting, as by an irresistible current, into the definitive Republic.

We all remember how the triumph of M. Thiers came to an end. He had rendered such services to the Republicans, he had given to their cause such an artificial air of solidity, of grandeur, of strength, that he thought that his "quos ego" could never be resisted. The Radicals had been his instrument; he had used them in order to terrorize the Conservatives and the Monarchists. The time came when they thought they could use him. The coalition between the Conservative Republicans and the Radicals ended in the defeat of M. de Rémusat and the election of MM. Barodet and Ranc, two open representatives of the bloody Commune. The veil was torn in an instant. The abyss concealed by the thin screen of the Conservative Republic was shown to every eye. The recoil of the country was immediate, and the parliamentary revolution which in one day placed Marshal MacMahon in the place of M. Thiers was one of the easiest that was ever seen in any country. Ever since, the reaction against the men and the ideas which were in the ascendant with M. Thiers has been constant, and it requires almost an effort of the imagination to remember the moral state of the country a few months ago. It seemed as if all was lost; people were gravely meditating whither they should fly if the Commune became the legal Government of the country. I know a bibliophile who had already sent his choice books to England. The daily telegrams from Spain were read like a sort of "mene, mene, tekel, peres."

With an elasticity peculiar to the French character, all is now hope and confidence, and this curious optimism became visible among all ranks of the population during the festivities of the visit of the Shah. I was, I confess, less interested in the diamonds of this Oriental monarch than in the people who followed him everywhere. Even during the Empire, at the time of the Congress of Paris or of the visits of the sovereigns during the great Exhibition, I have never seen such magnificent spectacles as those which the capital of France offered during a fortnight. The vision of royalty, the glittering uniforms, the fireworks, the sight of Paris from the Trocadero with its monuments shining in the darkness; the march of sixty thousand men in the Bois de Boulogne before a battalion of generals, headed by MacMahon; the fêtes at the Elysée and at the Foreign Office, had completely distracted the Parisians. They were out of mourning, proud again of their city, and drinking night and day the waters of Lethe. Who would have dared to remark, when the batteries of artillery passed in such magnificent order, that all the guns were unserviceable? When the wind shattered the flames of the Bengal fires, who would have made a comparison between the spectacle offered to the Shah and the conflagration of the Commune? Wherever MacMahon passed, he never heard an opposition cry. No "Vive la République," no "Vive Thiers." The Republic was forgotten, Thiers was forgotten, all was forgotten. The monarchical instincts of the nation have again triumphed, and though the word Republic is still on every public document, the Republicans feel that their cause is nearly lost. The present President of the Chamber once told me, long ago, "It might be possible to make the Republic live in France, but only on one condition: the Republicans inspire the masses of the Conservatives with so much dread, and are so unruly, that they must be carefully excluded from the Government; the Republic must be confided exclusively not only to Monarchists (for a Monarchist may be a Liberal), but to Conservatives, even to reactionaries, to clericals, to soldiers. A military, reactionary, clerical Republic may perhaps be allowed to live."

I am afraid that this prediction was only too true. There is a certain innate solidity in the monarchical principle which would allow a constitutional king to be almost a Liberal, but a republican government in France is constantly obliged to reassure the country, and it is drawn forcibly towards what is vaguely called the Reaction. The present Government is composed of men who began their political career in the ranks of the opposition to the Empire. The Duc de Broglie would like to be considered as a Liberal, but the majority of the Chamber is much more preoccupied at the present time with order than with liberty. "We want a strong government" has become a sort of proverb. The Duc de Broglie, who comes from an old military race, is trying, and so far successfully, to unite the *suaviter in modo* with the *fortiter in re*. Strong as he is, as the representative of order and of the coalition of all the Conservatives against the Radicals, he is not blind to the difficulties of his situation. The existing political solution is merely a negative one; MacMahon in power means neither the Republic, nor the Monarchy, nor the Empire; it means simply, no Commune. But the terrors of the Commune will some day be forgotten, and France will become again uneasy, finding itself without any definitive institutions and, so to speak, without a future. The Duc de Broglie has made his platform—he represents the coalition of all the social forces against the anti-social parties; he not only proclaims a truce between all political parties, he implicitly proclaims equality between all these parties. The constituent rights of the Assembly are now inactive, but the constitutional race must begin at no very distant time, and the present era of good feeling will be used by all parties. The alarming feature of the situation seems to me to be this: the Imperial party, which seemed utterly defeated at Bordeaux, is no longer excluded from what I have called the constitutional race which is to come; public opinion is getting accustomed to consider the Bonapartist solution as a possible one. If we compare the Duc de Broglie to a starter, it is clear that, while he has his favorite horse, he will give the signal for all the jockeys when they are all well in line. The Bonapartists are only a small band in the Chamber, but the vote of the 26th May, which placed MacMahon and the Duc de Broglie in power, was only carried by fourteen votes; and though this majority, by the natural effect of victory, has now swollen to a hundred, the Bonapartists in the Assembly feel that they have had the fate of two administrations in their hands. Outside of the Chamber, the Bonapartists are very active; they have more than a hundred papers in the provinces, and eight in Paris. Many of the Bonapartists are mere Conservatives, who would be satisfied with any strong government; but there is a band of Bonapartists proper, who will have it that no government can be strong but the government of a Bonaparte; that only the Bonapartes can satisfy the love of order and the love of equality which are the two strongest instincts of the nation, and they add that only the Bonapartes can satisfy the Catholic clergy without being themselves clerical and without becoming the tools of Rome.

The Duc de Broglie, who always was an enemy of the Empire, is now trying to prove that a government can do as much as the Empire did for order, for the material prosperity of the country, for equality, and for the religion of the people, without destroying the public liberties. It is a difficult undertaking; as he is a sincere Catholic, he cannot do as much for religion as M. Jules Simon, who is an infidel. He was obliged a few days ago, in a discussion which took place in the Chamber about the construction of a church on the hill of Montmartre, to separate himself from the Extreme Right, which has strong clerical propensities. One man can steal a horse, while another cannot look over a hedge. The Duke, who is a leader of the liberal Catholic party, is constantly denounced by the Republican press as a clerical, a Jesuit; the German papers represent him as the head of a formidable conspiracy in favor of Rome against modern civilization. There is much injustice in such attacks; but as Figaro says in the comedy of Beaumarchais: "Calomniez, calomniez, il en restera toujours quelque chose"—an impression is created, and by degrees it permeates the public.

Clericalism has become the cry of the Republicans. They have found nothing better. They could not say that the parliamentary revolution of the 26th May was a *coup d'état;* they cannot attack the majority of the Chamber; they cannot speak even in the name of the Republic, as the Republic continues its official existence; they cannot accuse the Duc de

Broglie of conspiring—his character and his sincerity are too well known; they cannot say that he favors this or that pretender—he is known to be a friend of the Orléans, but he has solemnly said that he would not touch any constitutional questions, and would remain on the narrow ground where he has been placed by a coalition of Legitimists, Orleanists, and Bonapartists. His position is almost unassailable as long as he enjoys the confidence of the majority of the Chamber, and this majority seems now perfectly compact; but the accusation of clericalism is the weapon which has been discovered against the formidable power of MacMahon's government. "We are not clerical," said M. Batbie, the Minister of Public Instruction, a few days ago, "but we are religious"; and the organ of Gambetta retorted to him: "It is just the reverse; you are not religious, but you are clerical." One of the ministers, M. Ernoul, the Minister of Justice, is taunted daily for having once signed the address of a few deputies to the Pope—an address which expressed an adhesion to the doctrines of the Syllabus. To me, I must confess, the whole substance of the Cabinet, if I may say so, is in the Duc de Broglie, as he alone is in constant communication with Marshal MacMahon, and has more than the position of an English premier. The Duke comes from an Italian stock, and the *Broglios* have kept some Italian qualities. The present Duke is no fanatic, either in politics or in religion; he understands the necessities of the time; he is not vacillating, but he can yield, and I shall be surprised if he is not soon treated like an enemy by the Ultramontane party.

Notes.

PORTER & COATES, Philadelphia, announce Dean Stanley's 'Sermons' and 'Travels in the East'; 'Northern Lights,' tales translated from the Swedish and Finnish by Selma Borg and Marie A. Brown; 'Romain Kalbris,' from the French of Hector Malot, by Mrs. Julia McNair Wright; 'Floating Lights,' by R. M. Ballantyne; and 'Lord Chesterfield's Letters, Sentences, and Maxims.'——Dodd & Mead will publish 'Against the Stream,' by the author of the 'Schönberg-Cotta Family'; 'Crooked Places,' by Edward Garrett; 'Hester Morley's Promise,' by Hesba Stretton; and Dean Howson's 'Character of St. Paul.'

—We alluded, some weeks ago, to the completion of the last instalment of the catalogue of the Tosti Collection of engravings in the Boston Public Library. The several parts have now been brought together between two covers, though not under one alphabetical arrangement, and there is the still further drawback for ready reference that fully three-fifths of the brochure is devoted to the regular book-list of the Bulletin. These are, however, defects which can be remedied hereafter. The main thing—to have a complete and accurate record of the 6,500 prints given by Mr. Appleton to the Library—has been accomplished in the most praiseworthy manner, thanks mainly, we believe we may state, to the intelligent painstaking of Mr. James L. Whitney, whose name is almost a guaranty of laborious and cautious research. Comparing the Tosti catalogue with that made by Mr. Louis Thies for the Gray Collection at Harvard College (noticed at length in the *Nation* of Jan. 13, 1870), we find that the former is superior in two important respects: (1) it has an alphabetical index of painters and designers, and (2) it is supplied with cross-references under subjects. Comparing the two collections, we should say that they were defective in nearly the same way; for instance, very little of the English school of engravers appears in either. The Tosti Collection is stronger in portraits and in representatives of the Italian school. The two series will probably reinforce more than they will supplement each other. We must again express the hope that they will some day be united in the future art museum of Boston.

—We have received from Messrs. A. S. Barnes & Co. the prospectus of a new quarterly review to be called the *International Review*. It appears to have grown out of a projected periodical of a decidedly different character. "It first took shape," says the prospectus, "in the following address, which explains itself: We, the undersigned, believe that the time has come in our history as a people when there should be established a truly national Quarterly Review, to discuss with the best ability of our country the great questions of the age." This statement was signed by the late Chief-Justice Chase, the late Bishop McIlvaine, Justice Swayne, Dr. McCosh, Dr. Tyng, Dr. E. Irenæus Prime, Dr. Philip Schaff, Dr. Ray Palmer, and others, who added to their original declaration the declaration that in their opinion the scheme propounded by Prof. John M. Leavitt was a sound one, and that the quarterly should be established in accordance with it. But this scheme was afterwards greatly enlarged, and instead of a national, it was resolved to set on foot an international review. The aim of the proprietors now is "to secure the very best writers in the world," who shall treat of "all the great questions of our age and country, literary, scientific, social, national, and religious," but who shall "never assail the divine authority of the Scriptures or the supremacy of our Constitution over a united republic." The *International* "will not, like most quarterlies, address merely scholars and divines, but will furnish guidance and information in pleasing and copious forms to practical men in business and the professions. To the solidity of the quarterly it will strive to unite the sprightliness of the monthly, avoiding extremes of weariness and superficiality." The *International* will strive to be a representative of the Old World and the New—"to the maturity of the former uniting the energy of the latter." A good list of contributors is given as already secured. It includes the names of Mr. C. F. Adams, President Woolsey, President McCosh, Dr. Bushnell, Professor T. W. Dwight, President Porter, Dr. Peabody, General O. O. Howard, Professor Edwards Park of Andover, Dr. Mark Hopkins, Dr. F. Wharton of Cambridge, Dr. Howard Crosby of this city, and several other American gentlemen, while among the names of foreign contiibutors we see those of Stanley, Jevons, Carpenter, Froude, Thomas Hughes, Müller, Lightfoot, E. A. Freeman, Laboulaye, Pressensé, Père Hyacinthe, Dr. von Holtzendorff, Sig. De Gubernatis, and others. Ten of these gentlemen, seven Americans and three foreigners, are under promise to contribute to the first number, which will come out on the 1st of January next.

—A correspondent, who has given a great deal of attention to the subject of longevity in the United States, furnishes us, in addition to the examples of centenarians cited in our review of Thoms, the following, taken from the Rev. Geo. T. Chapman's 'Sketches of the Alumni of Dartmouth College' (Cambridge, 1867): Rev. John Sawyer, D.D., who graduated at Dartmouth in 1785, "was born at Hebron, Conn., October 9, 1755, and died at Bangor, Me., October 14, 1858," aged 103 years 5 days. Rev. Nathan Birdseye, who graduated at Yale in 1736, died January 28, 1818, aged 103 years 3 months 9 days. These cases, like our own, are from among a class of cultivated and conspicuous men, concerning whose age there would hardly seem to be room for mistake. For some very curious vital statistics of college graduates, our informant refers us to the March circular of the Bureau of Education, in which Dr. Charles Warren gives the result of his enquiries concerning 1,024 alumni of Harvard, Yale, Dartmouth, and the Wesleyan University in the quarter century 1836–1860.

—The *Times* of this city has, within a few days, published two interesting letters which, until then, had never seen the light. One was written by Washington and one by Jefferson. The former is as follows:

"HEAD QUARTERS, NEWBURGH, April 20th, 1782.

"GENTLEMEN:

"I have been favored with your Letter of the 16th of April by General Forman.

"Convinced, from the state of facts which has been exhibited to me, that justice, expediency and necessity require that satisfaction should be obtained for the Murder of Captain Huddy; I have in the first instance made a representation to Sir Henry Clinton, & demanded that the Officer who commanded the Party, or if he was not a Captain, such a number of the Agents in the execution as are equal by Tariff to that rank, should be delivered up to condign punishment. In case of refusal I have formed the resolution that Retaliation shall take place upon a British officer of equal Rank. It therefore remains with the Enemy alone to prevent this distressing alternative: for having formed my opinion upon the most mature reflection and deliberation, I can never recede from it.

"I have the honor to be
"Gentlemen
"Your Most Obedt. Servant,
"G°. WASHINGTON.

"The Honble. Majr. Gen. KNOX, & Go. MORRIS, Esqr."

Captain Huddy was an American officer who was besieged in a block-house near Monmouth by a party of regular troops and loyalists. He made an obstinate resistance, but was obliged to surrender, and the Tories appear to have persuaded the British commanding officer to let them hang their prisoner. The Jersey Whigs were greatly enraged at this act, and, indeed, nothing could be more bitter than the neighborhood war carried on between the local Whigs and Tories. Congress was petitioned, and with effect, as may be seen by Washington's letter. A certain number of British captains were compelled to draw lots to ascertain which of them should be hanged in retaliation for Huddy's murder, and the lot fell on a Captain Asgill, a youth of nineteen. Clinton was unable or unwilling to send the real offenders across our lines, and Asgill, although his death was long deferred, would doubtless have been executed as André was, if his mother, hearing of his danger, had not been sagacious enough to betake herself to Paris and beseech the intercession of the King and Queen of France. This was not refused, and as the requests of our ally were at that time potential, and as Washington was probably not inclined to obduracy in so hard a case, poor Huddy went unrevenged.

—In the other letter of which we have spoken Jefferson gives, with sufficient plainness, his opinion of M. Beaumarchais, the witty and versatile composer, dramatist, pamphleteer, and projector. Mr. Jefferson's note may be taken as his comment on a passage in one of the biographies of M. Beaumarchais: "Se lança dans les spéculations commerciales et déploya un tel génie en cette genre qu'en peu d'années il eut acquis une grande fortune; ce fût surtout lors de la guerre de l'indépendance des Etats-Unis qu'il s'enrichit en approvisionnant les Américains d'armes et de munitions." The following is Jefferson's letter, he being the Secretary of State; and Gouverneur Morris, to whom it is addressed, Minister to France:

"PHILADELPHIA, June 13th, 1793.

"DEAR SIR:

"It has long since been observed that of the three millions of livers given by the court of France to aid us in the commencement of our revolution, one million was unaccounted for by the hands into which it was paid. The date of the paiment is fixed to have been the 10th of June, 1776, but to whom it was paid has never been known. Suspicions are that it was to Beaumarchais; and that with this very money he purchased the supplies furnished us by him, for which large sums have been paid him already, and a further large sum is lately certified to be due to him as the balance of that account. I inclose you a letter from the Secretary of the Treasury on this subject, with all the papers relative to the same which his office can furnish; and as you are on the spot, I must beg the favor of you to make an immediate and thorough investigation of it. No reasons of state can now exist for covering the transaction longer under mystery.

"I have the honour to be with great and sincere esteem Dear Sir,

"Your most obedt. & most humble servt,

"TH: JEFFERSON.

"Mr. MORRIS."

When Beaumarchais's accounts were settled, the missing million of livres was deducted as never having been received, and his claim was cut down to that extent. His heirs demanded it, and the French Government urged their suit, the French ambassador being described by Hildreth as rudely pertinacious in pressing it. He maintained that Beaumarchais had not embezzled the missing million, though it was conceded that the money had been expended for other purposes than supplying munitions of war. It was a long time, however, before the claim was successful. In 1835, Congress satisfied it with $160,000, or four-fifths of the sum demanded.

—Letters from Washington and Jefferson also appear in the newly issued 'Proceedings of the Massachusetts Historical Society' (1871–73). Those from the former had been printed before. They were addressed to Lund Washington, the presumed kinsman of the General, and his agent for superintending his plantations. Jefferson's letter (inedited) bears date of Aug. 13, 1800, and was written to Gideon Granger, of Connecticut, formerly United States Postmaster-General. It discusses the prospect and necessity of a change from Federalism to Republicanism in New England, and takes the familiar Jeffersonian view of the dangers of centralization, or, as he expresses it, "of a common law being in force in the U. S." He says that upon the true theory of our Constitution, the General Government should be "reduced to foreign concerns only," and he concludes by hoping that time had been given the New England States "to recover from the temporary phrenzy into which they had been decoyed, *to rally round the Constitution*, and to rescue it from the destruction with which it had been threatened even at their own hands." This is an early, doubtless not the earliest, instance of the use of a phrase which had its greatest vogue fifty years later, in the mouths of Union-saving Whig orators and statesmen. The same volume of the 'Proceedings' contains a bibliography of the Society, by Dr. S. A. Green, Mr. Whitmore's papers (already mentioned in the *Nation*) on the origin of the names of Massachusetts towns, and a nearly fac-simile reprint of Captain John Smith's 'New England's Trials' (London, 1620), besides a large quantity of fragmentary matter of more or less permanent historical value.

—The question whether 'Mother Goose's Melodies' derived their English title from a Boston family named Vergoose is causing a good deal of excitement in antiquarian circles in that city. The affirmative was confidently maintained in an elaborate preface to the Riverside edition of the 'Melodies' (1870) on the strength of a statement made years ago by a gentleman now deceased, that he had seen in the library of the American Antiquarian Society at Worcester the title-page of Thomas Fleet's 'Songs for the Nursery, or Mother Goose's Melodies for Children' (Boston, 1719). The sole witness being dead, and the fragment not being known to the library at the present day, the call for proof has been met only with an appeal to family tradition. Mr. John Fleet Eliot represents both the family and the tradition. Fleet married the daughter of Elizabeth (Foster) Goose, and is supposed to have honored his mother-in-law by collecting her nursery lore and putting her name to it. Mr. Eliot is her great-great-grandson. He makes bold to conclude that "until a copy [of Mother Goose] of an earlier date than 1719 can be produced, the account given in Houghton's edition of 1870 must be considered correct." We can hardly think this conclusion justified, or that it will end the controversy, which has, by the way, been carried on in the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register* for April and July. The missing title-page, or the complete edition of Fleet, if it be really an *editio princeps*, would amply reward the discoverer.

—A week ago to-day Colonel James F. Meline died at his residence in Brooklyn. For some years past, Colonel Meline had devoted himself entirely to literary pursuits, writing for the *Catholic World*, for this journal, and for other periodical publications, but making himself best known by his strictures upon Mr. J. A. Froude's treatment of the case of Mary, Queen of Scots. Competent authorities everywhere pronounced this attack to be as damaging to Mr. Froude's reputation for accuracy and careful candor as any other that has ever assailed him; but it was warmed by a zeal and an indignation which were more manly and honest than they were perhaps judicious. This zealous little book had a good circulation in the United States, and some circulation in England. At an earlier date, in 1867, just at the beginning of this final literary period of his life, Colonel Meline published another book called 'Two Thousand Miles on Horseback,' which was received with a good degree of favor, as it well deserved. Portions of it were far above the level of the letters which correspondents usually send home to their newspapers, and it was as letters written to the Cincinnati *Commercial* that the 'Two Thousand Miles on Horseback' first saw the light. A chapter of that work is devoted to an acute enquiry as to whether the survivors of De Soto's men pushed on, under command of Luis de Moscoso, across Texas and into the desert Staked Plain—an enquiry here first made, all authorities having previously agreed that De Moscoso certainly got no further West than the eastern part of our Indian Territory. There are also in 'Two Thousand Miles on Horseback' one or two interesting chapters of the little-known early history of New Mexico. We believe these are his two most considerable works; but there should be added a brief abridged translation of a life of Sixtus V. and numerous essays, which, though not appearing in book-form, might well have been so published, in virtue of the research, unusual in our periodical literature, which underlay them, and the vigor with which they were expressed. This was sometimes to be called excessive, Colonel Meline being a good Catholic and his subjects often of a polemical character. Colonel Meline was born in the United States fort at Sackett's Harbor, his father having been a Federal officer. He was educated at the Catholic college of Mt. St. Mary, Emmettsburgh, Maryland, and afterwards was admitted to the bar. We think he practised law but little in the course of his life. During the war he was on General Pope's staff. In 1865, he made his Rocky Mountain trip. At the time of his death, Colonel Meline was about sixty years old.

—Evidence of the growing need in science of frequent public communication between workers is furnished by the recent action of the Geographical Society of Berlin. Heretofore its proceedings have regularly appeared at the end of its *Journal*, which is published every two months. Hereafter, beginning with July, they will make a separate publication (*Verhandlungen der Gesellschaft für Erdkunde zu Berlin*), to be issued as promptly as possible after the meeting of the Society. The *Verhandlungen* will retain the size and general typography of the *Zeitschrift*, to whose subscribers it will be furnished gratis; but it will have its own paging. No. 1, reporting the session of July 5, is rich in geographical news, the Russian commander against Khiva, General Kaufmann, furnishing a long communication on some of the scientific results of his expedition down to April 19. It is worthy of remark that the column which he was then directing was obliged to employ 6,700 camels, and that the column coming to meet him from Kazalinsk had 2,800 more. These figures are calculated to strike the Western imagination, accustomed to see the camel only in menageries and zoölogical gardens, or in pictures, in which the attempt is seldom made to depict a multitude. A letter from Dr. Nachtigal, from Kuka, relating the difficulties under which he labored for want of some promised funds; an account by Gerhard Rohlfs of the exploration of the Libyan Desert which he is to make next December, under the patronage of the Viceroy; and papers by Herr von Richthofen, Herr Euler, Herr Neumayer (on a new instrument for measuring deep-sea temperatures), together with geographical notices, complete this very interesting number of the *Verhandlungen*, which, as will be seen, makes a near approach to Petermann's *Mittheilungen* in point of freshness. Naturally, the *cadre* of this new publication is as yet imperfectly filled. For example, it is part of the design of its conductors to give abstracts of the proceedings of all the German geographical societies, so far as they may be obtainable.

LITERATURE AND DOGMA.*

IT has been objected to Mr. Arnold's book that no one can divine from it exactly what the author's theological opinions are; that while some of its readers look upon it as subversive of Christianity, others have found it in their own experience a bulwark of the distinctively Christian doctrines. The objection does not seem to us very well taken. One would say that only a very heedless, or a very prepossessed, or a very dull Evangelical reader could be able to go through Renan's 'Vie de Jésus' and at the end of the perusal say with enthusiasm that the book is one that should be placed in every Sunday-school library in the country. Yet we have known exactly that to be said. The lady who has found herself strengthened in her purpose of leading a righteous, godly, and sober life, and her conception of the character and mission of Christ vivified, by a perusal of Mr. Arnold's book, has no doubt made a good use of it and may justify herself by the book itself; but if very clear-headed, she would not for all that call Mr. Arnold a member of her particular church. We suspect that 'Literature and Dogma' will not be accepted by any Christian denomination, except perhaps the denominations called Liberal or Advanced Liberal, as adequate credentials for admitting Mr. Arnold to fellowship and full communion; and, as we have said, we do not see why anything contrary to this or otherwise than this need ever have been said.

The title of the book may perhaps be a little misleading, for it describes but ill the essential substance of the matter presented, which really is Mr. Arnold's view of what was the Jewish conception of God, what was Christ's conception of God, and of man's relation to God, including the relation in which he himself stands towards his Maker and his fellow. In other words, Mr. Arnold tells us in 'Literature and Dogma' what, in his opinion, Christians ought to think about Christ, and in telling them what he conceives to be their fundamental errors, he is plain enough to preclude the possibility of mistake as to his own attitude. But Mr. Arnold has long been the apostle of literary culture; and he has sometimes found that this apostleship has not always been without a certain flavor of martyrizing, whence, in part at least, it comes that the faith which is in him he holds with some aggressiveness and intolerance, and preaches to the Bishop of Gloucester and the Bishop of Winchester his doctrine of sweetness and light at great length and with a polished contemptuousness which perhaps we are to forgive in a semi-martyr. It must be irritating, we will not say to an apostle, but to a poet and a critic endowed with a large share of the poetic and critical power of vision, that when he has made a study of Celtic literature, for example, as Mr. Arnold has done, along comes some worthy and industrious gentleman and sneers because the poet and critic has written poetical criticism while confessedly he had not nearly as much learning in regard to the Brehon laws as the late Professor Eugene O'Curry had. So also, when one has written on the relation of St. Paul to modern dogmatic Calvinism, and is thereupon thrust aside by an Evangelical bishop or other theologian as a writer who has never studied systematic theology, and must therefore take the law in regard to St. Paul from the regular authorized formularies or some one of them—in such a case, which also has been Mr. Arnold's, it is natural to preach sweetness and light and the superiority of the literary spirit to the dogmatic spirit, with some degree of contempt and sarcasm for one's dogmatic opponents; and this Mr. Arnold has done in a degree which to most people will seem fatiguing. As some one has said, for the first thirty or forty times that the Bishops of Gloucester and Winchester are introduced as "wanting to do something for the honor of our Lord's Godhead," it is all rather amusing; they had given provocation, and it is agreeable enough to watch the whip flicking them neatly—a little grimace the while illuminating the features of the gentleman who handles it. But after eighty or ninety times it ceases to amuse; and, what is worse, the impression supervenes that, on the whole, the Bishops are not suffering the most in this operation. Still, we may excuse the iteration of this part of Mr. Arnold's work and his attaching so much importance to this excoriation. In this country, we have no very definite notion as to how much time and labor should be consumed in an assault on opinions backed by episcopal authority, nor how necessary and effective may be an operose expression of contempt for their theological abilities and conclusions. He succeeds at least in bringing clearly before the reader that he thinks the Bishops in error both as regards the object in view and the means by which they could hope to attain it.

Perhaps of no more consequence is Mr. Arnold's other ostensible reason for putting forth his book. He has two. One is his old and favorite one, just adverted to, and for his constantly insisting upon which acknowledgment is due to him. "And thus," he says, "we come back to our old remedy of culture." We must know the best that has been thought and known in the world; we must get the power through reading to estimate the true proportion and relation in what we read; and to do this we must read a great deal and be content to use but little of what we read; the *homo unius libri*, even though his one book were the Bible, almost necessarily reads that one book wrong. Take, for instance, the case of Hooker's 'Ecclesiastical Polity.' Canon Liddon, looking about him for authorities to sustain the Athanasian Creed, finds "the great Hooker" commending it, and accordingly cites him as authority. Yet what is the fact? Hooker is "great" in virtue of his having signally, and above others or before others, and when others had it not, the sense in religion of *history*, of historic development; he gives the true method of criticism for church dogma, the historic method. Church dogmas, says Hooker, are not to be found written in the Scripture in black and white; they are to be deduced or collected from it; or, as we now say, they are a development from it; and the one right criterion he points out for determining whether or not a dogma is scriptural is reason. And surely this is enough for us to expect a sixteenth-century divine to say without expecting him to go aside from his purpose of establishing the true historical method of criticism and take up a side issue with which he had nothing to do. He was establishing the method of judging creeds; he was not passing judgment on them. Therefore Hooker is no real authority in favor of the Athanasian Creed, and "the great Hooker" should not be cited as such: "We might think he was if we read him without discrimination, and to read him with discrimination culture is necessary." So too of the Bible. It is to be read in the light of literary culture, in the light of the best that has been thought and known. All of this well-known theory of culture Mr. Arnold urges forcibly and acutely, and it is not the least interesting part of the book.

Secondly, when we come to enumerate reasons why 'Literature and Dogma' now appears, it appears because among the workingmen of England scepticism in regard to the theological religion which is preached to them has become very widespread; they want to know, not to "believe." "The lapsed masses" some writers call the majority of the lower classes in England. They begin to follow teachers who tell them that the Bible is an exploded superstition. It is not men like Professor Huxley or like the late Mr. Maurice that they follow when the churches lose hold of them, but atheists and men like Mr. Bradlaugh; and all this rejection of the Bible happens despite the efforts of the churches. It will go on happening, for the churches seek to re-enthrone the Bible as explained by our current theology, and to do that is as impossible as to restore the belief in witches or the supremacy of the feudal system. If now these masses which "ask for the reason and authority of things" are to have a belief in Biblical religion, the problem before the churches and other popular teachers is "to find for the Bible a basis in something which can be verified." Thus, then, we come to the real business of Mr. Arnold's book, which—whether or not it duly exalts the gospel of culture, and whether or not it is likely to construct for the English workingman a religion which he and Mr. Bradlaugh will accept—will give us what Mr. Arnold thinks of the Christian religion and its Judaic predecessor.

In brief, then, the Hebrew race, says Mr. Arnold, had a talent or genius for righteousness, for religion, as the Greeks had for art. The master-word of the Old Testament is righteousness, right-doing—conduct, in short. But "conduct" we are to think of as the word of common life (to which "morality" corresponds as the term of philosophical disquisition), and "righteousness" we are to think of as the word of religion, the true meaning of religion being not morality merely, but morality touched by emotion; and this new elevation and inspiration of morality is well marked by the term "righteousness." And as this word righteousness is the burden of the Old Testament, so it is of the New, the difference being that the New Testament teaches how righteousness may be reached by a particular means—the power, however that word is to be understood, of Christ. Of the Old Testament we may take for a characteristic text: "O ye that love the Eternal, see that ye hate the thing that is evil! To him that ordereth his conversation aright shall be shown the salvation of God." And of the New Testament a characteristic text is this: "Let every one that nameth the name of Christ depart from iniquity." The two are the same. Our use of Mr. Arnold's version of the Old Testament text, and the substitution of "the Eternal" for "the Lord," brings us to his notion of Israel's conception of "God"—a term which, he warns us, is excessively difficult of definition, ready as definers have been to give it a determinate meaning and employ it in combinations as if it were a symbol whose value is exactly known. To Israel, he says, "God" was the Eternal something, not ourselves, whose power we recognize as not derived from us, and which, as we see and feel, makes for righteousness. "The Eternal not ourselves that makes for righteousness," that was the Hebrew's idea of God. He was not the "Eternal Cause"; "these poor people were not Archbishops of York"; they had

* 'Literature and Dogma. By Matthew Arnold.' Boston: James R. Osgood & Co. 1873.

not metaphysical heads; but they had the passion of righteousness; they had not only the clear perception that right-doing was well, but they had the habitual yearning after right-doing which belonged to them in a higher degree than to any other race of men, and to them God, the great "I am," was the Eternal something, not themselves, which makes for righteousness: "Thou art my portion, O God, at midnight will I rise to give thanks unto thee": "God" is here really at bottom only a deeply moved way of saying "conduct" or "righteousness." But "man never knows," says Goethe, "how anthropomorphic he is;" and Israel, orator and poet, using the language of oratory and poetry, doubtless personified the Deity, and spoke almost from the first of the Eternal as performing personal acts. Nay, in process of time the Eternal became for the mass of the Hebrews a mere magnified and non-natural man to be ceremoniously served. Prophets and religious men often tried in vain to bring back their brethren to the true apprehension of their God as the Eternal which makes for righteousness, but they tried in vain. Those courses of conduct which Israel's intuition of God had originally touched with emotion and made religion lay chiefly in the line of national and social duties; and these duties are peculiarly capable of a heartless, mechanical, and exterior performance. The misfortunes and vicissitudes of their varying history modified somewhat their ideals, but as to the main thing, as to the apprehension of conduct as religion, and of God as the eternal stream of tendency flowing toward and with the good, this Israel had mostly lost when Christ appeared—Christ, whose central object of concern, goodness, was what had been the central object of Israel's concern also. It was Christ's self-imposed task, it is his title to reverence, that he should seek to restore and to vivify this conception of God. He gave anew the old religion.

The rest of the volume is devoted to showing that popular Christianity has not been the unadulterated doctrine of holiness insisted upon by Christ when he rose up to show how every jot and tittle of the old law should be fulfilled by his followers, but that in place of this teaching we have had the misreporting of unqualified observers of Christ while he went about teaching; the corruptions of tradition; the ineptness of the "popular science" of Christ's mission and work (the Apostles' Creed); the metaphysical acuteness and unreason of the "learned science" of the same subject (the Athanasian Creed); the narrow, if eager and conscientious insistence of Dissent, and the misleading, if less narrow conservative traditionalism of Catholicism. And then, with a candor and courage which, as we at least read the book, does him honor; with a substantial respectfulness and religiousness which show him the true son of his father, if with a too frequent superficial flippancy and seeming irreverence; in the cool, not to say complacent exercise of the genuine Protestant "right of private judgment," which has given to this disquisition great freshness, Mr. Arnold offers us, in place of all this churchly error, in place of the nineteen-century-old beliefs, his own conclusions in regard to the Bible and its principal personage.

PROTECTION AGAINST FIRE.*

FOR five or six years an almost continuous discussion has been going on in the press, in committee-meetings, in boards of underwriters, and in thousands of private families, as to the proper means of preventing the spread of fire in large cities. There has certainly been reason enough for the discussion, since within this period, to say nothing of human lives, many hundreds of millions' worth of property have been destroyed, and most of this destruction has, by common consent, been needless. When we add together the losses of Portland, Chicago, and Boston, we find that the devastation has been as great as would have been caused by a war of no inconsiderable magnitude; and in view of these successive calamities, it is difficult to avoid the belief that to them is due a great deal of the depression in business which we are prone to attribute exclusively to farmers' movements and railroad inflation or government financial mismanagement. This discussion about the prevention of fire is of value, not only for the sake of the practical results to which it must lead, but also as illustrating the utility of popular discussion itself as a means of producing in the public mind a generally sensible conclusion, which may serve as the rational motive power of future reforms. The hearings before the city government of Boston, and the action of the underwriters since the second Boston fire, show that whatever may be true of the average voter or the average alderman, the average property-holder continues to prove himself to be the same cautious and intelligent person with regard to his own interests that he has been since the institution of private property began. This is an encouraging sign; for, as we have often pointed out in these columns, the reforms, both political and social, of which the country now stands most in need are of such a kind that most of them must be introduced by the property-holding class.

The Portland fire did not attract much intelligent attention, though it did in New England attract a great deal of sympathy. The public did not then suspect that there was anything ominous in it, and devoted all their energies to relieving the distress of the inhabitants. The Chicago fire had a quite different effect. It not only attracted public sympathy and attention, but it caused public amazement. The wildest fancies were circulated as to the origin, and the most ridiculous stories told as to the performances of the flames. The fire was attributed to the "electrical condition of the atmosphere," or more generally still to the "state of the air." It was said to have been seen to "leap half a mile at a time in the air," and to have been driven of its own motion against the wind. It was said to have destroyed solid blocks of pavement, when there was no draught to make such a thing possible. To reconcile these strange stories (which carry one back to the wonderful tales we used to hear of military manœuvres in the early days of the war), it was only necessary for the heated imagination of the public to conjure up the mysterious agent of destruction known as the Fire-Fiend, whose metaphysical existence serves to smooth away all difficulties in the path of rational explanation. If, to use the phrase then common, the Fire-Fiend was really "stalking abroad in our midst," human effort, either to understand or prevent fires, could obviously be of little avail.

The Fire-Fiend period, however, did not last very long. The general ruin of insurance companies was of itself enough to make evident the necessity of some rational investigation into the origin of the Chicago fire, and though the official enquiry made by the city amounted to little or nothing, the unofficial enquiries, conducted by private persons and by experts interested in the subject of fire-prevention, resulted in a good deal: it was discovered that Chicago was badly built, that the fire-service was badly managed, and that the fire was to be attributed to a general recklessness pervading the community. Chicago was a Western city, however, and every one knew that the West was the home of haste and recklessness; so at first few inferences were drawn from the fire there as to the danger hanging over other places. Some few people, however, knowing that the condition of Chicago in some respects represented the condition of many Eastern cities, did draw some inferences not very favorable to the safety of the latter, and one gentleman who knew the subject thoroughly went so far as to predict that the city of Boston, or rather the crowded portion of it, would burn down just as Chicago had burnt down, if circumstances should prove favorable. Circumstances did, as every one knows, prove favorable, and almost in a single night the richest and in appearance the most substantial part of Boston was destroyed. This time less was heard about the Fire-Fiend, and more about Mansard roofs, crooked streets, and a badly-managed fire-department. It became evident to most people that the fancied security of Eastern cities was a sham, and that unless something was done, we should soon lose even the poor satisfaction of being insured at low rates by insolvent insurance companies. Nevertheless, it required one more fire in Boston to arouse people to the real magnitude of the danger. Since the last fire, there has been more intelligent discussion of the means of preventing and extinguishing fires than at any previous time, and it is possible now to sum up in a general way the conclusions to which the discussion points.

In the first place, it is no longer doubted by anybody, either insurer or insured, that the fundamental cause of all these disastrous conflagrations, whether the form in which it exhibits itself be the erection of "Mansard" roofs, or the insufficient supply of "steamers," or the blockade in the streets, or the ridiculous rates of insurance, is one and the same, and is that general want of system and plan, that want of organized responsibility, which is the crying evil of the times, and which shows itself in the civil service at home and in the diplomatic service abroad, in the State governments and in the General Government, in small villages and in great cities, in families, churches, and trust companies, as well as in custom-houses or post-offices. It is only necessary to read a single Boston newspaper to see that the main object of the underwriters in petitioning the city government for reform in this matter is to secure a system which shall make the fire-service in that city a really responsible fire-service, with a single head and efficient discipline throughout all its divisions. The testimony of the gentlemen who have been appearing before the city officials on this subject, as well as all the more recent writing in the press, is in refreshing contrast to the swash of sympathetic drivel and the mad screams of panic which seemed at first to be the only result of the Portland and the Chicago fires.

The subject of fire-prevention is one which will probably continue to attract a good deal of attention from the American public for some time to come, and as it is now a practical question in Boston, it is worth while to

* Protection against Fire, and the Best Means of Putting out Fires in Cities, Towns, and Villages, with Practical Suggestions for the Security of Life and Property. By Joseph Bird.' New York: Hurd & Houghton. Cambridge: The Riverside Press. 1873.

notice a singular fact in connection with it of which all fire-reformers ought to take heed. For a generation or more, it has been popularly customary to suppose that the improvements in fire-prevention were to be of one kind only—the manufacture of larger and more powerful engines—engines which can throw large streams of water to enormous heights. Every year or two there have been in all large towns and cities exhibitions of skill in this branch of the fire-service, until it has come to be supposed that any city possessing engines which can throw a stream of water on the tops of its highest buildings is practically safe. So far, however, is this from being the case that the most important improvements of late years in the fire-service have been made in quite a different direction—that of securing an immediate rather than a large supply of water. Of course there must be at hand a water-supply of great capacity, but by the experience of the London Fire Department and of private experimenters on this side of the water, it has been shown that speed is the great source of safety. The large, gaudily painted, and shining steamers which we have been in the habit of priding ourselves upon necessarily arrive on the ground considerably after the beginning of the fire; in the interval, the fire has ample time to gain headway, and being protected in a great measure from the water by the walls and floors, very soon has everything its own way. The building in which the fire begins is usually a complete ruin, and the department is considered to have done wonders if it prevents the spread of the flames to the adjoining structures.

Mr. Bird, however, proves by ample citations from the best authorities on the subject (and he has carefully tested all the advice he gives by thorough experimentation), that half the destruction, if not more, now caused by the delay of the steamers in arriving on the scene of action might be prevented, if only there were within easy reach a few buckets of water, or, better still, a small hand-pump, and a hatchet to cut away woodwork which may protect the flames; and he proves almost to a demonstration that the great Boston fire of last November might have been wholly prevented if the Boston Fire Department had been in the hands of a man who knew this simple fact, or, knowing it, acted upon it. It is unnecessary to go into details, but any one can see that it is much easier to have on the premises or to get to the premises a small hand-pump than to bring into action a large piece of machinery which consists of two different vehicles, and is worked by two horses and several men. A thousand accidents may prevent the arrival of the "machine," and after it has arrived, it may be of little or no use; but it is always easy enough to have Mr. Bird's apparatus (which he thinks, by the way, better than patent extinguishers) in instant use.

In short, Mr. Bird, in his interesting essay, shows that the time has come when, if we wish to save ourselves from a general conflagration, we may as well begin to learn what other countries have done in the way of fire-prevention, and act upon it. His exposure of the management of the Boston Fire Department is complete, and ought to give a quietus to Mr. Damrell's political aspirations. His style, however, is bad, and we fear will do something to spoil the effect of his advice. We may add in conclusion that it was Mr. Bird himself who foretold, from his knowledge of the condition of the Fire Department, and the careless manner in which buildings had been put up, the extreme probability of just such a conflagration as that of last year.

The Tour of the World in Eighty Days. By Jules Verne. (Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 1873.)—M. Adrien Marx, a friend of M. Verne's, sums up that gentleman's character by saying that "his biography may be included in these words, 'a Breton, a Catholic, and a sailor.'" We doubt, however, if a biography written in greater detail would not convey a juster notion of M. Verne's peculiar qualities. For instance, it probably was neither as a Breton, a Catholic, nor a sailor that M. Verne constructed his narrative of events occurring in December last on the Pacific Railroad, at a point near Fort Kearney:

"The door of the next car opened, and Colonel Proctor appeared on the platform, attended by a Yankee of his own stamp as his second. But just as the combatants were about to step from the train, the conductor hurried up, and shouted 'You can't get off, gentlemen!'

"'Why not?' asked the Colonel.

"'We are twenty minutes late, and we shall not stop.'

"'But I am going to fight a duel with this gentleman.'

"'I am sorry,' said the conductor, 'but we shall be off at once. There's the bell ringing now.'

"The train started.

"'I'm really very sorry, gentlemen,' said the conductor. 'Under any other circumstances, I should have been happy to oblige you. But, after all, as you have not had time to fight here, why not fight as we go along?'

"'That wouldn't be convenient, perhaps, for this gentleman,' said the Colonel, in a jeering tone.

"'It would be perfectly so,' replied Phileas Fogg.

"'Well, we are really in America,' thought Passepartout, 'and the conductor is a gentleman of the first order.'

"So muttering, he followed his master.

"The two combatants, their seconds, and the conductor passed through the cars to the rear of the train. The last car was only occupied by a dozen passengers, whom the conductor politely asked if they would not be so kind as to leave it vacant for a few moments, as two gentlemen had an affair of honor to settle. The passengers granted the request with alacrity, and straightway disappeared on the platform.

"The car, which was some fifty feet long, was very convenient for their purpose. The adversaries might march on each other in the aisle, and fire at their ease. Never was duel more easily arranged. Mr. Fogg and Colonel Proctor, each provided with two six-barrelled revolvers, entered the car. The seconds, remaining outside, shut them in. They were to begin firing at the first whistle of the locomotive. After an interval of two minutes, what remained of the two gentlemen would be taken from the car."

Before shots have been exchanged, however, this affair is stopped, for a party of Sioux Indians attack the train, jumping upon it, as is their custom, while it is going at full speed, some of them skipping about the roofs of the cars like monkeys and pistolling the passengers, while others throw the baggage out on the roadside. As for the head chief, he takes charge of the engine, which he runs at double the regular rate so that it may pass Fort Kearney too rapidly to permit of interference by the United States garrison. This, however, is not the most remarkable thing that happens to "Train No. 42." Just before reaching a station called Medicine Bow, it came to a dead stop, the station-master at that point having sent on a signalman to say that the suspension bridge over the rapids was shaky, and would not bear the weight of the train. At this the passengers pour out, swearing at the delay, our friend Colonel Stamp Proctor, of course, making himself very conspicuous. There is much grumbling and wrangling, till at last "the engineer, a true Yankee," suggests a plan which he has known to be successful in other instances:

"'Gentlemen, perhaps there is a way, after all, to get over.'

"'On the bridge?' asked a passenger.

"'On the bridge.'

"'With our train?'

"'With our train.'

"Passepartout stopped short, and eagerly listened to the engineer.

"'But the bridge is unsafe,' urged the conductor.

"'No matter,' replied Forster; 'I think that by putting on the very highest speed we might have a chance of getting over.'

"'The devil!' muttered Passepartout.

"But a number of the passengers were at once attracted by the engineer's proposal, and Colonel Proctor was especially delighted, and found the plan a very feasible one. He told stories about engineers leaping their trains over rivers without bridges by putting on full steam; and many of those present avowed themselves of the engineer's mind.

"'We have fifty chances out of a hundred of getting over,' said one.

"'Eighty! ninety!'

"Passepartout was astounded."

The engineer's advice is acted upon, and proves to be the best that could have been given under the circumstances: "And they passed over. It was like a flash. No one saw the bridge. The train leaped, so to speak, from one bank to the other, and the engineer could not stop it till it had gone five miles beyond the station. But scarcely had the train passed the river when the bridge, already dilapidated, fell with a crash into the rapids of Medicine Bow." There is an American joke which treats of a frightened Poor White who is making his first railroad trip; by-and-by the train crosses a river, and the Poor White, looking out of the window and seeing no track, suddenly shuts his eyes tight and braces his feet, grasps the back of the seat in front of him, and in a minute enquires of his seat-mate, "Stranger, has she lit?" This, perhaps, is the American original of which M. Verne's tale appears to be the Breton, Catholic, and seafaring form.

But M. Verne, whatever he is, has succeeded in making the liveliest book of the summer. It is very laughable and readable, and nothing need be cleverer in its way than this little extravaganza. Mr. Phileas Fogg abovementioned is an Englishman who, when at home, lives a bachelor life at No. 7 Saville Row, Burlington Gardens, London. He has no relatives; he apparently has no business, although he is wealthy; he has no friends, but daily he plays whist at the Reform Club with three acquaintances and fellow-clubmen. Everything that he does is done with mathematical accuracy. On the day on which we are introduced to him, the 2d of October, 1872, he has just dismissed James Forster, his valet, because James "brought him shaving water at 84 degrees Fahrenheit instead of 86," and he is now awaiting the arrival of M. Passepartout, young Forster's successor. Mr. Fogg is, in short, the Englishman whom we have learned to know in such books as are written in France by good-natured satirists born in that land. That personage is impassible; he has fixed ideas; he is eccentric; he is at the same time the most methodical of creatures; he is entirely destitute of imagination; when his resources are exhausted, he settles his affairs, and coldly cuts his throat. One day Mr. Fogg listens at his Club to a discussion on the feasibility of a certain thief's getting away safely with fifty-five thousand pounds which he has stolen from the Bank of England, and with

which he has fled the country. Mr. Fogg asserts that the thief may escape, the means of flight are so numerous and rapid, and, incidentally, he remarks that he himself would undertake to go round the world in exactly eighty days. Twenty thousand pounds he offers to bet that he can do this, and, his money being covered, he and his new valet set out on a most remarkable and diversified journey, accompanied for most of the way by a detective, who is convinced that in the so-called Phileas Fogg he has no less a person than our Bank of England robber. We can assure the reader that he can hardly fail to find amusement in this tangle of impossibilities; and if he is above being amused by the chapter of accidents unfolded, why, M. Verne's Americans and Englishmen deserve careful study and encouragement, to say nothing of the real cleverness in imparting information which M. Verne shows whenever he chooses. Take, for example, the serious part of his brief account of the various Pacific railroads. Another book of his, not so good as this, so far as the adult reader is concerned, but which must be fascinating to a boy, and which is not without instructiveness either, is a big illustrated volume called 'In Search of the Castaways.' It is a trifle shaky on the subject of the British peerage and baronetage, perhaps, and one or two other subjects, as the relation of the Scottish nation to the English; but the mystery of Sir Brown and Lord Sir Arthur Wellington is unsolvable by the Celtic mind; and what few shortcomings the story has are swallowed up and lost in a world of merits.

The Harz Mountains: A Tour in the Toy Country. By Henry Blackburn. With forty illustrations. (London: Sampson Low & Co. 1873.)—In this volume Mr. Blackburn proves himself not only a very agreeable companion, but a guide to unfrequented places of rare beauty and interest. Unfrequented, we mean, by English and American tourists as yet; already the "Toy Country" is a favorite resort of the North Germans, and is every year becoming more accessible by rail. Our author at first seems to differ with the guide-books as to the attractiveness of this region, and he so far makes out a case against them that the reader is a little surprised at the close to find him discouraging others from following in his footsteps. That is to say, he warns the traveller that it is not worth while to get a glimpse of the Harz Mountains, or even to ascend the Brocken, under forfeiture of a visit to Switzerland or to the Alps of Southern Germany. This is reasonable enough, and will doubtless be heeded by those whom it concerns. The less hurried class of pleasure-seekers can well afford to yield to the temptation which Mr. Blackburn's pen and pencil constantly hold out to them. The fine old city of Goslar it would almost be an offence to pass by, after his inviting description of it. As a fossil specimen of a mediæval city, it apparently deserves to be ranked with Rothenburg in Bavaria, also an out-of-the-way and neglected curiosity, but still less modernized. In the rural districts, our author is equally felicitous in reporting what he sees, as the following extracts will show. He is speaking of Harzburg:

"It is evening when we stroll up the valley, and the peasants are returning from the mountains; cattle, sheep, pigs, goats, and geese line the roads, and the people all stop to stare as usual. We have only been in the mountains a few days, but these figures and the lines of fir-trees above our heads seem strangely familiar. Where have we seen these grave peasants in long coats, these wooden-faced women with baskets on their backs, these spotted cows, flat-sided pigs, and uniform geese? Where these formal-looking houses, rows of stiff-looking trees, white staring dogs, and grave, fat-faced children? It is the child's box of German toys, suddenly opened and turned out before us. . . . "

"We have called the Harz Mountains the 'Toy Country' of Northern Germany, because it is suggestive at every turn of toys and children. Every mountain we shall ascend is covered with rows of those stiff-looking trees which are carved in wood by children in the Black Forest and the towns of Germany. Every hillside is a plantation, hence their formality; and there are complete forests of fir-trees of all sizes, according to the year of growth. The effect is curious on a mountain walk, when, after threading a pathway with Lilliput footsteps, through a forest of enormous pines, you suddenly come to a nursery of little trees, a miniature forest, on which you look down like Brobdignag, and step at one stride over a mountainette covered with a hundred trees; and so on through the entire tour of the Harz."

A sketch (p. 80) of the house on the summit of the Brocken cleverly conveys the illusion of a stranded Noah's ark, to which it is likened in the text. "There is the host with his three sons coming out to meet us; the people walking two-and-two; the horses, sheep, pigs, and goats all stowed away at the great side doors."

Looking down upon Blankenburg we observe that "its central point of interest is the church spire, with its cluster of houses spreading upwards in graceful curves, like some delicate creeper, to the protecting walls of the castle, with its massive walls and terraces, fringed with trees." And this is the farewell view of Grund—"a characteristic picture, that we shall not have seen equalled for pastoral beauty in all the Harz":

"In a deep cleft in the mountain-side a stream descends, winding in and out between overhanging trees, now disappearing in some crevice, now descending almost perpendicularly, now spreading out right and left, but ever following the form and structure of the mountain down which it pours. It is a stream of red-tiled cottages, with dark gables, sheltering atoms of human life—a mountain village, as bright and glittering as a stream of water winding through green pastures, between gray rocks and waving trees."

We ought to mention, besides the handsome print and partly picturesque, partly humorous illustrations, two very sweet German airs, which every purchaser of the book will thank Mr. Blackburn for inserting.

Queen Loo, and Other Poems. By Gay Narramore. (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1873.)—The woman question appears to have taken up a great deal of Mr. Narramore's time—say, thirty-nine eighty-seconds of it. The volume before us is of a very miscellaneous character as regards subject-matter, but nearly one-half of it is occupied wholly with the great question of our age. It is a question towards which Mr. Narramore is in an attitude of conservatism; if, indeed, it would not be more correct to describe him as being in the posture of assault whenever he hears it mentioned, or rather in the act of overt attack. Still he knows how to be liberal and make due concessions. "God bless them all," he says in one place.

> . . . "As mothers
> They are equalled by no others."

And again he says:

> "As the sweetheart she is fine."

But he perceives that after all woman's true sphere is the home, and that modesty and maternity are her chief duties and her highest praise. The women of old Assyrian times, for instance, meet his views very well; they were more like lotus flowers than the women of our day, and less like noisy fighting-cocks:

> "Quiet grew they, not like chicken-sons,
> Woodhull-Claflins, nor yet Dickinsons!"

He can find no language too severe to express his feelings concerning this latter variety of women, who wish to vote:

> "The curled darlings, for whose pleasure
> Men do sacrifice all leisure,
> Wearing out their lives in toil
> That no vulgar care shall soil
> The delicate whiteness of their hands;
> *They* must war against love's bands!
> With their thin voice, cracked with spites,
> They must needs shout 'Equal Rights';
> They, too, have some waxen pinions,
> They would soar to the sun's dominions."

Singular as it may appear, the writer of this sort of matter has, nevertheless, in a few instances made an approach towards poetry. For example, the half-dozen or so of pages following page 56 may be said to contain a poetical thought or two expressed in a poetical way, and reading on after a very unpromising beginning we found ourselves on the whole rewarded. Mr. Narramore's unusual soundness on the main question made us desirous of saying more than this; but candor compels us to admit that we were not a little surprised at being able conscientiously to say so much.

Waubun: the Early Day in the Northwest. By Mrs. John H. Kinzie, of Chicago. "If we but knew the exact meaning of the word 'WAU-BUN,' we should be happy"—*Critic.* "WAU-BUN—the dawn—the break of day"—*Ojibeway Vocabulary.* (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1873. 12mo, pp. 390.)—Reminiscences of early times, if genuine, are always welcome and instructive, however dull and out of taste they may be; much more so when, as in this case, they are at once modest and sprightly, written in a good and agreeable style, and relating to subjects of the first importance in their way. The writer was the newly married wife of an Indian agent, stationed at Fort Winnebago from 1830 to 1833—the period of the Black Hawk War; and among the adventures narrated is a winter journey to Chicago. The sufferings of the perilous journey are graphically described—the party lost its way, and was in imminent danger of starvation or death by exposure. The description of Chicago, as she saw it in its infancy, will be interesting to all those who know anything of the localities; so will the digression upon the early fortunes of "Fort Dearborn," with the Indian massacre of 1812. As may be expected, the book contains many interesting bits of Indian manners and customs, with some entertaining anecdotes; and it is worthy of note that Mrs. Kinzie is far from severe upon her red friends, among whom she appears to have faithfully endeavored to deserve the title of mother which her official position gave her. In the account of one of her Indian acquaintances, a noble Winnebago woman, who had married a Fox Indian, she goes on: "According to the custom among all the tribes, the husband came home to his wife's family and lived among the Winnebagoes. It is this custom, so exactly the reverse of civilized ways, that makes the birth of a daughter a subject of peculiar rejoicing in an Indian family. 'She will bring another hunter to our lodge,' is the style of mutual congratula

tion" (p. 269). An incident in paying off the Indians: "Each one brings his little bundle of sticks, and presents it to the agent to register. Sometimes a dialogue like the following occurs: 'How many have you in your lodge?' The Indian carefully, and with great ceremony, counts his bundle of sticks—'Fifteen.' 'How many men?' 'Two.' The agent lays aside two sticks. 'How many women?' 'Three.' Three more sticks are separated. 'How many children?' 'Eight.' Eight sticks are added to the heap. 'What is the meaning of these two sticks that remain?' The culprit, whose arithmetic has not served him to carry out his deception, disappears amid the shouts and jeers of his companions, who are always well pleased at the detection of any roguery in which they have had no share." In view of the recent enquiries into alleged cases of longevity, the appendix, which exposes the fraud of Joseph Crévy, who pretended to be 139, has a certain value. It is a fault in the book, although a slight one, that it begins abruptly with the account of a journey from Detroit to Fort Winnebago, and the reader is left to find out for himself, as best he can, the object of the journey and the relations of the parties.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*	
Ackermann (Prof. Dr.), Die Ursachen epidemischer Krankheiten, swd.	(L. W. Schmidt)	
Blackburn (H.), The Harz Mountains	(Sampson Low & Co.)	
Claus (Prof. C.), Der Bienenstaat, swd.	(L. W. Schmidt)	
Crisenoy (M. de), Our Naval School and Naval Officers	(D. Van Nostrand)	
Dupuy (Miss E. A.), The Gipsy's Warning	(T. B. Peterson & Bros.)	$1 75
Dumas (A.), Diana of Meridor, swd.	" "	1 00
Eck (Dr. E.), Die neue deutsche Civilprozess-Ordnung, swd.	(L. W. Schmidt)	
Forney (J. W.), Anecdotes of Public Men.	(Harper & Bros.)	
Grapf (A.), An Elementary German Grammar	(L. W. Schmidt)	
Hadley (Prof. J.), Introduction to Roman Law	(D. Appleton & Co.)	
Hill (Rev. W. H.), Elements of Philosophy, 2d ed.	(John Murphy & Co.)	1 50
Hochstetter (Prof. F. von) Ueber den Ural, swd.	(L. W. Schmidt)	
Huber (Dr. J.), Der Jesuiten-Orden, swd.	" "	
Justi (Prof. F.), Ein Tag aus dem Leben des Königs Darius, swd.	" "	
Kugler (Prof. B.), Wallenstein, swd.	" "	
Louage (A.), A History of Greek and Roman Classical Literature	(D. Appleton & Co.)	
Loyal unto Death: a Tale	(G. W. Carleton & Co.)	
Masson (Prof. D.), Life of John Milton, Vol. III.	(Macmillan & Co.)	6 00
Oncken (Dr. W.), Das deutsche Reich im Jahre 1872, swd.	(L. W. Schmidt)	
Roget (P. M.), Thesaurus of English Words and Phrases, new ed.	(Gould & Lincoln)	
Stephens (C. A.), Lynx Hunting	(J. R. Osgood & Co.)	

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AN EXPERIENCED TEACHER, a student at Prof. Agassiz's Summer School, and graduate of a New England College, desires a position as teacher of Zoölogy and allied sciences. Address Box 44, *Nation* office.

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DAUGHTERS' COLLEGE, Harrodsburg, Ky., will be ready for the reception of ladies on or before the 15th of September next. Rooms should be engaged at once, as the number admitted will be limited. We desire to receive only those who have the time and inclination to attain to a higher standard of culture and knowledge than is usual for girls. For course of study, terms, and other particulars, address, JNO. AUG. WILLIAMS, President.

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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

AUGUST 18, 1873.

THE past week has been marked by extreme dulness, and great caution exercised by dealers in stocks. The market has had a downward tendency, which, but for the support given to the so-called Vanderbilt stocks, would have speedily drifted into a "weak panic." As it was, many holders threw their stocks overboard at once, and perhaps acted wisely in so doing. Great fears are entertained as to the operations of the bull pool in gold. Where bulls and bears are equally matched in pecuniary force, the battle must always be won by the former, and as the object of the gold pool, as evinced by their frequent raids on the stock market, is to advance gold and depress stocks, it is only reasonable to suppose that whilst the influence is felt, the stock market will meet little support outside of the combinations now sustaining it.

The Treasury balances at the close of business in Washington for the week were—currency, $10,330,000; coin, $83,000,000; besides $43,500,000 of coin certificates. The internal revenue receipts were $467,268. The exports of specie for the week were $496,762, being a total since January 1 of $38,329,272, against $55,319,499 during the corresponding period of 1872. The total exports of domestic produce for the week ending Tuesday last were $5,276,814, and since January $173,268,934.

Money continues extremely easy on call. During the early part of Saturday, the rate was advanced to 3 and 3½ per cent., but capital at once came in, and the rate dropped to 2½ to 3 per cent., although 5 per cent. was charged when the collateral was gold. In commercial paper, short dates have mostly been absorbed, and that on hand being five to six months, is not readily taken by money-lenders, who are hoping for a renewal of last year's stringency.

The weekly statement of the associated banks was not favorable, showing a decrease in the reserve of $3,071,450, leaving an excess over the legal requirement of $9,664,200, as against $12,735,650 August 9. The banks lost $2,175,900 in specie, and $1,462,200 in legal tenders, while the liabilities were also reduced by a withdrawal of deposits to the amount of $2,265,800 and a contraction in the circulation of $800. The discount line was extended $1,855,900. The following is a comparison of the past two weeks:

	August 9.	August 16.	Differences.
Loans	$290,758,100	$292,614,000	Inc. $1,855,900
Specie	29,820,000	27,644,100	Dec. 2,175,900
Circulation	27,223,500	27,222,700	Dec. 800
Deposits	237,123,100	234,857,300	Dec. 2,265,800
Legal Tenders	49,002,300	47,540,100	Dec. 1,462,200

The following shows the relation between the total reserve and the total liabilities:

	Aug. 9.	August 16.	Differences.
Specie	$29,820,000	$27,644,100	Dec. $2,175,900
Legal tenders	49,002,300	47,540,100	Dec. 1,462,200
Total reserve	$78,822,300	$75,184,200	Dec $3,638,100
Circulation	27,223,500	27,222,700	Dec. 800
Deposits	237,123,100	234,857,300	Dec. 2,265,800
Total liabilities	$264,346,600	$262,080,000	Dec. $2,266,600
25 per cent. reserve	66,086,650	65,520,000	Dec. 566,650
Excess over legal reserve	12,735,650	9,664,200	Dec. 3,071,450

The following table separates the National from the State banks:

	National.	State.	Total.
Loans	$251,607,600	$41,006,400	$292,614,000
Specie	24,698,100	2,946,000	27,644,100
Legal tenders	41,966,100	5,574,000	47,540,100
Deposits	202,108,800	32,748,500	234,857,300
Circulation	27,190,500	32,200	27,222,700
Percentage of reserve to total liabilities	29 7-100 p.c.	25 99-100 p.c.	28 69-100 p.c.

In the stock market persistent efforts, emanating from the board of directors apparently, have been made to depress both the common and preferred stock of Milwaukee and St. Paul, but whilst this has been going on, in the face too of the most extraordinary increase in the business of the road (80 per cent. in earnings over July, 1872), large blocks of the stock, particularly of the common, are being quietly and rapidly purchased and withdrawn from the market. It is even said that, on one or two occasions of late, dealers have met difficulty and delay in obtaining this stock after purchasing it. It seems, therefore, quite likely that a sudden and permanent advance in prices may occur before many months, or when the tactics of these model directors have given to them as many of the shares at low figures as they wish.

The six per cent. construction bonds, gold loan, of the Texas and Pacific Railway have been brought out at 90. The bonds are issued at the rate of $40,000 per mile, and the whole amount will be upwards of $76,000,000. A very remarkable circumstance, evidencing still further the reckless financiering of the times, and calculated to defeat entirely the sale of these bonds if generally known, is that there is another issue of bonds to the amount of it is believed $20,000,000, called the *"first mortgage land-grant 7 per cent. currency."* There are plenty of them for sale in New York, and they are the same in every respect as those issued by Mr. Scott to the syndicate whose money has built and equipped the 209 miles of road which his advertisement of the "construction" bonds states to be now completed!

The following shows the highest and lowest sales of the leading stocks at the Stock Exchange for the week ending August 16, 1873:

	Monday.	Tuesday.	Wed'day.	Thursday	Friday.	Saturday.	Sales.
N. Y. C. & H. R.	105¼ 105⅝	105¼ 105½	104⅝ 105⅜	105¼ 105¼	105¼ 105⅜	105 105½	16,900
Lake Shore	94⅝ 95	94⅛ 95	93⅜ 94⅛	94 94⅜	93⅞ 94¼	93⅜ 93⅞	35 700
Erie	59¼ 59⅜	59 59⅜	59¼ 60	59⅜ 59½	59¼ 59⅜	59½ 59⅜	20,100
Do. pfd	 73	 73	.... 73¼	.... 73¼	 73	....	....
Union Pacific	28⅜ 28¼	28 28¼	27½ 28⅛	27⅞	27⅜ 28⅛	27½ 27⅜	17,500
Chi. & N. W.	67⅜ 68	67⅜	66⅜ 67½	63⅜ 67	66½ 67	65⅜ 66⅜	3,000
Do. pfd	83½	83⅜ 83½	83	83 83½	83¼	....	700
N. J. Central	103 103½	103 103½	103 103¼	103	102⅞	....	500
Rock Island	110⅝ 110⅜	103⅜ 110⅜	110¼ 110⅝	110½	110⅝	110⅛ 110½	3,900
Mil. & St. Paul	52½ 52⅜	52¼ 52⅝	51⅜ 52⅜	51⅜ 52⅛	51⅜ 52	51⅜ 51⅜	7 400
Do. pfd	73¼ 73⅝	73⅜ 73⅜	72½ 73¼	7 ⅛ 72	71 71⅜	....	3,700
Wabash	72 72½	71⅝ 71⅜	70⅝ 71⅝	71	70⅜ 71¼	70⅜ 71	5.400
D. L. & Western	102	01½	101¼ 101¼	101 101⅛	101 101¼	101 101¼	2,000
B. H. & Erie	2¾	2¾ 2¾	2¾	2½ 2¾	2½	....	600
O. & M.	40⅛ 40½	39⅜ 40¼	39½ 39⅝	39⅜ 39⅝	39⅜ 39⅝	39 39½	19.200
C. C. & I. C.	32¼ 32⅝	32⅛ 32⅜	3 ⅝ 32¼	31⅞ 32	32	31⅞ 32	5,200
W. U. Tel.	92⅜ 92⅝	92 92⅜	91½ 9 ⅞	91⅝ 92	91¾ 92	91¼ 91¾	32,200
Pacific Mail	40⅜ 42	39⅞ 42⅛	37⅞ 39⅛	40 40⅝	40¼ 41⅜	39⅜ 40¼	128,400

Government bonds are strong, on constant demand from the London and German markets; but the floating surplus is so limited that it is impossible to get any but small amounts, picked up here and there as opportunity presents itself.

In gold but little was done until Thursday, when there was a downward turn, and the bids at the Treasury sale were only slightly over half the amount offered ($765,000 on an offering of $1,500,000), and the price dropped to 114⅝. Subsequently the price advanced to 115, but reacted to 114⅞. The rates for carrying were 2½, 3, 1, and 2 per cent. to flat. Gold loans on time were 1-16 to ⅛ for 30 days, ⅜ to ½ for 60 days, and ⅞ to 1 for 3 to 6 months.

BANKING-HOUSE OF FISK & HATCH,
New York, August 18, 1873.

The SEVEN PER CENT. BONDS OF THE CHESAPEAKE AND OHIO RAILROAD COMPANY are issued in the denominations of $1,000 each, interest payable July and January, both principal and interest payable in United States gold coin, in New York. The price for the present is 90 and accrued interest—that is, a

$1,000 bond would cost to-day.....$909 21

At the present price of gold the income derived is equal to nearly nine per cent. in currency. With the rapidly increasing business of the Road, its commanding importance as another great East and West trunk line, its complete roadway of 420 miles, the princely wealth of iron, coal, salt, and timber along its route, tapping, as it does, at its Western terminus on the Ohio River, over 12,000 miles of water navigation, its Eastern terminus resting on the tide-waters of the Atlantic Ocean, and the fact that the other great parallel trunk lines are being compelled to lay additional tracks to meet the enormous and steadily augmenting traffic between the East and West—all warrant us in our belief that the securities of the Chesapeake and Ohio are destined to attain a high rank in the markets of the world. Government bonds are so high at present, and really desirable permanent investment securities so difficult to be obtained at a reasonable price, that we are glad to have so satisfactory a bond to offer our friends and customers.

We also have a small amount of the OLD SIX PER CENT. GOLD BONDS OF THE CHESAPEAKE AND OHIO; the price of these is 88½ and accrued interest. They are issued in denominations of $100, $500, and $1,000, interest payable May and November. Underlying, as they do, a property that has cost nearly $38,000,000, and which is constantly increasing in value, they need no recommendation. The small remaining balance will soon be absorbed.

$100 bond will cost to-day, ... $90 29
500 bond will cost to-day, ... 451 46
1,000 bond will cost to-day, ... 902 92

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The Central Pacific Company has now over 1,222 miles of completed road, and its earnings this year will reach upward of $13,000,000. Their securities should rank with those of the Government itself.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 28, 1873.

The Week.

WITH the touch of fall weather that has come within the last few days, political affairs begin to be livelier—liveliest of all in Massachusetts, although it is to Ohio that the politicians are looking with the most expectancy. The week has seen the opening of the Republican canvass there by Governor Noyes and Senator Morton, and of the Democratic by Mr. Allen himself, the Democratic candidate. Evidently the State will be sharply contested, and a Democratic victory there would mean much everywhere. Great would be the gathering of the clans in this State, for example, where the party threatens terrible things in November. Senator Morton's speech was not very different from his old ones. Governor Noyes spoke with greater care, and with his accustomed skill. He first reminded the "Liberals" that their organization had been denounced by the Democrats as "a stench in the nostrils of all honest men," and then the Democratic seceders who occupy Mr. Groesbeck's and Mr. Pugh's and General Ewing's ground he reminded of their predictions and assertions, and of the insulting way in which the "Bourbon magnates" had disregarded them. Next came after these remarks, in the interest of the opposition camp, the inevitable railroads and the farmers.

Governor Noyes said he had no doubt that Congress could interfere to regulate rates of transportation on inter-State lines; that he thought Ohio Congressmen should urge this course; and in case Congress would not take proper action, the remedy was to elect other Congressmen who would. But more railroads were necessary; railroads were in themselves good things, and only their abuses need be attacked. This the people could do; it would be absurd to suppose they could not control the corporations; and perhaps it might pay to secure a water communication with the sea by a system of internal improvements. Touching then upon the "back-pay" business, Governor Noyes assumed a rôle which he is very good at playing, and was plain frankness to perfection. It was a piece of stealing, and he thought nothing better could be said of it; but more Democrats in proportion voted for it than Republicans. And as for the Crédit Mobilier business, that was another swindle; but see how the party no sooner heard of it than it took the lash and punished all concerned. More of this same frankness was displayed when the tariff came to be spoken off: the Democracy jeered because there was no tariff plank in the Republican platform; but they were a nice party to sneer on this subject; they had made tariff planks of all kinds, including a plank remanding the whole subject to "the people in the Congressional districts." But the fact is, said the Governor, "tariff planks in the platform of all parties, my friends, are usually mere dodges." He expressed great confidence in the defeat of the Bourbon Democrats.

The colored voters of Ohio met in convention at Chillicothe on Friday, and passed resolutions calling the Republican party to account for omitting to give effect to some of the fine sentiments put forth in the Philadelphia platform of last year. The glittering generalities in question were not those relating to the civil service, but the following: that "complete liberty and exact equality in the enjoyment of all civil, political, and public rights should be established and effectually maintained throughout the Union by efficient and appropriate State and Federal legislation." So little has been accomplished during the past year in this direction, that the chairman expressed the sense of the convention when he said: "We regard ourselves as oppressed politically." The specific grounds of complaint, when the resolutions are sifted, turn out to be (1) the discomforts and indignities to which colored people are still subjected at hotels, theatres, in public conveyances, and in the common schools; and (2) rigid exclusion "from anything which might look like an equality of right in office-holding." The remedy demanded was the passage of a comprehensive civil-rights bill and the making room hereafter for colored office-holders. This demand was accompanied by an intimation that parties in this country are generally short-lived, and that the colored people's obligations to the Republican party were by no means eternal; and the convention's constituents were admonished not to pledge themselves unconditionally to the nominees of their local conventions, but to hold themselves free to cast their votes where they would do most good. An attempt to capture the convention in the interest of the regular party, by introducing resolutions of entire satisfaction "with the result of the splendid Administration of General Grant," and of "unimpaired confidence" in him, was voted down amid some confusion, which was increased when the mover, a Federal office-holder, called the convention "silly sore-heads" and "disappointed office-seekers" and a drop in the Republican bucket. As a whole, however, the meeting was perfectly orderly and respectable, and the oratory shrewd and forcible.

In Massachusetts the call is out for the State Convention, and the election of delegates is now in order. Simultaneously with the publication of the call we have the Hamilton Hall address, prepared no doubt by Judge Hoar, and the speeches made at a Worcester rallying meeting by several Republicans, locally well known, and with them Mr. George Hoar. The last-named gentleman, in his speech, took up a recent open letter which General Butler sent to a gentleman who had attacked him, and in which he referred darkly to a certain Congressman as being in several ways vile. This Congressman appears, however, to have been the same man of whom General Butler said in 1871 that, knowing his purity and integrity, he, Butler, held him in the highest respect. This reminds the irreverent in Massachusetts of the kind of memory which a certain order of persons ought to have if they wish to avoid little exposures of this kind. It will be recollected that the General, in the capacity of a man of veracity, had similar trouble in 1871, when General Hawley tripped him up. Mr. Hoar praised Governor Washburn very heartily; showed that now for many years it had been the custom to give a satisfactory Massachusetts governor a third term; and attacked Butler for seeking to set aside this custom. Butler's mode of working Mr. Hoar denounced. It seems that early in the summer he was ordering small officials to his room in Pemberton Square, and there threatening them with the loss of their offices in case they did not work for him. This is a course of proceeding not yet popular in Massachusetts, when done openly and for a personal end. The Hamilton Hall address describes Mr. Washburn in positive terms, and contrives to describe Butler positively by telling in negative terms what Washburn would not do if elected again; and it appears that what Washburn would not do is bribe, use public power to gratify his hatred and revenge, expect to find among his supporters men who can be bought or frightened, spend his time in plotting for his own advancement, enrich himself by means of public employment, offer himself as the instrument of any portion of the public that may be tempted to anything mean or base, and, finally, a number of other things. The address concludes by calling for attendance at the primaries. These are now expected by Butler's enemies to give him about 400 delegates out of a total of a little more than 1,100.

The Springfield *Republican* very justly says that if the only thing the Anti-Butler Republicans do in the approaching Convention is to renominate Governor Washburn, their victory will be insecure. His defeat would merely leave Butler where he is now, and, we may add, on some accounts in a better position, for by party tradition de-

feated candidates are entitled in their turn to fat offices if they take their defeat well. The *Republican* says, therefore, that the Anti-Butler party must, if it wishes to reap the fruits of its victory, do two things: first, force Butler to bolt by putting into their platform such a deliverance on the subject of the grab and other matters as will make it absolutely impossible for Butler *not* to bolt; second, give Gen. Grant to understand distinctly that Butler has been allowed to dispense the Administration patronage and wield the Administration thunderbolts in Massachusetts quite long enough; that the time has now come when the Administration must definitely choose between the political friendship of "that person" and the support of the Republican party in Massachusetts. This advice is more than sensible. Messrs. Hoar and Dawes, and the rest of their section of the party, owe it to themselves not to permit such a confusion of the public mind on the subject of decency and morality as would be produced by seeing them, immediately after a campaign like this, unite with Butler, and forgive and forget, for the sake of beating the Democrats.

General Butler's title to fame as the inventor of the phrase "contraband of war," as applied to the negroes, seems to be in suspense. A Massachusetts Captain writes to a local newspaper to say that he invented it himself, and that General Butler got it from him in this way. In May, 1861, he was under Butler at Fortress Monroe, and had in his service an escaped slave named Luke, who with a great many others had run away from the rebel fortifications on which they had been working. Luke's master, a Col. Mallory, requested his return, and to this General Butler consented, on condition that the latter should take the oath of allegiance. Hearing this, Luke fled to the Captain for protection, and the Captain, who was a lawyer, convinced him that he was in no danger, and that no one could send him back. The story came to General Butler's ears, and the Captain was ordered to report at headquarters, where he was asked by the General, his staff and some other officers being present, full of fury, "what he meant by telling the slaves they could not be sent back to their masters? On this the Captain, after correcting this exaggerated statement, presented his argument that his own servant Luke could not be returned because he was 'contraband of war.' As soon as he heard the phrase 'contraband of war,' the General's whole manner changed, his arms fell on the table, his head was thrown forward, and he remained buried in profound thought, when he very quietly dismissed the Captain, and next day issued his memorable proclamation, which of his many clever political dodges was by all odds the cleverest." The story certainly can be confirmed or contradicted by the officers who were present. It is told with great detail.

A piece of correspondence in the *Tribune* of the 13th we commend to the attention of persons interested in the movement against the railroads. It is from Central Illinois, and describes the condition of the wheat and stock raisers of that region, as distinguished from that of the corn-raising farmers of the Northwest. The gist of it is simply this, that the wheat-raising farmers, who have not overdone things, have no complaint to make against the railroads. "Wheat is a much more precarious crop than corn, as well as more exacting in the attention it requires at certain seasons of the year, and the farmers are therefore less inclined to raise it." In other words, the Central Illinois farmers are not enabled to glut their market with a crop that raises itself, so to speak, and they are not compelled to ask other people to carry it to a distant market for less than the service is worth.

We ought to have noticed last week the suit brought by Government against Platt & Boyd, of this city, importers of glass, for alleged frauds upon the revenue. It is true that in the circumstances of this action there is, unhappily, nothing new. We are all familiar with Special Agent B. G. Jayne, and the mode in which he makes seizures, and the keen eye he shows for selecting the oldest, most respectable, and richest houses for attack. There is even in the present instance a marked likeness to the case of Phelps, Dodge & Co., the original informers being, as we understand, clerks whom Platt & Boyd had discharged on learning that they were in the habit of furnishing transcripts of their invoices and other papers to rival firms. We are glad to be able to add, however, that the defendants in this suit will not compromise, and that their first step in self-defence has been to sue Mr. Jayne for $50,000 damages, he having carried off a large number of books and papers not specified, as by the express terms of the law they should have been, in the search-warrant, and having no relation to the frauds enumerated in the same instrument. He did this not only against the protest of the firm and their counsel, but against the opinion and advice of District-Attorney Bliss, who happened to be on the scene, and who is only one of many witnesses to the Special Agent's lawless and insolent behavior. As the case is sure to be heard from again, and as there is no reason why it should not go hard with Mr. Jayne, we refrain from further comment upon it, simply remarking that the guilt or innocence of Platt & Boyd, like the guilt or innocence of Phelps, Dodge & Co., ought not to affect public sentiment regarding the demoralizing consequences of our present system of revenue surveillance, and its detriment to the national reputation.

The speculation in gold which has been going on for the last fortnight has given rise to a most extraordinary discussion. The *Tribune*, having published several articles to show that on the 1st of July the actual amount of gold in the Treasury was several millions less than the amount reported in the Treasury, giving at the same time certain evidence (the value of which we do not undertake to determine) in support of its assertions, the *Times* replied that it was now evident enough that the *Tribune* was owned by Jay Gould, the argument being that no articles such as those which had appeared in the *Tribune* could have come from any one but Gould—an argument which strikes us as rather fallacious. The Secretary of the Treasury, on being interrogated by a correspondent on the same subject, replied by asking his interrogator to look in his eyes, and ask himself whether a Secretary of the Treasury could look as calm and unruffled as he then did if there was anything wrong with the Treasury accounts. This is strong, but hardly conclusive, because it is based on the unfounded assumption that the public is as familiar with the relations between the facial expression and the internal emotions of Mr. William A. Richardson as he is himself. One thing, however, is quite certain, that there is as little immediate danger of another Black Friday as there has been any time this two years. Jay Gould is unquestionably a bold, bad man, but he is not invested with superhuman powers, and he would need to have superhuman powers to be able to corner gold with the whole country watching the movement and working against it.

The question whether General Grant shall be renominated for a third term by the Republican Convention which will meet three years hence, is as yet undecided, but a vast amount of interviewing has been going on about it. The drift of public opinion, judging from Liberal Republican and Democratic journals, seems to show that the renomination is already settled, though one Southern journal is not clear as to whether Ulysses S. Grant will in four years from now mount a scaffold or a throne. A throne, it thinks. On the other hand, the Republican journals deny that any meeting has been held or authoritative statement made on the subject. Another interesting point, on which we have noticed a good deal of what lawyers call curious learning, is what will be the effect on the morals of the Government produced by the constitutional accession to the Presidency of Senator Carpenter after the death of General Grant and Mr. Wilson. It will certainly be a sad day for the country when Mr. Carpenter becomes President, and it will cause a great deal of confusion too. It seems to have escaped many journals that if General Grant and his Vice-President are going to die, the question whether, if he had lived, he

would have been nominated for a third term, has a character rather speculative than immediately practical. Still, theoretical problems of politics are often entertaining, and by combining the probabilities as to the health of Carpenter, Wilson, and Grant with the probabilities of a third, fourth, and fifth term, a great deal may still be done to lighten the tedium of the early autumn.

Mr. Jefferson Davis's incendiary remarks at the White Sulphur Springs do not seem to have awakened an audibly responsive echo at the South, where for the most part they have been passed over in silence, or more or less explicitly condemned by the press. Those whom his administration of the Confederacy made personal and bitter enemies have improved the opportunity to rehearse their opinion of him, and none more conspicuously than ex-Senator Foote. This gentleman is contributing to the Washington *Chronicle* a sort of autobiography, interspersed with reminiscences of the public characters of other days, and he for some reason considers this last act of Davis's to have unlocked his (Foote's) mouth on matters which he has heretofore kept carefully guarded in his own breast. The result is a variety of statements and charges which we trust the Southern Historical Society will duly cut out and paste in their scrap-book, considering the good Southern source from which they emanate. As a retort upon Mr. Davis's senseless talk about the cheat practised upon Lee and Johnston in their surrender, it must be pronounced in the main not relevant. That the President of the late Confederacy was lawless, tyrannical, obstinate, and a nepotist beside whom Grant sinks into insignificance; that he was guilty of tampering with the public funds, and of feathering his own nest abroad against the evil day—all this is interesting as material for a veracious and unpartisan history of the Lost Cause, but it has no necessary connection with the allegation of bad faith with which Mr. Davis tries to cover the final defeat of the rebellion.

Mr. Gladstone has suffered two heavy blows in the recent elections in the boroughs of Dundee and Greenwich, the Government candidate being defeated in both places. The Dundee election was the more important of the two on many accounts. The candidates were Mr. Fitzjames Stephen, who, it is generally understood, was selected in advance by the administration for the Solicitor-Generalship; Mr. Jenkins, author of 'Ginx's Baby' and other works of the same sort; and a Mr. Yeaman, an ex-provost and locally popular. The three candidates were all Liberals, but the importance of the election consisted in this, that its result was to show, first, how much political discrimination was possessed by the workingmen newly enfranchised by the Reform Bill of 1867 (Dundee being essentially a workingman's borough); and, second, how far they clearly understood the fact that the parliamentary mode of administration makes it an absolute necessity that the people shall be willing to elect those candidates who are selected by the Government to occupy working positions. To take a very evident case: it is absolutely necessary that the Premier shall be elected to Parliament by some body of electors, or he cannot be Premier at all. As to the candidates, there could not be any doubt that Mr. Stephen was the best; he had had great experience in India as an administrator, and was well known to be a thorough lawyer of the highest type. Mr. Jenkins is a gushing writer of an inferior order even among gushing writers, and Mr. Yeaman had apparently no claims to the honor of an election except respectability, and a perfect knowledge of the wishes of Dundee.

Besides this there was the other reason for electing Mr. Stephen, that he was positively needed in the Government to devise a plan of codification. The electors of Dundee, however, thought differently, and, out of 10,000 votes, cast for Mr. Stephen about 1,000. The other nine thousand divided their votes between Mr. Yeaman and Mr. Jenkins, electing the former by a decisive majority. It may be a new bond between England and America to reflect that Mr. Stephen's failure was probably due to what has been the ruin of many a politician in this country—his heartless and unsympathetic manners. It seems, for example, that, being asked during the canvass by one of the electors whether he was in favor of the repeal of the Game Laws, instead of saying in a hearty way at once, as Mr. Jenkins was in the habit of doing, that he was in favor of the repeal of these or any others, he coldly asked, "Which of them?" This was too much for the endurance of the elector, who probably had not that comprehensive knowledge of the statutes in question which was necessary to enable him to reply, and he at once told Mr. Stephen that "he was too much a lawyer for him," preferring, as the *Economist* naïvely says, "a vague promise to a definite plan of legislation." This is what the average workingman generally prefers, and, we may add, what he succeeds every year more and more in getting.

The scene in the Spanish Cortes on the 31st of July seems to have been one of the most thrilling and at the same time saddest scenes that has ever taken place in a parliamentary body, if the Cortes can be called a parliamentary body. The Intransigentes, who have only a small force in the Cortes, though they apparently make up for this deficiency in noise, had just been defeated by the adoption of a vote of thanks to the people of Almeria, after a fearful uproar, and Señor Prefumo moved a vote of "profound disgust" at the conduct of the rebellious deputies, who had "risen in arms" and "excited the zeal of the judicial authorities to solicit the necessary authority to prosecute at once." On this Señor Diaz Quintero made a speech, in which he declared himself an insurgent, and requested the Cortes to include him in the vote of censure, and continued talking open treason, until he was finally brought to order by "the despotism of the Vice-President." The speechmaking went on, however; most of the speeches being of a highly personal character, and one of the Spanish parliamentary rules allowing every one "personally alluded to" to make a speech. At last two of the Intransigentes having alluded to Castelar, he replied in a speech which, even when translated into English, is full of eloquence—the eloquence of despairing patriotism.

His great ambition, he said, had been that the republic should be consolidated by the Republican party, and, that this might be done, he had hoped that Republicans would display those political gifts which had always distinguished the European Conservatives—those qualities essential to a party of government "as distinct from blind repression as from revolutionary utopianism." He then turned upon the Left and denounced their allies, the rebels, as "an ignominious horde of military adventurers" and "barrack conspirators," and predicted the possibility of a temporary Carlist triumph, brought about by "the insanity and senselessness of the Republicans." In conclusion, he declared that when he looked for the patriot he did not see him in the man "who plants a hated and hateful flag on the masts of the ships of Don Juan of Austria and of the Marquis of Santa Cruz":

> "But I see the patriot and I see the country in the simple-hearted Volunteer of Estella, who, with his wife by his side, was found seated on a hundred quintals of gunpowder, with the lighted torch in his hand, awaiting the entrance of the Carlist faction into the citadel to die like a hero! (Frantic applause.) Yes, in him I see the patriot, in him I see the country of Viriato, and of Pelayo, and of the Cid, and of Daviz and Velarde—the country of the martyr Gerona and of the sainted Zaragoza!"

The English correspondent from whom we make these extracts says that imagination can hardly conceive the effect of this closing sentence. The House shook with applause; the members nearest the orator seized him, hugged him, patted him, and kissed him. The fourteen or fifteen deputies of the Left preserved a stolid silence. Salmeron, President of the Ministry, embraced the orator, so did all the Ministerial bench. This went on for half an hour, after which the motion of Señor Prefumo was carried by 125 to 15. Castelar's vision of the Spanish patriot conveys perhaps a more vivid notion of his unhappy country than volumes of statistics.

AGRICULTURAL EXPOSITION OF CORPORATE LAW.

THE attention of that part of the public which interests itself in politics and in the railroad question has lately been so riveted upon the strictly political bearings of the movements of the Farmers' Associations, that little attention has been given to certain closely-connected considerations, not long ago quite prominent. The progress of the farmers thus far in securing what they want cannot be said to be very encouraging. Mr. F. Wilkinson, "General Deputy for Pennsylvania of the Patrons of Husbandry," while announcing in a letter to the Philadelphia *Press* that thirteen granges have been organized and five more are awaiting organization in that State, is obliged to make the extraordinary but necessary admission that the substantial result of the Illinois freight law is a general increase of rates. The political conventions which have recently been held have generally promised justice and fair treatment to the farmers, but have carefully refrained from the dangerous task of defining what they mean by justice and fair treatment. The farmers have, it is true, organized a great number of granges, with the avowed object of doing away with middlemen's profits. Whether this part of the movement is likely to result in much good is perhaps an open, certainly a difficult, question, which we may discuss at some future time. But except this attempt—purely economical in its character, and having no more to do with politics than with theology—they seem to have achieved nothing as yet except a general intimidation of local politicians. Nothing more can be done in the way of railroad reform before the Western legislatures meet in the winter, and no definite plan of operations is proposed then. The main idea of the Farmers' Associations now seems to be to gain control of the State governments and frighten the railroads; what they will do afterwards remains to be seen.

It is not more than five or six years since a movement was begun in the West, and spread with alarming rapidity through several States, not unlike the present farmers' movement in some of its characteristics. It was a popular movement; it was in the interest of what it is the fashion to call the debtor class (there is probably no class of people in this country except minor children that might not be brought within the general meaning of the term); and it was a movement, though not directly against railroads, indirectly dangerous to them. A very large number of the present agitators in the farmers' movement were, in all probability, engaged in the earlier demonstration—which, indeed, is still going on in some parts of the country. We refer, of course, to the attempt to repudiate the debts contracted by towns in aid of railroads. At the time when the railroad-building fever was at its height in the West, many hundreds of towns, as is well known, bound themselves to levy taxes on the property of the inhabitants in aid of the roads; bonds were issued, based on this pledge—in many cases to an amount out of all proportion to the resources of the towns. The time came, however, when it became inconvenient to pay the interest on these bonds, and town after town refused payment. The matter was at once carried into the courts, where it was argued on the one side that taxation in aid of railroads was unconstitutional, because the taxing power could only be exercised for public purposes; that a railroad charter was a private grant; taxes could not, therefore, be levied in aid of railroads. It will be remembered that Judge Cooley of Michigan rendered an elaborate decision in this sense, in which he maintained in effect that there was no difference between a railroad charter and a charter for the establishment of a corporation for the manufacture of hats or tooth-brushes; that it was just as incorrect to call one as to call the other a "public use"; and that consequently the bonds were illegal. On the other hand, it appeared that several dozen decisions of State courts and the United States Supreme Court, had established it as perfectly settled law that a railroad was, for purposes of taxation, a public use, and that the bonds were legal. Notwithstanding this the war went on, and in one Western State, after being carried through the State courts, was carried into the local United States courts; and what with sheriffs who declined to serve process, and United States courts which willingly issued mandamuses, there seemed at one time a very fair prospect of a good deal of mob violence. It was all quieted, however, and matters stood as before.

We do not propose to enter here into the old discussion whether a railroad is or is not a public use. It is sufficient for our purposes that the men who were then engaged in resisting the levying of the taxes in question stoutly maintained that railroads were not public uses, and that the power of taxation could not be used to aid them. In order to understand exactly how far they went, it is necessary to state that the settled legal doctrine on the subject of taxation is that the Legislature is the sole judge of what is and what is not a public object, except in such cases as would justify a sensible man in saying that the notion of a public use was "absurd on its face." The towns which resisted the tax, therefore, went to the extreme limit. They said that it was absurd to consider a railroad a public object.

It is well known that at the bottom of the present farmers' movement is a great deal of the discontent caused by these old taxes. The people who defended the suits were the town officials; but the people who paid the taxes were, as we just now said, in a number of instances, and probably in most cases, farmers. There are no reliable statistics on this subject that we know of in any State, but even in the interior of New York the thing was carried so far that localities entirely agricultural saddled themselves with debts of which they are now trying to get rid, and which were so large that it seems as if repudiation in many cases were the only resource left. The Constitutional Commission appointed by Governor Hoffman investigated this subject with great care, and we understand are soon to publish a report which will give all the statistics attainable for New York. When this report appears, we have no hesitation in predicting that it will show that the taxing has mainly been done in the agricultural districts. An instance now occurs to us of a railroad, built almost entirely on local bonds, persuading the locality to tax itself to the extent of $115,000, although the district in question is made up entirely of small farms, and there is not within its borders a town of sufficient size to be called more than a hamlet.

It is the men who live in such districts as this who in the Western States are now engaged in the farmers' movement. When we examine the legal theory of the nature of railroads they now propound, we find that a very startling change has come over their minds in the last few years. They say, now, that the legislature must fix the rates of transportation; that the legislature must decide on all questions relating to railroads; that railroads are the mere creatures of the legislature; that a charter is no contract between the people and the roads, making the road private property; but, to sum it all up in two words, railroads are public agents—they are called into being for public purposes, and the power granted by their charters is given for a "public use." They say that this is self-evident; that any man can see that it is true; that it is absurd on the face of the thing to deny it; and they denounce everybody as an unsympathetic cynic or a designing demagogue who declines to agree with them.

We are very far from wishing to imply by these remarks that there is an incompatibility between the co-ordinate existence of public and private uses in the same corporation. The whole law of railroads has been carefully built up by the courts on the supposition that a railroad is at once a public and a private object; that so far as its rights of property go, it is a private person; so far as its public function of transportation goes, it is a public institution. The limits of its two natures have been carefully defined by judges who knew more about law and government than they did about politics, and cared more for justice than for votes. They may have been quite wrong; the modern constitution of American society may demand a new system of railroad management; but one thing is quite clear, that it is impossible to have much respect for the intellects of reformers whose view of the railroad question varies with the changes in the condition of their purses; who tell us now that they

must repudiate debts contracted in aid of railroads, because railroads, notwithstanding thirty or forty decisions to the contrary, are private property, and it is absurd to say that they are anything else; and now that they propose to run the railroads themselves (for this is what fixing the rates of transportation comes to), because they are public highways, notwithstanding that in a multitude of decisions they have been decided to be for these purposes private property. In other words, the recollection of the different attitudes taken by the farmers on this question will tend to convince most people that the railroad question is not one which can be settled by popular agitation of the kind now undertaken—that the exact nature of so peculiar a corporation as a railroad is not to be determined by resolutions of conventions or acts of legislatures. The bond cases were taken into court, though why the brilliant idea of a new political party did not occur to the insolvent towns at the time, we do not know. If it had, we might by this time have had the benefit of a complete exposition in local platforms of the agricultural theory of corporate law.

AMERICAN COLLEGES AND LEGISLATORS.

THE addresses of Dr. McCosh and Professor Atherton at Elmira not only demonstrate the stupendous ignorance of Congress in matters of education, but show that in the last reckless attempt to fling 90,000,000 acres to a few agricultural colleges, "so-called and miscalled," the members really could not have known what they were themselves doing. Agricultural colleges a failure in other countries; a failure, so far as students go, in our own; Cornell receiving $900,000 under the grant of 1862, and giving as a dividend upon it two agricultural graduates a year; twenty out of every hundred of our people above the age of ten years unable to read and write; the illiterate male adults over twenty-one years of age amounting to 1,619,147; the schools and academies of the country so few and defective that the existing colleges cannot be kept supplied with decently-prepared students; and, finally, a ring in Congress trying to give the last of the public lands to the same forty-one institutions that received the avails of the last endowment, without the slightest enquiry or consideration, and with the whole educated intelligence of the country opposed to the reckless act—these are facts which suggest some enquiry as to the amount of educated material which is to be found in Congress.

The 'Congressional Directory' of the last Congress shows that of 317 Senators and Representatives only about 87 were graduates of a college. But this number is not to be taken as absolutely correct; for the biographical notices of the 'Directory' in a few instances say nothing about education, and in others are suspiciously ambiguous. The estimate which the honorable members put upon their education varies a great deal in terms. There is occasionally the "collegiate"; more frequently the "academic"; then the "classical," the "thorough classical," the "liberal," the "English," the "thorough English," and the "plain practical English." As to some of the colleges, it is needless to say that they did not give their graduates so good an education as the Boston High Schools; as to others, we never heard of them till meeting their names in the 'Congressional Directory.' Of the leading colleges of the country, the representation is surprisingly small. Yale leads with ten graduates; the University of North Carolina comes next with six; Union, Dartmouth, and Hamilton have each four; Harvard and Princeton have but three; as have Williams, West Point, Waterville (now Colby University), and Miami; there are two from the University of Virginia, two from Brown and Madison; one from Amherst, Oberlin, and Michigan—all told, about fifty real graduates of real colleges in the two Houses of Congress.

As to States, the most notable is North Carolina, for six of her nine members are college men (which is the highest proportion to be found in Congress), and all of them are graduates of her State university. The three great States, notwithstanding their wealth and the number of their colleges, have about one-fourth each; New York, nine out of thirty-three; Pennsylvania, six out of twenty-six; Ohio, five out of twenty-one; New England is not much better, having less than half; and ten States, extending in age from Maryland and Delaware to Texas and Nevada, have not a single graduate. As between the North and South and the East and West not much can be said, for North Carolina and Nebraska are the only States which come up to the proportion of two-thirds. Remembering the fine array of cultivated statesmen which old Virginia possessed in her day of scanty educational means, it must be deemed sad evidence of her decline that Virginia and West Virginia combined now have but one graduate of a college among their fifteen members.

As to the men themselves, a cultivated life by no means seems to have been the invariable stamp of their collegiate experience. Indeed, if anything could be proved by a few individual instances, it would be easy to prove that a good education in early life is one of the most deleterious influences that can attend the modern statesman. For instance, Mr. Trumbull did not have the advantages of university training; but his esteemed colleague, General Logan, was graduated at Louisville University. Mr. Poland, of Vermont, was as unfortunate as Mr. Trumbull; but our much-respected friend, General Butler, is, classically speaking, an alumnus of Waterville. Some men of whom one would feel sure that they received the benefit of college training and associations did not; and most notably, Messrs. Bayard, Conkling, Sherman, Thurman, and Edmunds. Others again, as to whom one might safely make oath that they had never seen a college save through the windows of a railway car, are recorded as having received a collegiate education; and among them are Mr. Pomeroy of Kansas, Mr. Conner of Texas, and Mr. Voorhees of Indiana.

If Congress be considered from the sentimental point of view as a place of repose for men who have gone through the hard vicissitudes of life—a place of rest and recreation where, doing nothing, they can be liberally supported, and have the amusement of making empty speeches when they feel in the humor for oratory, and the coarse pleasures of hotel lounging and card-playing and theatre-going, for all of which in early life they yearned without having the time or money to indulge, then Congress admirably fulfils its end. The brief biographies of the 'Congressional Directory' are, for the most part, abstracts of struggles in life. A boy reading them all would think that an unfailing recipe for making one's self a member of Congress would be a course of work on a farm and teaching school (or, as one honorable member magnificently says of himself, "being for six years an educator"), followed up vigorously by editing a paper or practising law. To most of them, life has been a continuous toilsome ascent, and the Congressional seat is a plateau on which they can stop and take their ease. One boy, we read, enlisted in his brother's company to go and fight for the independence of Texas; another (Senator Caldwell of Kansas) enlisted at seventeen in his father's to fight against Mexico; a third was "a factory operative at eight years of age"; a fourth, "born in New York," "self-educated," principal of an academy in Kentucky, graduate of a Washington law-school, enters the army as a private, organizes the first regiment of colored troops raised in Kentucky, commands a brigade and then a division, is breveted twice for gallant and meritorious conduct, and at last comes back again to Washington as a "carpet-bagger" from Mississippi. Whoever wants an outline for a tale of real life in America will find about two hundred in the next 'Congressional Directory.' Some of these stories have a somewhat braggart air, as though the subject were rather vain of his want of learning, and others have the tone of genuine regret. Among these we have been impressed with the simplicity and unconscious pathos of the strange life of Senator Morgan Hamilton of Texas, who "was born *in the territory west of Georgia,* near the town of Huntsville, in the State of Alabama, February 25, 1809; received only the simplest rudiments of a country-school education at intervals from labor; removed to the Republic of Texas in 1837"; was Clerk of the War Department, then Comptroller of the State, and at last Senator. "The simplest rudiments of a country-school education at intervals from labor" is a definition that could only have been written by a man

who had analyzed and weighed the exceeding littleness of what the world gave him, and who, by continuous self-culture, had learnt the difficulty of supplying the deficiency in after-life.

To the sentimentalist it undoubtedly appears right that men who have fought their way up in life should obtain an offset of Congressional enjoyment, in utter disregard of their legislative fitness; but if it be desirable to establish prizes for a very small proportion of those citizens who meet and overcome the obstacles of early ignorance and poverty, it would be a great national economy to have a kind of mock Congress, where the winners of such prizes could make empty speeches to each other, and draw their pay, and idle away their time, with a real Congress in the background of earnest, intelligent men to do the legislative business of the country. The records of Congress show that the common boast is true that men of the humblest positions can rise to the honor of governing the country; but they also show that the honor has become very small, and is continually growing less. It is not a question to be discussed that men can rise; it should be a question at what intellectual and moral level they are content to stop. It is not the peculiar attribute of a republic that there are self-made men who take part in the work and honors of government, for the world has always been largely ruled by such men. Washington, who had risen to the highest rank of great men before there was a Republic, had been in his youth a frontiersman and surveyor. Jefferson, whose reputation preceded him in the Continental Congress as an accomplished gentleman, the master of four languages, an observant naturalist, a good mathematician able to calculate eclipses, an erudite lawyer, had been a pioneer and backwoodsman, whose bride could only travel to their log-house on horseback. The papers have lately been filled with notices of Lord Westbury, who died a peer of the realm, and as Lord Chancellor had presided over the entire nobility of Great Britain; but Richard Bethell went to college a poor lad in a jacket, and, as he stated before his death, had supported himself from the time he was seventeen by his own hard work. Or we may go back fifty years, and take as a solitary example the case of Lord Tenterden, the son of a country barber, without friends or influence or those brilliant talents which captivate the popular fancy. When offered the promotion of king's counsel, he declined it, because his modest estimate of his own abilities taught him that he was better fitted for the office work of a junior. Yet he was taken from his unassuming life of hard and patient labor and raised to the bench by his political opponents. With all our claptrap about merit and self-made men, have we one such instance to show of a great judge appointed to office by a party to which he did not adhere? If the next Chief-Justice of the United States should be selected for personal fitness by the President, and chanced to be a Democrat, does anybody believe that our Senate of unaristocratic, self-made men would confirm him?

The truth is that our present political system does not bring into the public service the truly self-educated and self-cultured men of the country, but merely those whose self-making rises no higher than the very low levels of money and party machinery. College diplomas of themselves mean very little, especially of colleges in chronic want of students and on a perpetual brink of starvation; but their absence is significant of the absence of the educated and cultivated intelligence of the people. In all countries there are intelligent and educated classes, and experience shows that when they are brought into the business of legislation they work not only with intelligence but also with zeal. Our own country is deprived of the services of these classes. To make laws, and provide for the necessities, and shape the policy of a country so vast and complicated as this, is a gift of statesmanship which does not come by nature. The modern Congressman is a third or fourth-rate man, uneducated beyond the knowledge of making money, ignorant of the wants of the country, sceptical, as all uneducated men are, of the intelligence of others, and with no definite objects in view beyond pushing the interests of his party. Finding nothing at Washington which he is really fitted to do, he adds idleness to his other political virtues, and becomes an obstructive in the way of the few who are really trying to accomplish something. The legislation of Congress is precisely what might be anticipated from assemblages of such men: illiterate and slovenly in form, defective in substance, and never attempting to be more than a patch for the most pressing of existing evils. The constructive ability which comprehends a system is as wanting in Congress as in a cobbler whose skill never rises above the effort of putting a patch on a broken boot.

Mr. Evarts mourned over the decline of the literary societies in Yale as leading to the decline of the forensic spirit of the country. We are inclined to think they are both effects of a common cause—the turning away of the intelligent classes from public life. To the cultivated and refined there is nothing more distasteful than to be compelled to mingle with undignified, uneducated, self-assuming colleagues. The worse elements in Congress seem to have driven out the better, as a debased currency drives good money out of circulation. How few are the American fathers who have handed down anything of political training to their sons; how few the American legislators who have learned anything of legislation from their fathers' experience! It is with us a new business for new men. Our colleges, which have hitherto discouraged young men from public life, had better begin to teach that there is a science of government, and that true statesmanship requires character, rectitude, trained intelligence, varied knowledge, indefatigable industry, and prolonged study.

HOMBURG REFORMED.

HOMBURG, July 28, 1873.

I HAVE been finding Homburg a very pleasant place, but I have been half ashamed to confess it. People assure me on all sides that its glory is sadly dimmed, and that it can only be rightly enjoyed to the music of *roulette* and of clinking napoleons. It is known by this time, I suppose, even in those virtuously disinterested communities where these lines may circulate, that the day of *roulette* in these regions is over, and that in the matter of *rouge-et-noir* united Germany has taken a new departure. The last unhallowed gains at the green tables were pocketed last summer, and the last hard losses, doubtless, as imperturbably endured as if good-natured chance had still a career to run. Chance, I believe, at Homburg was not amazingly good-natured, and kept her choicest favors for the bank; but now that the reign of Virtue has begun, I have no doubt there are plenty of irregular characters who think that she was much the more amiable creature of the two. What provision has been made for this adventurous multitude I am at loss to conceive, and how life strikes people now for whom, at any time these twenty years, it has been concentrated in the shifting victory of red or black. Some of them have taken to better courses, I suppose; some of them, doubtless, to worse; but I have a notion that many of them have begun to wear away the dull remainder of existence in a kind of melancholy, ghostly hovering around the deserted Kursaals. I have seen many of these blighted survivors sitting about under the trees in the Kurgarten, with the old habit of imperturbability still in their blank, fixed faces—neat, elderly gentlemen, elderly ladies not especially venerable, whose natural attitude seems to be to sit with their elbows on the table and their eyes on the game. They have all, of course, a pack of cards in their pockets, and their only consolation must be to play "patience" for evermore. When I remember, indeed, that I am in legendary Germany, I find it easy to believe that in these mild summer nights, when the stupid people who get up at six o'clock to drink the waters are safely in bed, they assemble in some far-away corner of the park, and make a green table of the moonlit grass. Twice a week the old gaming rooms at the Kursaal are thrown open, the chandeliers are lighted, and people go and stare at the painting and gilding. There is an immense deal of it, all in the elaborate rococo style in which French decorators of late years have become so proficient, and which makes an apartment look half like a throne-room and half like a café; but when you have walked about and looked at the undressed nymphs on the ceilings and the listless crowd in the great mirrors, you have nothing to do but to walk out again. The clever sumptuosity of the rooms makes virtue look rather foolish and dingy, and classes the famous M. Blanc, in the regard of pleasure-loving people, with the late Emperor of the French and other potentates more sinned against than sinning—martyred benefactors to that large portion of the human race who would fain consider the whole world as a watering-place. It is certainly hard to see what thrifty use the old gaming-rooms can be put to; they must

stand there always in their gorgeous emptiness, like the painted tomb chambers of Eastern monarchs.

There was certainly fair entertainment in watching the play—and in playing, according to circumstances; but even in the old days I think I should have got my chief pleasure at the Kursaal in a spectacle which has survived the fall of M. Blanc. As you pass in the front door, you look straight across the breadth of the building through another great door which opens on the gardens. The Kursaal stands on an elevation, and the ground plunges away behind it with a great stretch, which spreads itself in a charming park. Beyond the park it rises again into the gentle slopes of the Taunus mountains, and makes a high wooded horizon. This picture of the green hollow and the blue ridge greets you as you come in, framed by the opposite doorway, and I have sometimes wondered whether in the gaming days an occasional novice with a tender conscience, on his way to the tables, may not have seemed to see in it the pleading face of that mild economist Mother Nature herself. It is, doubtless, thinking too fancifully of human nature to believe that a youth with a napoleon to stake, and the consciousness of no more rigid maternal presence than this, should especially heed the suggestion that it would be better far to take a walk in the woods. The truth is, I imagine, that Nature has no absolute voice, and that she speaks to us very much according to our moods. The view from the terrace at the Kursaal has often had confusion pronounced upon it by players with empty pockets, and has been sentimentally enjoyed by players with a run of luck. We have the advantage now, at least, of finding it always the same, and always extremely pretty. Homburg, indeed, is altogether a very pretty place, and its prettiness is of that pleasing sort which steals gradually on the attention. It is one of nature's own watering-places, and has no need, like so many of the audacious sisterhood, to bully you by force of fashion into thinking it tolerable.

Your half-hour's run from Frankfort across a great sunny expanse of corn-fields and crab-apple trees is indeed not particularly charming; but the sight of the town as you approach it, with its deep-red roofs rising out of thick shade at the base of its blue hills, is a pledge of salubrious repose. Homburg stands on a gentle spur of the highest of these hills, and one of its prettiest features is your seeing the line of level plain across the foot of its long sloping main street and the line of wooded mountain across the top. The main street, which is almost all of Homburg proper, has the look of busy idleness which belongs to watering-places. There are people strolling along and looking into the shop-windows who seem to be on the point of buying something for the sake of something to do. The shops deal chiefly in the lighter luxuries, and the young ladies who wait in them wear a great many ribbons and a great deal of hair. All the houses take lodgers, and every second one is a hotel, and every now and then you hear them chanting defiance at each other to the sound of the dinner-bell. In the middle of the street is the long red stuccoed façade of the Kursaal—the beating heart of the Homburg world, as one might have called it formerly. Its heart beats much slower now, but whatever social entertainment you may still find at Homburg you must look for there. People assemble there in very goodly crowds, if only to talk about the dreadful dulness and to commiserate each other for not having been here before. The place is kept up by a tax, promptly levied on all arriving strangers, and it seems to be prosperously enough maintained. It gives you a reading-room where you may go and practise indifference as you see a sturdy Briton settling down heavily over your coveted *Times*, just as you might of old when you saw the croupier raking in your stakes; music by a very fair band twice a day; a theatre, a café, a restaurant, and a table-d'hôte, and a garden illuminated every three or four evenings in the Vauxhall manner. People differ very much as to the satisfaction they take in sitting about under flaring gas-lamps and watching other people march up and down and pass and repass them by the hour. The pastime pushed to extremes tends, to my own thinking, to breed misanthropy—or an extra relish at least for a good book in one's own room and the path through the woods where one is least likely to meet any one. But if you use the Kursaal sparingly, and reserve it for an hour or two in the evening, it is certainly amusing enough.

I should be very sorry to underestimate the entertainment to be found in observing the comings and goings of a multifarious European crowd, or the number of suggestions and conclusions which, with a desultory logic of its own, the process contributes to one's philosophy of life. Every one who prefers to sit in a chair and look rather than walk up and down and be looked at, may be assumed to possess this intellectual treasure. The observations of the "cultivated American" bear chiefly, I think, upon the great topic of national idiosyncrasies. He is apt to have a keener sense of them than Europeans; it matters more to his imagination that his neighbor is English, French, or German. He often seems to me to be a creature wandering aloof, but half naturalized himself. His neighbors are outlined, defined, imprisoned, if you will, by their respective national moulds, pleasing or otherwise; but his own type has not hardened yet into the Old-World bronze. Superficially, no people carry more signs and tokens of what they are than Americans. I recognize them as they advance by the whole length of the promenade. The signs, however, are all of the negative kind, and seem to assure you, first of all, that the individual belongs to a country in which the social atmosphere, like the material, is extremely thin. American women, for the most part, in compliance with an instinct certainly not ungraceful, fill out the ideal mould with wonderful Paris dresses; but their dresses do little toward completing them, characterizing them, shelving and labelling them socially. The usual English lady, marching heavily about under the weight of her ingenious bad taste, has indescribably more the air of what one may call a social factor—the air of social responsibility, of having a part to play and a battle to fight. Sometimes, when the battle has been hard, the lady's face is very grim and unlovely, and I prefer the listless, rustling personality of my countrywomen; at others, when the cause has been graceful and the victory easy, she has a robust amenity which is one of the most agreeable things in the world. But these are metaphysical depths, though in strictness they ought not to be out of the way as one sits among German pipes and beer. The smokers and drinkers are the solid element at the Kursaal—the dominant tone is the German tone. It comes home very forcibly to the sense of our observant American, and it pervades, naturally enough, all his impressions of Homburg. People have come to feel strongly within the last four years that they must take the German tone into account, and they will find nothing here to lighten the task. If you have not been used to it, if you don't particularly relish it, you doubtless deserve some sympathy; but I advise you not to shirk it, to face it frankly as a superior critic would, and to call if necessary for a pipe and beer also, and build yourself into good humor with it. It is very pleasant, in an unfamiliar country, to collect travellers' evidence on local manners and national character. You are sure to have some vague impressions to be confirmed, some ingenious theory to be illustrated, some favorite prejudice in any case to be revived and improved. Even if your opportunities for observation are of the commonest kind, you find them serving your purpose. The smallest things become significant and eloquent, and demand a place in your note-book. I have learned no especial German secrets, I have penetrated into the bosom of no German families; but somehow I have received—I constantly receive—a weighty impression of Germany. It keeps me company as I walk in the woods and fields, and sits beside me—not precisely as a black care, but with an influence, as it were, which reminds one of the aftertaste of those articles of diet which you eat because they are good for you and not because you like them—when at last, of an evening, I have found the end of a bench on the promenade behind the Kursaal. One's impression of Germany may or may not be agreeable, but there is very little doubt that it is what one may call highly nutritive. In detail, it would take long to say what it consists of. I think that, in general, in such matters attentive observation confirms the common fame, and that you are very likely to find a people on your travels what you found them described to be under the mysterious woodcut in some Peter Parley task-book or play-book of your childhood. The French are a light, pleasure-loving people; ten years of the Boulevards brings no essential amendment to the phrase. The Germans are heavy and fair-haired, deep drinkers and strong thinkers; a fortnight at Homburg doesn't reverse the formula. The only thing to be said is that, as you grow older, French lightness and German weightiness become more complex ideas. A few weeks ago I left Italy in that really demoralized condition into which Italy throws those confiding spirits who give her unlimited leave to please them. Beauty, I had come to believe, was an exclusively Italian possession, the human face was not worth looking at unless redeemed by an Italian smile, nor the human voice worth listening to unless attuned to Italian vowels. A landscape was no landscape without vines festooned to fig-trees swaying in a hot wind—a mountain a hideous excrescence unless melting off into a Tuscan haze. But now that I have absolutely exchanged vines and figs for corn and cabbages, and violet Apennines for the homely plain of Frankfort, and liquids for gutturals, and the Italian smile for the German grin, I am much better contented than I could have ventured to expect. I have shifted my standard of beauty, but it still commands a glimpse of the divine idea.

There is something here, too, which pleases, suggests, and satisfies. Sitting of an evening in the Kurgarten, within ear-shot of the music, you have an almost inspiring feeling that you never have in Italy—a feeling that the substantial influences about you are an element of the mysterious future. They are of that varied order which seems to indicate the large needs of large natures. From its pavilion among the trees ring out the notes of the loud orchestra, playing Mozart, Beethoven, and Weber—such music as no

other people has composed, as no other people can play it. Round about in close groups sit the sturdy, prosperous natives, with their capacious heads, their stout necks, their deep voices, their cigars, their beer, their intelligent applause, their talk on all things—largely enjoying, and yet strongly intending. Far away in the middle starlight stretch the dusky woods whose gentle murmur, we may suppose, unfolds here and there to a fanciful German ear some prophetic legend of a still larger success and a still richer Fatherland. The success of the Fatherland one sees reflected more or less vividly in all true German faces, and the relation between the face and the success seems demonstrated by a logic so unerring as to make envy vain. It is not the German success I envy, but the powerful German temperament and the comprehensive German brain. With these advantages one needn't be restless; one can afford to give a good deal of time to sitting out under the trees over pipes and beer and discussion tinged with metaphysics. But success of course is most forcibly embodied in the soldiers and officers who now form so large a proportion of every German group. You see them at all times lounging soberly about the gardens; you look at them (I do, at least) with a great deal of impartial deference, and you find in them something which seems a sort of pre-established negation of an adversary's chances. Compared with the shabby little unripe conscripts of France and Italy, they are indeed a solid brilliant phalanx. They are generally of excellent stature, and they have faces in which the look of education has not spoiled the look of good-natured simplicity. They are all equipped in bran-new uniforms, and in these warm days they stroll about in spotless white trowsers. Many of them wear their fine blonde beards, and they all look like perfect soldiers and excellent fellows. It doesn't do, of course, for an officer to seem too much like a good fellow, and the young captains and adjutants who ornament the Kurgarten of an evening seldom err in this direction. But they are business-like warriors to a man, and in their dark-blue uniforms and crimson facings, with their swords depending from their unbelted waists through a hole in their plain surtouts, they seem to suggest that war is somehow a better economy than peace.

But with all this, I am giving you Hamlet with Hamlet himself omitted. Though the gaming is stopped, the wells have not dried up, and people still drink them, and find them very good. They are indeed a very palatable dose, and "medical advice" at Homburg flatters one's egotism so unblushingly as rather to try the faith of people addicted to the old-fashioned confusion between the beneficial and the disagreeable. You have indeed to get up at half-past six o'clock—but of a fine summer morning this is no great hardship—and you are rewarded on your arrival at the spring by triumphant strains of music. There is an orchestra perched hard by, which plays operatic selections while you pace the shady walks and wait for your second glass. All the Homburg world is there; it's the fashionable hour; and at first I paid the antique prejudice just mentioned the tribute of thinking it was all too frivolous to be salutary. There are half a dozen springs, scattered through a charming wooded park, where you may find innumerable shady strolls and rustic benches in bosky nooks, where it is pleasant to lounge with a good light book. In the afternoon I drink at a spring with whose luxurious prettiness I still find it hard to associate a doctor's prescription. It reminds me of a back-scene at the theatre, and I feel as if I were drinking some fictitious draught prepared by the property-man; or rather, being a little white temple rising on slim columns among still green shade, it reminds me of some spot in the antique world where the goddess Hygeia was worshipped by thirsty pilgrims; and I am disappointed to find that the respectable young woman who dips my glass is not a ministering nymph in a tunic and sandals. Beyond this valley of healing waters lie the great woods of fir and birch and beech and oak which cover the soft slopes of the Taunus. They are full of pleasant paths and of the frequent benches which testify to the German love of sitting in the open air. I don't know why it is—because, perhaps, we have all read so many Teutonic legends and ballads—but it comes natural in Germany to be in a wood. One need have no very rare culture, indeed, to find a vague old friendship in every feature of the landscape. The villages with their peaked roofs, covered with red scolloped shingles, and the brown beams making figures on the plastered cottage walls, the grape-vine on the wall, the swallows in the eaves, the Hausfrau, sickle in hand, with her yellow hair in a top-knot and her short blue skirt showing her black stockings—what is it all but a background to one of Richter's charming woodcuts? I never see a flock of geese on the roadside, and a little tow-pated maiden driving them with a forked switch, without thinking of Grimm's household tales. I look around for the old crone who is to come and inform her she is a king's daughter. I see nothing but the white Kaiserliche Deutsche sign-post, telling one that this is such and such a district of the Landwehr. But with such easy magic as this I am perhaps right in not especially regretting that the late enchantress of the Kursaal should have been handed over to the police.

Correspondence.

THE NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL CONVENTION AND PRESIDENT ELIOT'S REPORT.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: The reception which President Eliot's able essay on a National University has received from the press and the public must be highly gratifying to every thoughtful American. Yet it is also highly desirable that the relation of the Convention to this report should not be misapprehended. As a constant attendant at the sessions of the Convention, I can safely say that this report, *in extenso*, no more represents the opinion of the Convention than the former work of Professor Hoyt did. President Eliot's paper was simply received by the Department of Higher Instruction as an able exposition of one side of the question; and while nearly every person present was convinced of the impracticability and inexpediency of any such scheme at present, it was also manifest that the majority of college presidents and professors composing the Department did not agree with its arguments in regard to the question of the Government, State or National, contributing to the support of higher education among the people. In the discussion which followed the reading of the paper, the President of the University of Missouri, who was chairman of the Department, Dr. McCosh of Princeton, and others, dissented in strong terms from the position taken by the President of Harvard, both on the main question and the side issues.

In the general meeting of the Convention a resolution was passed, declaring it the sense of the representatives of education assembled from all parts of the country, that the 90,000,000 acres of public land still unsold should be appropriated to assist the cause of education in the States and Territories. Dr. McCosh's able paper on Upper Schools closed with a recommendation that these lands should be devoted to the encouragement of secondary schools—that is, academies preparatory to colleges.

The true merit of President Eliot's paper is that it has opened the eyes of many to the momentous questions really involved in a plausible scheme of enlisting the support of the General Government in behalf of education. The more these questions are discussed, and the more enlightened the views of the public become in regard to them, the better for the cause of education. But so far, the large majority of the educators of the youth of our land are silently or openly opposed to President Eliot's views. Personally, I may say that I endorse President Eliot's arguments in the main, but I think justice requires the foregoing statement to be made. J. P. L.

Philadelphia, August 25, 1873

NOTE ON A PASSAGE IN SHAKESPEARE.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: In 'The Tragedie of Anthony and Cleopatra,' A. v. S. ii. ll. 86–88, Cleopatra says of Antony:

> "For his Bounty,
> There was no winter in 't. An Anthony it was,
> That grew the more by reaping."

This is the reading of the First Folio, 1623, in which the Tragedy, so far as is known, appeared for the first time. The "Cambridge" editors adopt Theobald's "emendation," "an autumn 'twas."

If "An Anthony it was" is not right, "an autumn 'twas" is certainly wrong. It is too tame for the intensely impassioned speech in which it occurs, or rather into which it has been introduced by the editors. Again, if "autumn" could, by metonymy, be wrenched to mean the crops of autumn, it could hardly be said that an autumn *grows* the more by reaping. But this reading of Theobald has been silently adopted by all subsequent editors, without any consideration of its tameness or of the resultant incongruity.

I think the dear old Folio is right, as it is sometimes (though some editors are very loath to admit it, especially if there be a different Quarto reading), and that there is a *quibble* in the speech that has been overlooked. It is a patent fact in regard to the manifold and multiform quibbles in the plays of Shakespeare, that they are often indulged in by his characters while in the highest intensity of mind and feeling. The poet has been blamed for this, especially by the critics of the "correct" school, and his defenders have found some excuse for it in the general quibbling propensity of the writers of his time. But the best excuse for it is that it is true to nature, although I would not explain it on the theory set forth by Bucknill in his 'Psychology of Shakespeare,' namely, that "when the mind is wrought to an excessive pitch of emotion, the instinct of self-preservation indicates some lower mode of mental activity as the one thing needful."

To return now to the passage in question: "An Anthony it was"; "it"

stands, of course, for "Bounty." His Bounty was an *Anthony*, "that grew the more by reaping."

Now, could the "less Greek" which, Ben Jonson tells us, Shakespeare possessed, have enabled him to see in "Anthony" the word *ἄνθος*? His Bounty had no winter in it; it was a mead of perennial luxuriance, affording a *flowering* pasturage (Ἀνθόνομος), and "that grew the more by reaping."

HIRAM CORSON.

CORNELL UNIVERSITY, ITHACA, N.Y., August 22, 1873.

Notes.

IT is stated on the authority of the *Times* that Mr. E. M. Archibald, British Consul at this port, has been requested by his Government to ascertain if there are any libraries or public institutions in this district which wish to receive a set of the publications of the Cobden Club. These the Club is willing to give away, and Mr. Archibald will at once attend to such applications for them as may be addressed to him. Whether other parts of the country are to be made the theatre of the Club's efforts, which are of course put forth in the interest of enlightenment on politico-economical subjects, we do not know. The contradictory or protectionist propaganda is attended to by a Pennsylvania society, which distributes gratuitously works by Mr. Henry C. Carey (four volumes), Dr. William Elder, Sir John Byles, Hon. William D. Kelley, Sir Edward Sullivan, Mr. E. P. Smith, Mr. A. Stuart.——A correspondent who asks for the title of Professor Cairnes's "masterly exposition of the causes of our late civil war," is informed that it is the 'Slave Power: an Attempt to explain the Real Issues involved in the American Contest.' A reprint was published in this city in 1862.——The veteran Dr. S. Wells Williams has, we learn from the Shanghai *Budget* of July 5, "completed the main portion of his new Dictionary of the Chinese Language, which embodies the results of his Chinese studies for forty years." It will fill about 1,150 pages of three-columned quarto, giving explanations of 12,500 Chinese characters. It is the first work of any importance which has been electrotyped or stereotyped in China.

—The sixth annual report of the Peabody Museum of American Archæology and Ethnology (Cambridge) is well worth the attention of students inasmuch as it is a sort of group catalogue of the collections put on exhibition during the past year. The Museum can hardly be said to be richer in American antiquities than in those of other parts of the world, and already it affords the best opportunities for the study of prehistoric remains and of comparative craniology in all the principal fields of modern research. The most important addition made since the last report has been Col. Theodore Lyman's gift of the Nicolucci collection, containing a large number of Italian skulls dating from the first century to the present day, besides 790 stone implements, of which the curator gives some very interesting details. These were chiefly found in the southern half of the Italian peninsula, nearly thirty being from "the alluvial gravel beds of the Tiber at Ponte Molle, near the city of Rome." The existence of these relics of the stone age in Italy had escaped the attention of archæologists till quite recently:

"Only a few years since," says the report, "the eminent German historian, Mommsen, in his 'History of Rome,' while discussing the origin of the early inhabitants of Italy, states that 'nothing has as yet come to light which would justify us in concluding that the existence of man in Italy is of older date than the knowledge of agriculture and the smelting of metals; and if within the boundaries of Italy the human race was at one time in the condition we are in the habit of distinguishing as savage, every trace, at all events, of such a state has disappeared.'"

This passage, which at the time it was written would have been as true (and as mistaken) of Greece, seems to us to have an important bearing on Mommsen's value as an authority in the Pelasgic discussion to which Mr. Stillman returns on another page. Under the employ of the Museum, Mr. Henry Gillman has made some profitable explorations of the mounds on the St. Clair River, Michigan, and his narrative is embodied in this report. In one instance a skeleton was found under a decayed oak stump whose roots had in many cases penetrated the bones, and then burst them, the fragments still surrounding the root and often becoming imbedded in it in its subsequent growth. Specimens of this curious phenomenon were secured and forwarded.

—In speaking of Mr. Eliot's report on the National University scheme the other day, we were unable, for want of space, to allude to one or two extremely interesting details connected with university education. This, as every one knows, is an era of reform, and it is an era of bad and ill-considered as well as of good reform. Some of the gentlemen who have university reform at heart have of late urged upon the attention of the public the advantages of the "fee-system" in colleges. The fee-system is the system of eking out the usually scanty salaries of professors by fees from students, and, like the National University scheme itself, is an importation. The plan is at first sight taking, and in Mr. Howe's bill it is provided that the national professors "shall receive salaries varying from $1,000 to $2,500 a year, and that each professor may also exact a fee of ten dollars a year from each student attending his course." Mr. Eliot says, however, that the plan is a very bad one. Under it "the professors of popular subjects might thrive," but it is greatly to be feared that the gentlemen who occupied the chair of palæontology and the professors of the Coptic language, Oriental philosophy, Sanscrit, and ecclesiastical law would starve to death. Besides this, "neither students nor teachers in this country like the fee-system. It has worked well in Germany, but has never been domesticated here except in medical schools, where it has done a great deal of harm. It creates a disagreeable money relation between teacher and student, and introduces into a faculty illiberal contentio ."

—Besides the fee-system, Mr. Eliot refers to two popular delusions relating to the scientific study of agriculture—one of which is known as that of the model farm, while the other might be called the fallacy of the model farmer. The model farm is an institution established in connection with an agricultural college, on which the scientific agricultural student may, after or before he has devoted some five or six hours to intellectual labor, hoe, dig, plow, sow, reap, thrash, or mow, in application of the instruction conveyed to him by his books. The object of the plan is to unite scientific with practical knowledge in such proportions that the alumnus of a model farm may himself be a model farmer, who will occupy a relation to the previous tribe of farmers very like that which the model editor, who has been educated in a school of journalism, will occupy to the existing race of editors. Mr. Eliot, however, is very sceptical on this subject. He says that "the model farm, like the model machine-shop, is almost universally a model of nothing but misapplied labor, misdirected experimentation, and unprofitable investment. It can be useful to the young agriculturist only as a warning; it can teach him how to spend money, but not how to make money on a farm." He also says that the tuition provided for the model farmer by agricultural colleges is based upon the delusion that a life of hard and paying farm-work can go on side by side with intellectual culture. On the model farm the young man is made to believe that by laboring four hours a day he can pay for his board, lodging, clothing, and tuition. As a matter of fact, however, he is living on charity—a fact which he is likely to discover as soon as he begins work on the actual farm, where he has to sell his own crops to support himself. All model farms are really eleemosynary farms, while they pretend not to be.

"It is this disguise which makes the general method so well fitted to breed shirks. There lurks in all devices of this sort the notion that study and thinking are not physical exertions; so that after prolonged study a man may be just as fit for physical labor as if he had not worked with his brains. This is a profound mistake, which has real danger for conscientious and ambitious youth; such young persons may easily be betrayed by this false opinion into disastrous over-exertion. What is called mental labor is really the most exhausting, continuous physical exertion which men can make, although the sense of fatigue from an excess of what is called brain-work is generally not so irresistible at the moment as the fatigue caused by too much hammering, hoeing, or walking."

—It is a fact not to be lost sight of, says Dr. J. C. Toner, of Washington, that the proportion between the number of American children under fifteen years of age, and the number of American women between the childbearing ages of fifteen and fifty, is declining steadily. In 1830, there were to every 1,000 marriageable women 1,952 children under fifteen years of age. Ten years later, there were 1,863, or 89 less children to every thousand women than in 1830. In 1850, this number had declined to 1,720; in 1860, to 1,666; and, in 1870, to 1,568. The total decline in the forty years was 384, or about 20 per cent. of the whole proportional number in 1830, a generation ago. The United States census of 1870 shows that there is in the city of New York but one child under fifteen years of age to each thousand nubile women, "when there ought to be three"; and the same is true of our other large cities. In view of these facts, and others which have the same bearing and point to a decrease of vital power in American infants, Dr. Toner urges the establishment of "free sanitariums" all over the country to which children may be taken in hot weather. Each of these should be a well-wooded park of two or three thousand acres in extent, at an elevation ensuring the absence of malaria; accessible; abundantly supplied with pure water; governed by proper and fixed rules of admission and for the preservation of order and health; managed by "a recognized sanitarian"; and improved by the erection of cheap tenements and boarding-houses, to be occupied free of rent

by such of the poorer classes of our large cities as have sick or debilitated children. This scheme, Dr. Toner thinks, would secure the approval of the medical profession, and should secure the favor of the legislator and the statesman, and he maintains that it is entirely feasible. How desirable it would be, if it were feasible, a momentary glance at the mortuary statistics of our large cities will show: the number of deaths occurring in these is increased from one-fourth to one-half by the mortality among children of less than five years old. The Health Reports of the City of Providence from 1856 to 1870 show that 35·48 per cent. of the deaths were deaths of children under five years of age; but, while in 1856 this percentage was all but 46 (45·91), in 1870 it was 36·72; and this result was due to the enforcement of good hygienic regulations. In St. Louis the Health Report for 1871 makes the infant mortality of the city no less than 51·10 per cent.; in Cincinnati, in 1868, it was 46·68 per cent.; in Washington, taking the report for 1849, 1852, and 1858, it was 46·44 per cent.; in Baltimore, for the decade from 1850 to 1860, it was 45·54 per cent.; in New York, from the period from 1804 to 1853, it was 48·79 per cent., and in the four years from 1866 to 1870, it was 50·45; in Chicago, from 1843 to 1869, it was 51·24 per cent.; in Philadelphia, from 1858 to 1870, it was 45·54 per cent.; in Boston, in the five years from 1868 to 1872, it was 42·22 per cent., and this was an increase of more than four per cent. (4·35) over the proportion existing in the period from 1807 to 1827, when the number of children who died when less than five years of age constituted 37·87 per cent. of the whole number of persons deceased. Thus, in Boston, Philadelphia, and in New York, we see that the period of the increased proportion of infant mortality to total mortality is coincident with the period of the fast growth of the cities and consequent crowded condition of the poor. Whatever may be the exact value of Dr. Toner's statistics, there is no doubt that we have here a very mournful list, which may well be meditated by the statesman and the philanthropist; and we may feel reasonably sure that the relation between the increasing death-rate of the children and the overcrowding of our cities is to some extent, at least, a relation of cause and effect. One minute of a July day spent in a tenement-house street will convince anybody of that.

—Two years ago (*Nation*, Aug. 3, 1871) we noticed the assertion of a Paris correspondent of one of our city papers in regard to a pretended feudal privilege. "This was the right of the lord on returning from the chase to cut open one serf for the purpose of warming his feet in the entrails." We then suggested that perhaps Mr. Carlyle was responsible for the genesis of this fiction, which had likely grown out of a confusion between *cerf* (a stag) and *serf*. In the July number of the Paris *Polybiblion*, Notes and Queries department, enquiry is anxiously made for the author of this "atroce et absurde calomnie," viz., to quote the writer's own words, that "un seigneur, revenant de la chasse, était autorisé à faire égorger quelques-uns de ses vassaux afin de se réchauffer les pieds dans leur sang tout fumant"—a more liberal version than the one first cited, inasmuch as the lord is not restricted to *one* serf only. Still another and more precise version is pointed out by the writer as to be found on page 32 of the new edition of 'Les Hébertistes' (1871), a work by Citizen C. Tridon, member of the Paris Commune, as follows: "Connais-tu, Fontraille, ce baron breton qui, au retour de chasse, aimait à enfoncer ses pieds dans les entrailles des filles éventrées?" Here we are referred to a particular seigneur, in Brittany, who was in the habit of warming his feet in the entrails of his vassals, and who preferred for that service young girls to any others. Perhaps to Citizen Tridon is due the honor of this invention, and it is just possible that the correspondent of the New York *Times* had more or less consciously derived his feudal lore from a perusal of 'Les Hébertistes.'

—M. Renan's 'L'Antechrist' is the most prominent, though we should hardly call it the most valuable, of recent French publications. We may remark, in passing, the confusion which the French form of his title has caused among English and American reviewers (or printers). "Antichrist" is the proper translation; "Antechrist" the common and erroneous one. Our Paris correspondent has already done justice to this work. M. Louis Blanc's 'Questions d'aujourd'hui et de demain' is really a collection of articles already published, and by no means, in all cases, recently, and is intended for the first of a series covering Louis Blanc's entire career as a political, metaphysical, and literary writer. Of M. Auguste Laugel's 'L'Angleterre politique et sociale' we hope to speak at some length hereafter. Its place is among the serious and solid products of French thought. In connection with it should be mentioned M. Charles Savary's 'Gouvernement constitutionnel.' The author is a youthful deputy from La Manche, and a firm believer in the utility of constitutions. He gives some valuable electoral statistics for France, and describes the composition of the upper chamber in foreign countries. The latter theme absorbs entirely M. Charles Gomel ('Essai historique sur les Chambres hautes françaises et étrangères') and the Marquis de Biencourt ('Des Chambres hautes, leur composition et leur rôle en Europe et en Amérique—D'une Chambre haute en France'). M. Gomel's essay has a permanent historical interest, and might be bound up with M. F. D. Plouard's chronological text of the 'French Constitutions voted by the Chambers from 1788 to 1870.' The Count de Chambord's affection for the white flag is borne out, as far as any sentiment of that kind can be, by M. Marius Sepet's exhaustive history of the 'Drapeau de la France,' in which it is shown that almost from Charlemagne to the "fatal perversion" of the French Revolution, but "one flag, successively blue, blue with a white cross, blue and white, all white, has continued to preside over the destinies of the country." Whether a tricolored marshal-president like MacMahon can be moved by considerations of this sort remains to be seen. His subordinate, General Vinoy, has published a work on the 'French Army in 1873' and the military resources of France, which French critics find in refreshing contrast with General Trochu's "sensational" monograph, with its disagreeable *mots* from père Bugeaud.

—Baron Hübner's 'Promenade autour du Monde' is the only French book of travels which requires mention, and that not on account of its surpassing accuracy in what the author has to say about this country, but rather because he is a lively and witty narrator. The United States finds a more faithful and a more sympathetic observer in M. Malézieux, an engineer sent out by the Government in 1870 to study the public works executed here within the past thirty years ('Travaux publics des Etats-Unis d'Amérique en 1870'). This report makes a quarto volume of nearly 600 pages, and is accompanied by an atlas with sixty-four plates—a work which would cost the importer seventeen or eighteen dollars. It describes our principal suspension bridges, including the one over the East River, our great railroads, river and lake navigation, municipal works, etc., etc., and includes some general reflections, such as on the very lax system by which nominations to West Point are made. In the department of history, besides the special works above-mentioned, we may name the fifth volume of the 'Archives de la Bastille,' edited by François Ravaisson; the sixth and last volume of inedited letters and documents of Louis XVI., Marie Antoinette, and Madame Elizabeth, by M. Feuillet de Conches; the first volume of a 'History of Troyes during the Revolution,' by M. Albert Bareau; and the laborious and very minute work on 'Abraham Du Quesne and the Marine of his Time,' by A. Jal—a twenty years' study, which has been called "a veritable cyclopædic dictionary of the French marine of the seventeenth century." Those who have read and especially owned (for it is a beautiful specimen of typography) M. Charles de Ribbe's 'Une Famille au XVIe siècle," will be glad to know of a similar work which he has just edited: 'Les Familles et la Société en France avant la Révolution,' and of the Marquis de Godefroy-Menilglaise's memoirs of his own family during the sixteenth, seventeenth, and eighteenth centuries ('Les savants Godefroy'). All these belong in the class of materials *pour servir*, though the aim of their editors is a moral and educational one. M. Guizot's 'Child's History of France' has reached a second volume without yet satisfying his adult readers. A fresh batch of M. Henri d'Ideville's indiscreet diplomatic revelations, 'Journal d'un diplomate en Italie,' takes those who follow him from Turin to Rome (1862–1866), but conveys no higher impression of his political insight than did the preceding volume.

—The threadbare ghost of Lamartine has been resuscitated in his 'Correspondance,' in two volumes, comprising his letters from the time of leaving college to his marriage (1807–1820). It will be found a useful corrective of the poet's later review of his youth. His 'Poésies inédites' is not regarded with the same favor, and scarcely as a book with a *raison d'être*. However, to show the difference of opinion of different critics, a French reviewer censures the editor for printing the first draft of the *Lac*, showing numerous variations from the final form become classic, while a writer in the *Academy* is delighted to recover thereby two fine stanzas whose omission had by no means improved the poem—indeed, had left a very perceptible gap. Since we are on the subject of poetry, we may mention Mme. de Witt's 'Recueil de poésies à l'usage des jeunes filles,' though it is rather carelessly edited. Two solid art publications are M. Adolphe Lance's 'Dictionary of French Architects,' with engravings of sixty-nine seals worn by as many members of the profession, and the fourth volume of M. Viollet-le-Duc's 'Dictionnaire raisonné du mobilier français,' being the conclusion of "Civil and Religious Dress." An interesting contribution to the history of glass-making is 'Les Verreries de la Normandie,' by O. Le Vaillant de la Fièffe. It should not be out of place to record here an Italian work of some circumstance, called 'France and Italy,' by Carlo Morbio, which is an account of French MSS. in Italian libraries. Unfortunately, it cannot pretend to completeness, and it lacks a serviceable index; but much may be forgiven to it as the labor of thirty years.

—It has been difficult heretofore to collect statistical information about the progress of literature in Greece, but now quite a fair view can be obtained from a bulletin issued monthly in Athens by the eminent publishing house of Andrew Koromelas. The first year, Jan.-Dec., 1872, is bound into a volume of 16+118 pp. small 8vo. The design of the publisher is not only to record every new book and pamphlet printed in Modern Greek, but also to make known to his countrymen some of the principal foreign books relating to their country or their ancient literature. Of the 352 titles, 96 are of strictly foreign books, and 19 others are only repetitions of the title of periodicals, so that the true number of Greek publications registered for the year is 237. 27 of the whole number were printed out of the kingdom of Greece; namely, 12 in Turkey, and the remaining 15 in the cities of Alexandria, Braïla, Odessa, St. Petersburg, Venice, Trieste, Leipzig, Marseilles, Paris, and London. There are 29 translations, besides revisals from the ancient Greek of Homer, Euripides, etc.; 17 are law-books, 15 theological, and 4 medical; 14 are constitutions and by-laws of banks, mining, and other companies, the year having been prolific of joint-stock enterprises. The questions of the Laurian mines and of the Bulgarian schism called forth several essays. Among the periodicals are an agricultural monthly in its first year, a medical in its second year, two literary monthlies, one bi-monthly, and four published twice a month. As to the completeness of this catalogue, it is not probable that any important book has escaped the notice of the publisher even in his first year's effort; but, from the great number of presses in Greece, it is too much to expect that all the small pamphlets would be recorded. We have seen two or three which are not named in the catalogue, and presume that there have been enough others to make the complete list number at least 300. The bulletin has been issued for three months of 1873, with 86 titles, of which 31 are foreign.

—Among the modern Greek books of 1872 may be mentioned the first and third volumes, together exceeding 1,200 pages, of the 'Mediæval Library' of unpublished Byzantine writers, edited by K. N. Sathas. In Vol. I. are included catalogues of MSS. at Mt. Athos and in Constantinople. Several school-books have the sanction of the active Society for the Dissemination of Greek Letters, established in the spring of 1869. The census of 1870 is published by the Government in a well-digested shape. The annual reports of the university appear as usual, as also the public orations of the retiring prytanis and his successor. The latter is this year accompanied by the stirring poem of A. Balaorites on the unveiling of the statue of the patriarch Gregory V. This poem, one of the chief literary successes of the year, though of only 137 lines, is written in the dialect of the author's Leucadian home. In the 1872 catalogue, too, another noteworthy book is 'Modern Greek Mythology,' by N. G. Polites, which in an incomplete state received a thousand-drachma prize in May, 1871. In archæology, the first volume of the 'Catalogue of the Ancient Coins of the National Museum' is a thorough and scholarly work. Following the usual geographical order, it ends with the kings of Macedonia. It is probably in the subsequent part, including central Greece, that the chief riches of the collection will be described. An independent volume was printed in 1868 of the coins of the seven Ionian Islands. It was expected by some that Prof. K. Paparrhegopulos would have published this year the fifth and last volume of his 'History of the Greek Race.' But last volumes of a history are apt to be delayed, and the Professor's severe family bereavement may have interrupted his labors. He does not claim scientific merits for his work, but his point of view, as a Greek of to-day looking back on 3,000 years of wonderful life in a straight vista behind him, shows a new unity in the story. The captions of his fifteen books are as follows: 1. Mythic times; 2. Early historic times; 3. Median wars and hegemony of Athens; 4. Peloponnesian war and the hegemony of Sparta; 5. Hegemony of Thebes and the decay of the first Hellenism; 6. Macedonian Hellenism—Philip and Alexander; 7. Their successors; 8. Roman dominion; 9. Dishellenizing of the Eastern Empire; 10. Byzantine Hellenism—the iconoclasts; 11. Macedonian dynasty; 12. The Comneni. Yet to be published are: 13. Frank dominion—the Palæologi; 14. Turkish dominion; and 15. Hellenism of our own time.

A FRENCH STUDY OF AMERICAN POLITICS.*

EVENTS move so rapidly nowadays that perhaps the name of the Marquis de Chambrun is already unfamiliar to the public. It was only two years ago, however, that his name was public property—almost as well known as those of the two Senators to whom, in his preface, he acknowledges himself under obligation in the preparation of this *étude*, Mr. Sumner and Mr. Schurz. M. de Chambrun is the gentleman who, at the time of the formal declaration of war between the Administration and the opposition in the Senate, was supposed to have conveyed information to the opposition in regard to the French arms sale, and was usually referred to in Administration speeches as a foreign emissary, and indirectly accused of conspiring with these two Senators in their attack on the conduct of the Government. Having been in this country for several years, during a period of great political activity and excitement, M. de Chambrun has had ample opportunities for observation and enquiry. The spirit of his work is philosophical, and its scope coextensive with an examination of the history, progress, and tendencies of American constitutional government. The present volume on the executive power is to be followed by three others, one of which is to be devoted to the discussion of the national sovereignty, and what is called in France the "pouvoir constituant," another to the legislative, and another to the judicial power. The present volume will thus apparently be the second of the series.

M. de Chambrun has done his work with care and sense. Taking the 'Federalist' for his guide, and supplying himself with current information, both out of his own experience and that of Mr. Sumner, Mr. Schurz, and Mr. Caleb Cushing, he has produced a treatise on the executive power of considerable ability. There is little or no originality in the book, but it may be doubted whether originality in studies of American politics of this kind is either desirable or likely to appear at the present day. There has been no work on politics since the 'Federalist' which can be said to have added much to the science of constitution-making; and the 'Federalist' itself was a purely practical treatise, devoted to the explanation of a scheme of government confessedly a compromise, entirely satisfactory to nobody, and adopted by practical politicians without much hope of permanence. At the present time, both in England and America—the two countries which, if domestic peace be taken as the test, have exhibited in modern times the greatest political sagacity—the attention of thinking people is far more directed to the social changes produced by the "modern movement" than to the political.

M. de Chambrun is of the old school, though not entirely of the old school. Indeed, we may say that his study of American politics has brought him to conclusions with regard to practical questions which are in the main dictated by considerations such as would suggest themselves to an American; but there is in the speculative part of his work sometimes a tendency to treat politics, as if it were an exact science, in the mathematical or perhaps rather mechanical way which would be pursued through a study of the resultant forces of human action—each citizen being considered as a mechanical unit, governed by political laws corresponding to those of matter. For example, in discussing centralization, after referring to Hamilton's plan of a highly centralized government, and comparing his views on the subject of popular sovereignty with those of Jefferson, the author says, evidently having in mind existing political facts, that if the country were moving towards the pit of centralization, it would probably be in the local State organizations that we should see the first indications of it: "It might be that, first at one point, and then at another, corruption would insinuate itself in the local governments; then institutions now vigorous would be exposed to rapid decay. The day when the people were no longer capable of maintaining them in the plenitude of their force, they would naturally turn their eyes to the Federal Government; the local governments having become inadequate to their own needs, would be driven into demanding of the central power the substitution of itself for them." In this way the ideas of Hamilton would justify themselves (p. 349).

This argument, which is for political students a very old and familiar one, is, we believe, founded upon an obscurely imagined analogy between the relations of the States to the United States and the relation between the planets to the sun. The planets revolve autonomically about the sun because of the equilibrium between the centripetal and centrifugal forces; the States revolve about the Federal power because of the nicely balanced forces of the political system devised by the founders of the American government. Local self-government corresponds to the centrifugal force. The centralizing tendency of any Administration corresponds to the centripetal. Not that this analogy was even present to M. de Chambrun's mind in writing his treatise, but that it has always unconsciously presided over the speculations of political writers. It is one of the most natural analogies that can suggest itself to the mind. There is also a good deal of reason for it. If the human beings living in the United States were really material units, the loss of local self-governing force would undoubtedly be accompanied by an increase of the correlative attraction. But the units are human beings, and these human beings are capable of acting in different ways. In the case supposed by M. de Chambrun, these human units may say to themselves, "It is very true that our local governments are not well managed; that there is a great deal of corruption and malad-

* 'Le Pouvoir Executif aux Etats-Unis: Etude de Droit Constitutionnel. Par M. Adolphe de Chambrun.' Rouse's Point, N. Y.: Imprimé et publié par John Lovell. 1873.

ministration; but it does not appear that the central government is much better. The party which governs here governs there also; the money which corrupts here is to be found also there. Of what use would it be to have a more centralized government if it is merely a more distant and by no means a purer government than we have now?" The people may then take one of many courses of action. They may revolt and sever their connection with the central government; they may, through a united action of many States, reverse the direction in which the government has been moving, and compel a dissolution of the centralizing forces. The struggle at Albany a few months since between the "Custom-house ring" and the New York Reform party was a struggle between centralization and local government, carried on for the possession of a city perhaps the most corrupt—it is generally corruption on which the analogy bases itself—in the United States. The Administration party had by no means the sympathy of the friends of good government, who did not, as they ought theoretically to have done, turn their eyes to Washington for help out of the slough. On the contrary, they resented and defeated the interference of the Federal politicians.

There are other considerations connected with this question which are habitually overlooked by political writers. The centralization of one period is not by any means the centralization of the next. To take, as an example, the Post-Office: never since the foundation of the government has there been any serious outcry against the enormous centralizing influence of this department. Looking at the matter in the abstract, one would say that the possession of the Post-Office by the central power was exceedingly dangerous to the liberties of the citizen. That each person should be obliged, when he wishes to communicate rapidly with another, to place his communication in the hands of the Administration, and trust to the honor of those in power that it will be forwarded to its destination—this seems monstrous; and, more monstrous still, there is no remedy against the department for breach of the trust. What is to prevent the minions of power, as the members of the civil service are usually called in discussions of this sort, from making the honest and economical distribution of the mails depend entirely on the political support of those who use them? There is no doubt that the Post-Office, if it had existed in its present form three hundred years ago, would have been systematically used as an engine of oppression, and that what are now scandals would have then been real terrors. There are many reasons for this difference, one of them being that three hundred years ago the same power which would have distributed the mails would also have had an overwhelming military force at its back. In the United States there is no such force. Another reason is to be found in the fact that the existence of the railroad and telegraphic system, combined with the multiplication of newspapers and periodicals, has brought the entire country within such a narrow compass that for many practical purposes the United States is not so large now as the State of New York was a hundred years ago, and a great deal of the old-fashioned talk about centralization is as out of place as it would have been if applied to the relation between Albany and Cattaraugus County. It is remarkable how little these changes are taken into account. Mr. Hare, in his work on representation, is one of the few modern political writers who recognize the new light thrown by them upon all questions of government.

All discussions about such matters as centralization, "co-ordinate and independent" powers, or the machinery of representation, lead to little unless they are preceded by and based upon a study of the actual condition and history of the society with reference to which they are carried on. The truth of this proposition M. de Chambrun thoroughly recognizes, though he at times lapses from its application. As an illustration of his perception of this fundamental truth, we may refer to the wise warning he gives French readers not to be led away into the belief that because a republic has worked well in America, therefore it is suited to all other countries. He insists on the unquestionable fact that the men who founded the government were not aiming at establishing what now goes by the name of "The Republic." They had the Republic as little in their minds as they had the Revolution or the Commune. They desired to arrange a government which would replace the government they had overthrown, and they based their new plan on a lifelong empirical study of the country they meant to govern.

"It is difficult to find in the writings of the times an explanation, of a nature to satisfy the mind, as to the manner in which the 'republican form of government' was adopted by the United States. A few years before his death, Thomas Jefferson took care to prepare for publication memoirs in which he has recounted the part which he took in the struggle of the thirteen colonies, in the declaration of independence, and the events which ensued. The word republic does not once make its appearance in this work" (p. 10).

The truth was that most of the leading men of the time were sentimentally attached to the English monarchy, and with regard to forms of government were probably inclined, like most veteran politicians and statesmen, to look upon them with a sceptical eye, and to doubt whether Pope had not after all been right in allotting to fools discussions about political forms, and to wise men discussions of practical remedies for evils of administration. It had been the corrupt and oppressive administration of England, not the monarchy, for which they had sadly broken with the past. Another illustration of the same good sense may be found in M. de Chambrun's mode of treating the proposition to engraft upon the American system a responsible ministry, after the English fashion. He points out, as we have often done in these columns, that a responsible ministry would, in our system, be utterly incongruous. The English Ministry is a Parliamentary committee which has really absolute administrative power, though it governs in the name of the crown. In America, the executive power being in the hands of an elective and responsible President, the circumstances are totally different. The erection of a responsible ministry would increase the power of Congress, and at the same time diminish that of the President, and it would completely upset the balance of power established by the Constitution. The English system is a gradual growth of the English constitution, and has no more fitness for the American Government than the substitution of French prefects for the governors of States would have.

It is impossible for us to examine in detail all the practical conclusions at which M. de Chambrun arrives in the course of his examination of the executive power. His discussions include such subjects as the election of the President and Vice-President, the constitution of the executive power, the organization of the departments, and the subordinate official system; the relations of the President with Congress; the right of declaring war (a valuable chapter); the relations of the President with the judiciary; the Senate considered as an executive council; the relations of the President with the State; the condition of the Executive Power under Mr. Lincoln; and the impeachment of Mr. Johnson. In case of a new edition, we should advise M. de Chambrun to revise carefully his chapter on Mr. Lincoln's Administration. Although this and the succeeding chapter give on the whole a fair picture of the changes which took place in the executive power between 1860 and the time of the complete defeat by Congress of Mr. Johnson's plan of reconstruction, what is said about the "war power" would be apt to give a foreign reader a very misleading idea of the Constitution. The war was necessarily carried on outside the Constitution, for the reason that the Constitution never contemplated such an intestine tumult as secession produced. It was one of the chief marks of Mr. Lincoln's greatness as a statesman that though the circumstances of the time compelled him to govern himself by other rules than those furnished by the fundamental law, he always succeeded, by instinct, in selecting the most practical of those which offered themselves. The constitutional theories of Mr. Charles Sumner and Mr. William Whiting might serve his turn for the moment, but he was far too wise a man to imagine those theories anything more than makeshifts.

THE MAGAZINES FOR SEPTEMBER.

OF all the vast quantity that has been written about the Patrons of Husbandry and the Farmers' Granges, next to nothing has removed any of the popular ignorance in regard to these subjects. Most of the writers who have handled them have been political editors writing in a sort of political interregnum, and not only that, but in the hot weather and the "silly season," and the result of their labors is that while everybody suspects the "embattled farmers" to be meditating something important, nobody knows exactly what it may be, and nobody feels sure that in point of fact they are meditating anything. Some attention, then, will be attracted to an article in the September *Lippincott's* entitled "The Patrons of Husbandry," in which a Patron, or rather a Patroness, tells what she knows of the character and aims of the new societies. She does not make it clear that there is much to be known, but what she tells is interesting. It was not, she says, "in a community of Scotch farmers in North Carolina that the movement had its origin. Some have said so, but the order is not the outgrowth, directly or indirectly, of any pre-existing organization. So far as is now known, it is the result of a suggestion made by a lady to Mr. O. H. Kelley, at present the Secretary of the National Grange, and the person who has done most to establish the order as it exists to-day. Why, said this lady, cannot the farmers protect themselves by a national organization, as do the other trades and professions?" This seed fell into fertile soil. Mr. Kelley at once began travelling about the country, preaching the new doctrine to the farmers, who, however, were slow to accept it. It was six years ago that Mr. Kelley entered upon his mission, but it is only since 1870 that the growth of the association has been great. Within these three years, however, it has been marvellous— growth "unheard of in the history of secret or other organization,

in this country or the world." "The discussion of party politics," says our author, Miss Marie Howland, "is excluded from the order by common consent as well as by the terms of its constitution." The principal object of the founders was to induce their fellow-farmer to join in "the great strike of labor against drudgery," and raise himself from the condition of an animal to that of a refined and cultivated man. "What we want in agriculture," said Mr. Dudley Adams, Master of the National Grange, in a recent address, "is a new Declaration of Independence. . . . It will doubtless be a matter of surprise to them [editors, lawyers, and politicians] that farmers may possibly have some other object in living besides everlasting hard work and accumulating a few paltry dollars by coining them from their own life-blood and stamping them with the sighs of weary children and worn wives."

"One of the Patrons during a late discussion predicted, from the growing intelligence of the people, and their better understanding of the possibilities of organization, that within a few years we shall see magnificent social palaces, something like the famous one at Guise, in many places in this country; and he went on to show how social and industrial life might be organized so as to secure the most complete liberty of the individual or family, magnificent educational advantages, remunerative occupation and varied amusements for all, with perfect insurance against want for orphans, for the sick and the aged. Each palace was to be the centre of a great agricultural district exploited in the most scientific manner, and through the varied economies resulting from combination all the luxuries of industry and all the conditions for high culture were to be secured to all who were willing to labor even one-half the hours that the farmer now does."

It will be seen that some dreaming is done in the granges. As for substantial accomplishment, we find set down one thing which has a very good look: in 1872, the Iowa granges saved half a million dollars by purchasing farming implements at wholesale and selling them to the members at the cost price. The Missouri granges have just completed a contract with the St. Louis dealers which will have the same effect. Miss Howland seems to be more occupied with the social aspect of the movement than any other, and talks rather less definitely of the farmers' intentions in regard to the railroads than of the initiation rites, the music, and the adornment of halls by the "Maids," "Shepherdesses," "Gleaners," and "Matrons" conjointly with the "Laborers," "Cultivators," "Harvesters," "Husbandmen."

For other articles, the September *Lippincott's* has several worth reading, though it is all light, and no one will miss any important information by failing or refusing to go through the magazine. "A Lotos of the Nile" is as full of love as an egg, or a dozen eggs, are full of meat, and ends with the most miserable death, by poison, of young Victor Clare and Miss Eleanor Milbourne; "Our Home in the Tyrol," by Miss Howitt, tells pleasantly enough of pleasant places; "Rambles among the Fruits and Flowers of the Tropics" is enough to make the reader forget that Divine Providence mercifully made him a carnivorous as well as a graminivorous animal, so rich is it in a bewildering variety of fruits; "A Princess of Thule" goes on, and the heroine, who is very likable, as all Mr. Black's heroines are, attracts more and more compassion; "The Ride of Prince Geraint," by M. J. Griffin, is a wonder; "Colorado and the South Park," in spite of the dreary promise of its title, will reward the reader well; and not to mention half a dozen other articles, there is a rather rude but vulgarly amusing story in the Monthly Gossip, which always is unlike anything else in our monthly periodical literature. This story, for instance, is like a Davy Crockett story of the years before the flood. Two book reviews, which close the magazine, are good, as *Lippincott's* book reviews almost always are.

The *Galaxy* would be rather dry reading this month were it not for what we take to be an excellently truthful and graphic description by Mr. Julian Hawthorne of a German student duel. "A Feast of Blood" it is called. We can commend also to both old and young two most harrowing tales, quite similar to the "Lotos of the Nile" which we have just mentioned. One is "Summer Days at Newport"; the other is "A Broken Lily." To which the preference should be given we do not feel competent to say. Brunettes and bald people will take a personal interest in the latter, but they would not be the first to deny merit to the former, which is a tale of equal passion. A long essay by the late Mr. E. A. Pollard is on the early Southern anti-slavery men, and is to be praised for a certain amount of candor, and an effort, partly successful, to be just to the Northern Abolitionists. However, the article would not be worth speaking about, so little is there in it, were it not for its containing a curious letter addressed by Mr. Pollard to the late Mr. Greeley. It will hardly be believed by persons who did not know it at the time that in 1860 an intelligent gentleman should have conceived that in the revival of the slave-trade lay the hope of the South. Such was Mr. Pollard's opinion. Slavery was bad, he thought; but its worst features would be removed could the poor white class be raised into negro owners, and the feudal pretensions of the slaveholding aristocracy be put down. To do this, it would be necessary to get cheap negroes from Africa, and to the objection that this would be reviving the slave-trade with all its horrors, the reply would be that the negro was not brought over as a slave, but as an apprentice, who would be free after a certain time, and who meanwhile would be so well treated that he would voluntarily remain at the end of his apprenticeship with his master. To do Mr. Pollard justice, we must say that he himself remarks that he later came to see that his scheme was unfeasible.

The September *Atlantic* contains almost nothing that is not worth a perusal. It is like old times to read Mr. Longfellow's "Rhyme of Sir Christopher," in which we note once again the unfailing grace of the poet—an elegance and ease as conspicuous when the subject-matter is important as it is in poems like this where it is slight or of no moment. Mr. Aldrich, also, who is another of the poets of this number, has a pretty, fanciful little stanza:

> "These winter nights, against my window-pane
> Nature with magic pencil draws designs
> Of ferns and blossoms and fine spray of pines,
> Oak-leaf and acorn and fantastic vines,
> Which she will make when summer comes again—
> Weird arabesques in silver, flat and cold
> Like curious Chinese etchings. . . . By-and-by,
> Walking my leafy garden as of old,
> These frosty fantasies shall charm my eye
> In azure, damask, emerald, and gold."

Dr. Holmes, Miss Louisa Bushnell, and Mr. Boyesen furnish the rest of the *Atlantic's* poetry, Mr. Boyesen's coming in as a part of his Norwegian love-tale, which has a great charm. Very agreeable reading will be found in Miss S. O. Jewett's "Shore-House," which is more like talk than reading, and talk of a very fresh, unaffected kind. Much the same thing may be said of Mr. G. W. Pierce's "Week on the Coulonge," which is very unliterary in manner, and perhaps beneath the dignity of a Bostonian publication, but which improper people will read with a good deal of contentment. It is of the chase; of Indian guides; of clear streams in the forest; and it might have been written by a boy of seventeen, so simple and straightforward is it. Mr. Parton's admirers have reason to be satisfied with their favorite biographer's performance in this part of his "Life of Jefferson." Few works are so readable, and we believe we have not observed in this one of the faults which are apt to mar Mr. Parton's work. Professor Shaler ("The Summer's Journey of a Naturalist"); Mr. Robert Dale Owen ("My Experience of Community Life"); Mr. De Forest ("Honest John Vane, Part III."); Mr. W. J. Hoppin ("A Glimpse of Contemporary Art in Europe"), and the writers of the various critical departments, are the other contributors to this *Atlantic*. Mr. De Forest's contribution is the only one of which we have not already spoken. It is a novel, or perhaps a novelette, if that term is permissible, of which the main business is to show the corrupt character of current practical politics. The satire is of the obvious order, but the general truthfulness of the picture will commend it to most readers.

Scribner's opens with an article about the Azores Islands, describing an industry which will be new to most of our readers. It is known as "stealing Portuguese," and consists of shipping a load of the natives who wish to emigrate, and whom the emigration law or anti-emigration law of the islands would prevent. A native, in order to get permission to go abroad, must give surety in the sum of three hundred dollars that in case he is drafted into the army he will return, and of couse he emigrates without permission rather than with it. Waiting at almost inaccessible points on the coast, where no revenue officers venture, little parties of them are picked up here and there by some shipmaster who has previously been engaged for the service, and who is popularly said to steal his Portuguese. Mr. Benjamin, the writer, makes a rather lively article out of his experience on one such trip, when forty or fifty men and women escaped, and the barque *Jehu* of Boston was nearly wrecked.

Following this article, there are twenty-one others, of which we may name Mr. John Burroughs's as the most taking. "The Birds of the Poets" it is called, and it deals incidentally with the nightingale of Milton, Wordsworth, and Coleridge, and the lark of Shakespeare, Wordsworth, Shelley, and Hogg, and then more at length of such of our birds as our American poets have sung. Among these are Emerson's chickadee, Mrs. Celia Thaxter's sandpiper, Mr. Bryant's and Mr. Wilson Flagg's bobolink, and one or two others. But Mr. Lowell's catbird is omitted, which is a pity, the list being so short, and that fit addition to it being so very fit. So, too, is Mr. Longfellow's bluebird left out:

> "And from the stately elms I hear
> The bluebird prophesying spring"—

which surely deserves mention for the early spring there is in it, suggesting all birds, and the successful hitting off of one of this beautiful bird's attributes. Willis's pigeon, too, we miss; but that is perhaps hardly to be called a song-bird, though surely but slight extension of the grace that admitted the sandpiper—or the sandpipér, as Mrs. Thaxter has it—would have let in the belfry pigeon. We feel moved, too, in return for Mr. Burroughs's preferring Wordsworth's skylark to Shelley's, to call his attention to the fact

that Shakespeare's skylark, the lark at heaven's gate singing, came very near being John Lily's:

> "Now at heaven's gate she claps her wings,
> The morn not waking till she sings,"

and that mention of the skylark should hardly be permitted without mention of Jeremy Taylor's. The article is so good that we can only hope there may be omissions enough to justify another like it.

Mr. Bret Harte, in his "Episode of Fiddletown," reminds one of his earlier and better stories; though it has at present something of the perplexed blindness which made some of the early stories and poems unintelligible to some people. The poem of the miner and the Indian, for example, we have never penetrated. The religious reader of this number of *Scribner's* will be pleased—if its outspokenness does not offend him—with the article on "Modern Scepticism," the second of a series of three. And the same reader will perhaps enjoy the discussion on the degree of liberty accorded their members by the various Protestant denominations. An article on Central Park, with portraits of Mr. Olmsted, Mr. Vaux, and Mr. Mould, and with numerous illustrations, will probably be better in its next instalment.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*	
Art-Journal, No. CXL., swd.	(Virtue & Yorston)	
Boyland (Dr. G. H.), Six Months under the Red Cross with the French Army	(Robert Clarke & Co.)	$1 50
Collins (W.), Miss or Mrs.? and other Stories, swd.	(T. B. Peterson & Bros.)	0 50
Evers (H.), Steam and the Steam-Engine	(G. P. Putnam's Sons)	1 50
Fires and Fire Departments, swd.	(J. R. Osgood & Co.)	
Patterson (C.), Speller and Analyzer	(Sheldon & Co.)	
Exercise Book for the same	" "	
Quixstar: a Tale	(G. P. Putnam's Sons)	1 75
Sargent (S.), School Manual of English Etymology	(J. H. Butler & Co.)	
Schmoller (Prof. G.), Die Entwickelung und die Krisis der deutschen Weberei, swd.	(L. W. Schmidt)	
Smart (Dr. C.), Driven from the Path	(D. Appleton & Co.)	
Taylor (S.), Sound and Music	(Macmillan & Co.)	3 00
Thompson (Edith), History of England	(Henry Holt & Co.)	1 00
The Wooing O't: a Tale	" "	1 25
The Bible in the Public Schools, Judicial decision, swd.	(Robt. Clarke & Co.)	0 25
The Ways of Women	(John P. Jewett & Co.)	
Todhunter (J.), The Conflict of Studies, and Other Essays Connected with Education	(Macmillan & Co.)	3 50
Widdefield (Hannah), New Cook-Book	(T. B. Peterson & Bros.)	
Young Ladies' Friend	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)	
Youmans (Miss E. A.), Second Book of Botany	(D. Appleton & Co.)	

Fine Arts.

THE RECORDS OF PRIMITIVE CIVILIZATION.

THE inability to complete the collation and translation of the authorities by which I hope to maintain the theory of an Italian centre of civilization, has delayed my following up of this subject, but one or two notices of my letters on the subject have been printed in the *Nation*, which induces me to launch another argument from my still incomplete flotilla. And first, in reply to "F.," I would say that I was careless in my expression, with reference to which he replies, for I take it that the Aryan character of Etruscan has been determined with tolerable certainty, and that therefore my expression should have been qualified, but my intention was simply to convey the idea that the separation of the language was of so early a date that the analogies are insufficient to enable us to translate Etruscan by collation with any understood language. When I returned several years ago from Greece, I set myself to clear up the theory I hold on this subject, and Max Müller, to whom I applied for aid, then said to me, "We *know* nothing about Etruscan"; and the latter part of the expression which "F." quotes, "nor can the inscription, though collated with everything hitherto discovered in ancient or modern language, be deciphered," was substantially a remark made by him alluding to Etruscan inscriptions. A letter from him, received not long ago, confirms what "F." says, on the authority of Mr. Schweizer-Sidler, that Corssen's book will definitely establish the Italic character of Etruscan. But these are, so far as the public, and myself amongst the public, are concerned, conjectures still unproven.

But the advice of Müller, with regard to the pursuit of my study, was to ignore the evidence of language in the matter and follow my own line of investigation, as the coincidence of independent lines of evidence would be far more convincing than if one had been followed by help of another. He was flattering enough to add that the facts I had collected, if sustained, were sufficient to disprove the theory of Greek civilization having been derived from Egypt. The authority and advice of a man whose opinions I so highly respect sufficed to determine me to drop all attempts at philological confirmation, and make my argument purely from what I shall call artistic archæology—the evidence of technical attainment as to historical connections. If therefore Mr. Goodyear, whose letter appears in the *Nation* of July 17, had read my letter of April 17 carefully, he would have seen that his contemptuous attempt to "stifle the theory" I advanced in it, is made under a misapprehension of my essential arguments and evident ignorance of my facts. His attempt is twofold: he denies, on the faith of Otto Jahn and half a dozen more German authorities, that there is any Etruscan art independent of Greek; and, secondly, that the Etruscan and Pelasgic races had anything in common, and this on the authority of other German scholars, amongst whom chiefly Mommsen.

As to the first point, I will say in the frankest manner, that if there is one thing in the range of human intellect for which I have an absolute contempt, founded on many years' study and thorough knowledge in general, it is German art-theories and German opinions on art, so far as plastic art is concerned. I have just come from reading Lübke, the latest result of German cerebral agitation in this direction and the summary of what the German brain has decided, and I can only say that in my experience of art-literature I never came across a more hopeless example of constitutional incompetence, enveloped in such densely-learned ignorance. I have the boldness to avow, without circumlocution, that I prefer the opinion of the British Museum authorities on any art-archæological question, and in default of theirs, my own, to that of all the German speculators I have ever heard or read. I decline, therefore, to admit Otto Jahn, Wilhelm Lübke, etc., etc., as authorities of any weight on this particular question.

It is perfectly true that the vases so-called Etruscan are found under circumstances which make it impossible to say with certainty that they were made in one place, and not in another, as they were articles of commerce, and went wherever shipping went. The constant occurrence of Greek myths and legends in Etruria is explicable on very simple grounds, as I may show at another time; but what Mr. Goodyear quotes, through Jahn, from Winckelmann proves nothing for or against my theory. It is easy to show that certain vases, apparently Etruscan, were *probably* not made in Etruria; but it is impossible to prove that the mass of them, or in fact any of them, were not made there; and what he quotes from Mommsen on this topic is clearly disproved by the facts of the case, and is not confirmed by any historical evidence.

Mr. Goodyear is also mistaken in what he says of my remark, that the earliest types in Cyprus are of Pelasgic or Etruscan origin: "It is evident that he *may* be very much mistaken in supposing that similarity to Etruscan statues implies a date earlier than archaic Greek, which is the latest of the styles in Cyprus"; in which short sentence are two capital errors—first, that I suppose these statues to be early because similar to Etruscan, the antiquity of the style having been by good authority determined, and the similarity to Etruscan work only pointed out as a singular coincidence by Mr. Newton; and, second, that the archaic Greek is the latest style in Cyprus, the fact being that my letter quotes Newton to the effect that "mature Greek art," "introduced at a late period from without," closes the list of changes.

With regard to the identity of the Pelasgic and Etruscan races, Mr. Goodyear is by far too facile in supposing that a "reference to Max Duncker" is going to settle the question "what a Pelasgian is," or another to Mommsen "what a Pelasgian is not." Max Duncker and Mommsen came to their own conclusions some little time ago, and the matter still remains unsettled, because unfortunately neither of these learned gentlemen knew any more than the exceedingly little which is to be found in the Greek historians on the matter, which is indeed so very little as only to enable us to found a conjecture on it, and all these traditions, myths, and allusions are common property. No man, much less Mommsen, who had his own theories to confirm as well as I mine, is "decisive authority" on this question, for no man has more than a conjecture on it based on any historical evidence. Mommsen starts with the notion that the Pelasgic was *the* ancestral race of the Hellenic—an opinion which I hope to be able to show good reason for gravely questioning, and that the relation of the Pelasgi to the Greeks was precisely that of the Normans to the Modern English—and he asserts that "their manners (*i.e.*, those of the Raseni or Etruscans) and customs point to the conclusion that this nation was originally quite distinct from the Greco-Italian stocks," in which I cordially agree; but, leaving out the question of the identity between Greek and Pelasgic stock, there is nothing in Mommsen's historical evidence which conflicts with my theory. As to Duncker's assertion that "these traditions and points of view show that the name Pelasgian in the Greek tradition was a name embracing all Greek tribes," etc., I take direct issue on the traditions themselves, which show nothing of the kind. "The divine Pelasgi" are never mentioned by Homer as Greek; on the contrary, those who fought with the Greeks are spoken of as "from Argos of the Pelasgians," and the Pelasgi as a nation are enumerated amongst the Trojan host, commanded by Hippo-

thoös and Pyleos, "sons of the Pelasgian Lethos, born of Teutamos," a traditional chief of the Cretan Pelasgi. In the *Suppliants*, the fugitive Danaids are received by the Pelasgian king of that part of the Morea which I have shown to be the chief seat of the Pelasgic civilization in Greece. In the early history of Athens, the Pelasgi are shown to have been expelled from the city which they had fortified for the Greeks as foreigners; and, finally, the records of Karnak enumerate the Cretan and Tyrrhenian Pelasgi and the Greeks as having been confederated in an invasion of Egypt. And of all the traditions alluding to them, they are far more often spoken of as strangers and fugitives, than as related in any way to the Greek race. What they were in Greece, and what they did *for* Greece, I propose to show at another time. Suffice it now to deny categorically the assertion of Duncker.

In fact, the world of art and archæology has too long been sat on by the pretensions of German savants. We owe very much to their erudition and patient research into the details of history and philology. We owe them indeed a large part of all those items of evidence which furnish the only safe basis for conclusions, and which have helped on all archæological science; but in all matters where intuitive conclusion or genuine imaginative theory is needed, I decline respectfully to accept their lead or acknowledge their authority, and I hope to be able to show, one of these days, that to the whole tribe of German art-critics, from Winckelmann down, we owe nothing but utter confusion and misconception with regard to Greek art, and thence to every plastic art.

The manner in which I have proposed to myself to investigate this question of the origin of Greek civilization is one independent utterly of language, and only slightly dependent on written history. I have limited myself to the evidences in the technical labors remaining to us of the times and races in question. In this study, the facts which I have been able to note, and which history may or may not confirm, but which as facts cannot be disproved either by history or philology, point to this general conclusion, that the Raseni, *i.e.*, the pure Etruscan race, so-called by us, is a survival of the Pelasgic, or of that race from which the Pelasgian emigrations proceeded (and that, therefore, this name, whether from παλαιός, ancient, or πέλαγος, the sea, from their having come to Greece by sea, was only a Greek name for the race, as Tuscan was a Latin name applied later); that their civilization, art, habitat, and movements were the same, and that such a coincidence makes any other solution than identity improbable; that this race was Italian, and developed its civilization and arts from a centre independent of all others, and that from this centre, in what is now known as Etruria, this civilization spread through the fertile country of Italy, crossed into the Morea, and thence by the islands to the shores of Asia and Egypt, where the Raseni learned new arts, especially the use of edged tools, of which they were until then ignorant, and with which they partially returned to Italy, their ancient home, where they next appear to history as Etruscans. I conclude that this emigration began centuries before the siege of Troy, or before the date of any event indicated by intelligible Greek traditions, and that it ceased before any recorded by authentic history, and I should not look to history, therefore, to furnish any confirmation of the truth of this conclusion, although I believe that it will be found to give more support to this than to any opposing one.

As regards the question of priority of arts, even Winckelmann, with all his ignorant contempt of Etrurian art, admitted it to be the earlier, and while in all probability the so-called Etruscan vases are of a date posterior to the Greek civilization, there is nothing about them which was not easily copied by Greek potters, while in the far more difficult art of gem-cutting, the Greeks, though showing great artistic feeling, have never approached the technical perfection of Etruscan workmanship. I have therefore never attached the least importance to the vases as evidence, the more as the critical point of the history I would maintain is of such a remote antiquity that, except in some extraordinary combination of circumstances, such as the later cemetery in Cyprus having covered and protected a more ancient one, there is little probability of any vase now being found of a period approaching it, and so far General di Cesnola's discovery is unique, and its findings have therefore the inestimable value of things which antedate probably even intelligible traditions of Greek history.

I hope some day to be enabled to go over the ground again more carefully, and, aided by my camera, to prove all the technical points I have made in this discussion.

W. J. STILLMAN.

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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

AUGUST 25, 1873.

THE Treasury balances at the close of business on Saturday were:

Currency	$10,500,000
Coin	87,250,000
Outstanding coin certificates	44,000,000

The Internal Revenue receipts for the month were $6,803,841; for the fiscal year, $15,624,858.

The money market continues almost entirely free from disturbance. Efforts have been made to advance the rates by the bull clique in gold, but with little success, as fresh capital at once comes in for employment at any change. Loans on call vary from four to five per cent., in exceptional cases reaching six per cent. There is no change to report on time loans or commercial paper.

The bank statement was unfavorable, showing a decrease in the reserve of $4,507,600, of which $2,499,900 was specie and $2,007,700 legal tenders. The liabilities being reduced, also, to the extent of $7,174,300, leaves a net loss in reserve of only $2,714,025, which, deducted from the surplus reported August 16, shows an excess over the 25 per cent. legal requirement still in the banks of $3,950,175. The discount line was reduced $2,682,200, and currency circulation contracted $8,300. The following is a comparison of the averages for the past two weeks:

	August 16.	August 23.	Differences.
Loans	$292,614,000	$289 931,800	Dec. $2,682 200
Specie	27,644,100	25,144,200	Dec. 2,499,900
Circulation	27,222,700	27,214 400	Dec. 8 300
Deposits	234,857,300	227,691,300	Dec. 7.166.000
Legal Tenders	47,540,100	45,532,400	Dec. 2,007,700

The following shows the relation between the total reserve and the total liabilities:

	August 16.	August 23.	Differences.
Specie	$27,644,100	$25,144 200	Dec. $2,499,900
Legal tenders	47,540,100	45,532,400	Dec. 2,007,700
Total reserve	$75,184,200	$70,676,600	Dec $4,507,600
Circulation	27.222,700	27,214,400	Dec. 8,300
Deposits	234,857,300	227,691,300	Dec. 7,166,000
Total liabilities	$262,080,000	$254,905,700	Dec. $7,174,300
25 per cent. reserve	65,520,000	63,726,425	Dec. 1,793,575
Excess over legal reserve	9,664,200	6,950,175	Dec. 2,714,025

The following table separates the National from the State banks:

	National.	State.	Total.
Loans	$249,014,200	$40,917,600	$289,931,800
Specie	22,722,400	2,421.800	25,144,200
Legal tenders	40,294,100	5,238,300	45,532,400
Deposits	195,654,800	32,036,500	227,691,300
Circulation	27,182,200	32,200	27 214,400
Percentage of reserve to total liabilities	28 28-100 p.c.	23 89-100 p.c.	27 72-100 p.c.

The past week has been of the stereotyped summer dulness. Some strong under-currents are quite perceptible in the stock market, leading to higher prices, but these have not yet accomplished any general change beyond an occasional advance of one-half or one-quarter per cent., with immediate reaction. There does not seem to be any leader in the bull market of sufficient prominence to give a firm tone to speculation, and it is more than hinted at that a desperate raid on the Vanderbilt stocks will be made shortly, and that during the *mêlée* the "shorts" will cover. In Pacific Mail the short interest is said to be enormous, and its existence is in itself sufficient explanation of an advance of 2½ per cent. in that security. St. Paul has been particularly weak under careful manipulations for such purpose.

The following shows the highest and lowest sales of the leading stocks at the Stock Exchange for the week ending August 23, 1873:

	Monday.	Tuesday.	Wed'day.	Thursday	Friday.	Saturday.	Sales.
N. Y. C. & H. R.	104¼ 104¾	104¼ 105	103⅞ 104¼	104⅛ 104⅜	104¼ 105⅜	104¼ 104½	41,000
Lake Shore	93¾ 93⅝	93⅝ 93¾	92¼ 93⅜	93 93½	92⅞ 93¾	92⅝ 93	61 800
Erie	59⅜ 59⅛	58⅞ 59⅜	58⅜ 58⅞	58⅜ 59⅜	59¼ 59½	59 59⅜	17,100
Do. pfd	 73	 73	72 73	 73	.... 72½	....	....
Union Pacific	26⅜ 27⅛	27 27⅜	26½ 27⅛	27⅛ 27½	26⅝ 27¼	26⅜ 27	21,800
Chi. & N. W.	65 65⅞	64½ 65½	64¾ 65⅜	64⅞ 64⅞	64⅜ 64⅞	64¼ 64¾	6,900
Do. pfd	82 83½	 83	 82	81⅝ 82	.... 82½	....	700
N. J. Central	.... 102¾	.... 102¾	.... 103⅛	102⅜ 101	102½ 102⅞	....	1,400
Rock Island	109¾ 110⅛	109¾ 109¾	108⅞ 109¼	109 109½	108⅝ 109⅜	108⅜ 109⅛	13,600
Mil. & St. Paul	51⅞ 51⅞	51⅝ 52	51⅜ 51½	51⅜ 52⅛	50⅜ 51⅜	50⅜ 51¼	10 800
Do. pfd	 71	71 71⅜	71 71¼	70⅜ 71⅜	70⅜ 71	....	2,000
Wabash	70 70⅜	68⅝ 70¼	68¾ 69	69⅛ 69⅜	69¼ 70	69¼ 69¼	16,700
D. L. & Western	101 101½	.... 100¾	100⅜ 100⅜	100½ 101	.... 100⅞	100⅜ 101	1,400
B. H. & Erie	.... 2½	2½ 2⅝	2½ 2⅜	2⅜ 2⅜	.... 2¼	....	200
O. & M.	38¾ 38⅞	38⅜ 38⅛	38 38⅜	38⅜ 39½	39⅛ 40	39½ 39½	65,700
C. C. & I. C.	30¾ 31½	30¾ 31⅜	30½ 31	31⅜ 31½	 31	30⅝ 30⅞	6,500
W. U. Tel.	89¾ 91	89⅝ 90⅜	87⅞ 89⅝	89½ 90½	89½ 90¼	89¼ 90	138,300
Pacific Mail	39½ 40⅝	40¼ 41⅜	39⅝ 41½	41⅝ 42¼	41⅝ 42½	42¾ 43⅝	148,300

Government bonds are strong and in constant demand, but almost impossible to procure in large lots. The bonds of the city of Louisville have been brought permanently on the market by a "syndicate," and some changes have been made very much improving the credit of Jersey City bonds, which are quite likely, under the careful management of the financial agency of the city, at the Continental Bank in New York, to recover their old position when they sold at from 104 to 105, and were considered amongst the best securities in the country. The city property at present is $13,603,408 63. The assessed valuation, including railroad property, is $88,496,885, on which the taxable rate is $2 70 per hundred on $68,496,855, and a tax of 1 per cent. on railroad property, fixed by a State Commission at $11,000,000. The entire indebtedness, floating and bonded, of Jersey City is $12,267,162.

The gold market has been strong and steady, with fluctuations of about one-half per cent., the price on Saturday just touching 116¼ and 115¾ as extremes.

OFFICE OF FISK & HATCH,
No. 5 Nassau Street, New York, August 25, 1873.

☞ The CHESAPEAKE AND OHIO RAILROAD, now completed and in regular operation between the Atlantic tidewater at Richmond and the unfailing navigation of the Western rivers at Huntington, is now carrying passengers and freights with great promptness and on favorable terms between the coast cities and the chief trade centres at the West. Freights can be shipped via the "Clyde" Line of Steamers from Boston, Providence, and Philadelphia; via the "Old Dominion" Line of Steamers from New York; and via the "Chesapeake and Ohio Packets" from Cincinnati, Louisville, and St. Louis, etc. Passengers can also take this route to or from the West, and enjoy the wonderful scenery of the Alleghanies, the Medicinal Springs and Mineral Attractions of Virginia and West Virginia.

To enable the Company to perfect more rapidly its Equipment, Terminal facilities, and Deep-water connections with European Steamship Lines, and to accommodate the heavy Coal and Mineral Traffic, together with the growing Iron and Miscellaneous Local and Through Business now pressing upon the Line, we are selling on behalf of the Company a limited amount of their SEVEN PER CENT. GOLD BONDS, secured by mortgage liens on the whole valuable property, at 90 and accrued interest; $1,000 each, either coupon or registered, payable in gold coin, in New York City, principal and interest; interest Jan. 1 and July 1.

We also have a small amount of the OLD SIX PER CENT. GOLD BONDS OF THE CHESAPEAKE AND OHIO; the price of these is 88½ and accrued interest. They are issued in denominations of $100, $500, and $1,000, interest payable May and November. The property has cost already upwards of $38,000,000, and is constantly increasing in value. We can recommend both classes of bonds, which are selling rapidly, with great confidence.

We also continue to deal in Government and Central Pacific and Western Pacific Bonds, execute orders at the Stock Exchange for investment Stocks and Bonds, receive deposits, on which we allow interest at the rate of four per cent. per annum, and conduct a general banking business.

FISK & HATCH.

NEW ENGLAND MUTUAL LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY.

ORGANIZED 1843.

Twenty-Ninth Annual Report of the Directors.

Net Assets, December 31, 1872, . . .	Eleven Millions.
Total Income for 1872, ...	$3,364,282
Losses paid in 1872, ...	806,000
Surplus fund returned policy-holders, 1872,	480,000

Expenses of management, 10 per cent. of income.

Annual cash distributions on the contribution plan.

No premium notes taken.

Policies of all approved forms issued by this Company

All policies non-forfeitable under the Statute Laws of Massachusetts.

The most liberal permission given in regard to residence and travel in the United States and foreign countries.

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VERY SAFE AND VERY PROFITABLE.

At the present rate of gold, Dividends, Surplus Funds, and High-Priced Securities may be converted into a

TEN PER CENT. NEW ENGLAND INVESTMENT

By the purchase of the First Mortgage Sinking Fund

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OF THE

LAMOILLE VALLEY, ST. JOHNSBURY, AND ESSEX COUNTY RAILROADS,

117 Miles long, from Lake Champlain to the Connecticut River, and forming the

VERMONT DIVISION OF THE PORTLAND AND OGDENSBURG R. R. TRUNK LINE.

The very large sales of the past few months leave but a limited amount to be offered, and the rapid pushing of the road to completion ensures an early and a large advance on their market value.

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Lounge, Sofa, Bed, Baby-Crib, Ottoman, Stool, and Writing-Desk Combination—Wrought-Iron Frames. Adapted for Parlors, Churches, Public Halls, Theatres, Hospitals, Lawns, and Gardens. Shuts up like a knife. Sent anywhere, C.O.D. Illustrated Circulars by mail.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 4, 1873.

The Week.

THE campaign in Massachusetts is going on with great vigor, the result of the first primary meetings proving, as was anticipated, favorable to Butler. He is stumping the State making speeches, which attract large crowds, though whether the crowd is brought together by curiosity or enthusiasm, is often an open question. His speeches contain exhaustive analyses of the motives of the opposition, which it is evident are of the lowest description. For instance, he accused "Warrington," of the Springfield *Republican*, of receiving pay for his history of "the salary-grab," but this "Warrington" denies, and adds that the General got his advanced copy of the document by means of theft. In the same way, the editor of the Boston *Herald* has been forced to explain that "we never told a friend of General Butler that we abused him because the people liked it, and we sold more papers by doing so"—a statement which it is safe to say only the perverse ingenuity of the Claimant (as he now seems to be generally called) could have put into the mouth of any intelligent editor when engaged in conversation with a political opponent. Butler's defence of himself covers his repudiation "record," but this point is not dwelt upon by his opponents with anything like the stress they lay on his part in the salary-grab. In fact, some of them, and "Warrington" in particular, have their mouths shut on the subject of repudiation. Yet Butler's advocacy of it was a piece of rascality beside which back-pay seems trivial and venial.

There is little doubt that Butler is getting a good deal of help from the Democrats as well as from the employees of the Administration; and as the fight goes on, he gets more and more violent. At North Adams he is reported to have said in his speech, "Call off your dogs, or they will be hurt." Such remarks as these seem to emphasize the fact that the time has come, if it is ever to come, for a break-up of the Republican party in Massachusetts. If Judge Hoar and his friends suppose that patience and long-suffering are going to do them any good, they are greatly mistaken. This canvass for the governorship in Massachusetts has made several things clear: first, that Butler has, through his intrigues with the Administration and his skilful manipulation of the party machinery, made gains in the last two years; second, that if he is defeated in the Republican nomination by a close vote, and the party keeps together, he will be in no worse position than he is now; third, that if he carries the convention, his opponents may as well consider themselves read out of the party at once, for they will get no mercy. It is time for those who have the real interest of Massachusetts at heart to make one effort to rouse the people from the dreadful lethargy in which they have sunk. Governor Washburn has just made an appointment which shows him to be above low considerations of expediency. The chief-justiceship, made vacant by the death of Chief-Justice Chapman, was an office marked by the politicians for their own, as it was supposed that both Washburn and Butler would make use of the vacancy in the usual manner, making vague promises about it for the sake of catching votes and keeping the matter open till after election. Governor Washburn has, however, just appointed Mr. Horace Gray, of the same court, for the place—a learned lawyer and fit man.

A letter of some importance from Mr. J. Wilkinson, General Deputy of the National Grange of the Patrons of Husbandry, has been published. We say important, because Mr. Wilkinson's opinions, considering the influential position he holds, may probably be taken as authoritative. Mr. Wilkinson makes it very clear, if any light were needed upon the subject, that he and several hundred thousand of his fellow-citizens mean to exercise the sacred rights of petition and perambulation this winter very actively. He says that the Constitution contains a clause giving Congress power to regulate commerce among the several States, and that although it is true that the clause is a dead letter so far as railroads are concerned, "we do not intend it shall remain so much longer." "The people," he continues, "are all demanding action, and in a year or two their voice will be heard in thunder-tones at the doors of the National Capitol, and if the Republican party can afford them no relief, the people will find a party that can." Mr. Wilkinson speaks in very disparaging terms not only of the Republican party, but of the Senatorial Transportation Committee, the members of which, he says, are, it is whispered, dabblers in railroad stocks, and also in the employ of railroads as counsel.

It seems from the address published by the Wisconsin grangers that the Patrons of Husbandry is an order which is strictly and absolutely non-political in its character. The order was started in 1867, with the object of elevating the farmers as a class and farming as an occupation. The organization provides for the admission of both sexes to membership, and "it was designed as a medium for more social intercourse, to provide a refuge from overwork, to relieve the occupation from the feature of constant and non-intermitting toil, thus creating within the sphere of the active farming life much-needed sources of rational recreative enjoyment." Furthermore,

"It was designed with a view to general educational and instructive purposes, by establishing within the grange reading-rooms and libraries, and for the delivery of popular lectures. It was designed as a medium for frequent consultations and discussions upon matters pertaining to the occupation its members were engaged in, and upon all business relations connected with it, thus affording opportunities for the same united action commercially constantly practised by other occupations, and which had not heretofore been taken advantage of by the craft, at the same time correcting the abuses of an exclusive territorial agency system, which had grown into proportions felt to be oppressive."

To secure these excellent objects, it was provided by Article 12 of the constitution, that religious and political questions would "not be tolerated as subjects of discussion in the work of the order," and that no political or religious tests for membership should be applied.

Every member of a grange, however, is capable of acting in two capacities—either as a Patron of Husbandry or simply as a man or woman. As a Patron of Husbandry, it is his duty to avoid politics; but as a man, it is equally his duty to attend primary meetings, vote at elections, and in every other respect act as becomes an American citizen. The Wisconsin address points out this distinction, saying that to all movements for the correction of crying political evils the Patrons of Husbandry extend their warmest sympathy, "nay, more, their active participation individually as citizens, as members of those farmers' associations, conventions, unions, any or all organizations which are politically reformatory, but not as members of a grange." The resolutions adopted by the meeting which issued the address were:

First.—That the farmers are in favor of the improvement of the Fox and Wisconsin Rivers, and Mississippi River, and other water-courses that will tend to cheapen transportation.

Second.—That Congress be petitioned at its next session for "better and cheaper means of transportation from the West to the Atlantic and Southern seaboard."

Third.—That the farmers will support no man for office who has ever been guilty of receiving retrospective increase of salary for public service, or received an advance in salary by the Act of March 3, 1873.

Fourth.—That railroads are public highways, and as such must be controlled "by the State and National legislatures."

The distinction between grange and extra-grange action seems also to have been taken by many of the speakers at the meeting, the speakers urging the formation of political clubs, which are to have

no connection with the granges, except that members of the granges may be members of the clubs, though members of the clubs need not necessarily be members of the granges. In what capacity the grangers acted in adopting these resolutions, we do not know, but apparently as individuals.

The sentence of death passed upon the Modoc Indians, tried for the murder of General Canby, and its approval by the President, seem to excite very little notice. The result was expected—indeed, it was hard to see how any other result could be reached—though Captain Jack, when called on for his defence, made a speech which, if he had been tried by an ordinary jury in a State court, would perhaps have got him an acquittal. Few people could guess at once the line of defence set up by him, which was nothing less than that of previous good character. He said that no one but the Klamath Indians ever doubted his virtue, and their motives in giving evidence against him might easily be inferred. Unfortunately, there is no court of appeal to take exceptions to when men are tried before a military commission, and Captain Jack will have to be hanged for his crimes, though he says that he has papers in his possession which will prove the truth of his defence.

The Milwaukee *Journal of Commerce*, speaking of and "heartily endorsing" the recent criticism of the "National University Scheme" which appeared in the columns of the *Nation*, quotes the expression, "Most people take very little interest in schemes for national establishments of this class," and says:

> "We are afraid the people of this country do not interest themselves sufficiently in such schemes. If they did, we should be troubled less often with them. However, we suppose all are acquainted with the wonderful success of Howard University—an institution really intended to be an introduction to the full-grown affair—the prospective national university; and if it were generally known that the moving power behind the throne—or rather before those university establishment bills—is not Dr. Hoyt or Senator Sawyer ostensibly, or Senator Howe 'apologetically,' but is to be found within the official pale of the aforesaid university, the 'scheme' would have even less weight with the thinking public than it now has."

What this means we do not know; but if there is any connection between Howard University and the bills in question, it ought to be made public, as there is every reason to believe that this winter will see some interesting and curious educational movements in Congress looking towards securing everybody a "plain, practical education," free of expense.

The *Herald* has achieved one of its old-time triumphs in striking the key-note of political discussion for a couple of months. We should be disposed to attribute this to the summer season, or the "silly season," as it is the fashion to call it on the other side, except for the apparent seriousness with which "Cæsarism," in reference to this country and to Gen. Grant's fancied ambition, has been discussed in all its length and breadth by the press. What the intelligent American abroad may make of it we do not know, but that foreign observers will gain from it a fresh misconception of our national character, we may be very sure. When the editor of a Washington newspaper, being "interviewed" by a *Herald* reporter, says "it is to be hoped there is not, but it is to be feared there is" danger that Cæsarism may become a welcome resource in the United States; and when another editor revives the evidence of a strong monarchical feeling, not to say party, in the early days of the Republic; and when all the rest of the talk on the subject is of the serious and prophetic kind, your Englishman, Frenchman, or German is excusable for thinking that he is witnessing the commencement of a political reaction of the first magnitude. American humor was surely never so well displayed, or else so well suppressed, as in this discussion based on the supposition that Grant is intent on a third term of office. There are, no doubt, surprises for every one who undertakes to generalize about the American people's thoughts, and beliefs, and probable action; but on the subject of the form of government which they have at heart, and mean to abide by, there is no room for difference of opinion. Thirteen years ago, it might have been, and was, doubtful whether the love for the Union was anything more than a mere sentiment, kept alive by Fourth-of-July oratory, and incapable of sacrifices. But nobody would have doubted, even at that time, that an attack on the Republic—not covert, as the rebellion was, but open—would have produced an uprising adequate to the occasion. In fact, as Mr. Lincoln said at Gettysburg, the civil war settled the question whether the government of the United States should be of the people, by the people, and for the people.

It is a comfort to find the editor of the *Capital*, in the column adjoining that in which he confesses his fears about Cæsarism, devoting considerable space to the Hon. James G. Blaine. Mr. Blaine is declared to be "probably the shrewdest politician in the United States," and from the account of him it is clear that the "man on horseback" will have to get up early if he wants to become Cæsar before the late Speaker of the House gets the office. Mr. Blaine is "strong and fiercely ambitious," is "in the zenith of his physical and intellectual vigor and capacity," and is "a well-armed and thoroughly active competitor." All this makes it extremely unlikely that any one Cæsar will be allowed to monopolize the field, or that any *coup d'état* can befall us for which Mr. Blaine is unprepared with a counter *coup*. Just now, indeed, his reflections are somewhat melancholy. He wants a place in the Senate as a stepping-stone to the Presidency, but it is not at all certain that a foreign mission or a seat on the bench would tempt the Hon. Lot M. Morrill to make way for him. If he must stay in the House, he could never consent to abandon the Speakership and be lost in the common herd of members. Yet to regain a post of so much personal and national influence requires a coalition with Congressmen whose reputations have been fatally damaged by the exposures of the past session; and then good-bye to the hope of being the people's choice for President. So the *Capital* leaves him pondering on the chances of success or of the "threefold misery" of defeat, but in any case a man on whom Cæsar must keep an eye.

The exposure of the condition of the affairs of the Brooklyn Trust Company has been followed by an exposure of the affairs of Mr. M. T. Rodman, Secretary of that Company and Deputy City Treasurer. He is now under arrest on a charge of embezzling some $148,000 of the city's money, which he managed to do by very simple means—taking sums of money from the City Treasury for deposit with the Trust Company, abstracting a part on the way, and then making false entries in the books. The fact of the deficiency was brought out by the investigation of a professional accountant, who it is said is now going to undertake the examination of all the city accounts. The accounts already published and circumstances connected with the appointment of the receiver of the Brooklyn Trust Company, seem to show conclusively that the proceedings of Rodman were connived at, though by whom it will be more difficult to establish. The intimate relations between the City Government and the Trust Company are due to the fact that the principal officers in the latter are in one way or another connected with the former. At the same time, what deficiency has been actually discovered has been made good by the treasurer himself, Mr. Sprague, who was liable for Rodman's acts. At present these facts are all that are absolutely known. All the evidence yet collected seems to show that frauds in Brooklyn are conducted in a mean and timid way, not at all befitting a city of its size and population.

The Canadian scandal has taken a new turn. The enquiry into the alleged bribery and corruption, instead of being left, as the Opposition desired, with the original parliamentary committee, was transferred, some little time since, to a Royal Commission composed of three judges, Parliament meantime being prorogued. This was regarded by those who were moving in the matter as tantamount to quashing the investigation, the expression of opinion in the local press ap-

parently indicating no very profound public respect for the impartiality of the Canadian judiciary. Towards the end of last month, Judge Day, as the senior judge of the three, sent a note to Mr. Lucius Seth Huntington, the mover of the enquiry in Parliament, asking him to appear before the Commission and give his evidence. In reply, Mr. Huntington wrote a long letter, refusing to appear, on the ground that the appointment of the Commission was in reality an unconstitutional attempt to take away from the House of Commons part of its prerogative. The investigation before a parliamentary committee, he says, he is perfectly ready to go on with. To this the supporters of the Government reply that his objection is "unreasonably factious," he knowing very well that a parliamentary committee has no power to examine under oath—a power very necessary in such an investigation. "It is their game to fight the battle out upon McMullenisms, given without the sanctity of an oath." The Commission probably have power, however, to bring Mr. Huntington before them by attachment; so that this reliance on McMullenisms ought to prove a delusion and a snare. The enquiry has now got into a shape quite different from any the Crédit Mobilier investigation ever assumed; but it looks badly for the Government that the only statements that have been published on their side of the quarrel have been unsatisfactory to the public.

Five hundred English Catholics, under the leadership of the Duke of Norfolk, have undertaken a pilgrimage to Paray-le-Monial, to testify to their faith at the shrine of Marie Alacoque. It is suggested that this shrine was selected because the miracle in honor of which it was erected is among the most doubtful on record, and the act of faith in making a pilgrimage to it is all the more consoling and edifying on account of its incredibility. These modern pilgrimages, however, undertaken by rail and steam to places a few days off, at a small expense and little danger to life, limb, or health, cannot really be very edifying or consoling either. It was the fashion in former days for devout men to make long journeys with unboiled peas in their shoes and a rope round their middle. This mode of testifying their faith in modern times may be an anachronism, but if any true Catholic really wished to perform an act of devotion which should be convincing, a great many modern equivalents for the old pilgrimage might be devised. The modern equivalent, for instance, for begging your way, supposing the pilgrimage to take place in America along the high-roads, would probably be an attempt to ride in a Pullman palace-car without previously buying your ticket, relying on the charity of the Company to get you through. No pilgrim has ever tried this, but if it succeeded, it may safely be predicted that the rush of American converts into the bosom of Mother Church would be unprecedented in the history of religious revivals. It seems hardly credible, but it is nevertheless true, that this pilgrimage is arranged by a "pilgrimage committee," which has issued a prospectus, from which it appears that the pilgrims are to travel first-class, and that "board and lodging will be provided for them at an economic rate." It is estimated that if pilgrims go in large numbers, what we might call a pilgrimage return-ticket will not cost more than £5 a head, the railway offering "a reduction on taking a quantity."

In the ordinary course of things, the French Assembly will not come together again before the 5th of November, but it may be convened at an earlier date. Whether it will or not depends chiefly now on the result of the investigation set on foot privately by the leaders of the monarchical parties, to discover whether a majority of the Assembly is in favor of the re-establishment of a monarchy. The Comte de Paris and the Comte de Chambord having visited each other, and the long-delayed fusion having at last been effected on the basis of the supremacy of the Legitimists and the installation of the Comte de Chambord as Henri V., it only remains to be seen whether the Assembly will ratify the arrangement. The Government evidently feels very strong in the position which it has taken, as is shown by a recent incident at a meeting of the Permanent Committee of the Assembly. The Duc de Broglie had been reported as having said at Lyons, at a prefectoral banquet, that a "duel to the death had been going on since the 24th of May, and that either radicalism or society must succumb in the struggle." For this he was called to question, but replied that the Government would answer for its public acts, but not for statements or rumors relating to private conversations. The Ultramontane journals look upon the fusion as a work of divine interposition. It is hardly necessary to say that Henri V. is going as soon as possible on a private pilgrimage of his own to what is already the favorite and soon will be the historic shrine of Marie Alacoque.

The Government troops in Spain have now recaptured from the insurgent Communists, as the Intransigentes are beginning to be called, Cadiz, Seville, Valencia, Granada, and Salamanca. With the exception of Cartagena, which still holds out under General Contreras, the insurgents appear to have no strongholds left. The canton of Murcia, of which Cartagena is the principal town, is carrying on active war, not only against Spain, but the rest of Europe as well. The situation of the city, which is one of the finest ports on the Mediterranean, has been very convenient for Contreras, who has sent out several piratical expeditions to levy contributions from the citizens of other towns along the coast. It was on one of the expeditions that Almeria, an unfortified town, was bombarded, with such success that an attack on Malaga was resolved upon. The corsair fleet consisted of the iron-clads *Almanza* and *Vittoria*, Contreras being on board the former. They were overtaken, however, near Malaga by the English vessel *Swiftsure*, Captain Ward, and the German *Friedrich Karl*, Commodore Werner. During the bombardment of Almeria, the house of the German Consul had been shelled by the Spaniards, and for this reason, as well as many others, the English Captain and the German Commodore entered at once into an offensive and defensive alliance, and proceeded to drive the Spanish vessels back into the harbor of Cartagena. On their way they fell in with the English Mediterranean Squadron, under Admiral Yelverton, and it was arranged that the Spanish crews should be landed at Cartagena, but the vessels detained.

These conditions were discussed with the foreign consuls, all of whom, it is said, but the French came on board the *Friedrich Karl*. Some of the Intransigentes came on board from the town, and made an attempt to get better terms; but Commodore Werner told them that they were nothing but pirates and robbers, and, if they attempted to show fight, he would not only knock the town to pieces, but blow the vessels out of the water, and hang the government of the place at his yard-arm. The English and German fleet lay for some time outside the harbor with the captured vessels, the terms having been finally accepted; the insurgent forces in the town threatening dreadful things in case any foreign vessel came inside. Inside lay the rebel vessel *Mendez Nunez*, with a naval mob on board, and there was at one time considerable reason to anticipate a fight. The Cartagena Junta tried to obtain a promise from the blockading fleet that the *Almanza* and *Vittoria* should be neutralized—that is to say, should be held by the foreigners until the war between Murcia and the Madrid Government was terminated. This promise, however, was not given; but the Admiral undertook to make a recommendation to that effect to the English Government. The Junta then gave orders to prepare for a terrible combat; but at the last accounts the vessels had been taken to Gibraltar. How the conflict was avoided is not yet known. Meanwhile, the operations in the north against the Carlists continue, with how much success it is impossible to say. The Government has captured the English vessel *Deerhound* in an attempt to run in arms for the Carlists—the same *Deerhound* which took Semmes off the *Alabama*. The naval imbroglio at Cartagena is talked about in certain quarters as an international difficulty; but as the independent sovereignty, or even the belligerency, of the canton of Murcia has not been recognized by any of the Great Powers, the opinion of Commodore Werner, that the forces in that city are pirates and robbers, seems to be correct.

THE NEXT DESCENT UPON THE TREASURY.

IN his last Annual Message to Congress, General Grant, who seemed determined once for all to have it understood that he was quite capable of taking broad, comprehensive views, called the attention of Congress to certain very important enterprises. "The attention of Congress," he said, "will be called, during the present session, to various enterprises for the more certain and cheaper transportation of the constantly increasing surplus of Western and Southern products to the Atlantic seaboard." One of these enterprises he described as a "route to connect the Mississippi Valley with the Atlantic at Charleston, S. C., and Savannah, Georgia, by water, by way of the Ohio and Tennessee Rivers and canals and slack-water navigation to the Savannah and Ocmulgee Rivers," and said that it had already been surveyed and reported on by an accomplished officer of the army. Second, another route to secure the same object, "by an extension of the Kanawha and James River Canal to the Ohio"; and third, another, by extension of the Chesapeake and Ohio Canal; and, in addition to these, "a project to facilitate commerce, by the building of a ship-canal around Niagara Falls, on the United States side, which has been agitated for many years," was mentioned.

For the consideration of these plans the President recommended the appointment of a committee, with power to report at some future time. To the support of none of them, however, did he pledge himself, partly, no doubt, from a wise hesitation in matters of which he knew nothing, but partly also for another reason, which he made sufficiently plain in the same Message. "Looking," the Message continues, "to the great future growth of the country and the increasing demands of commerce, it might be well, while on this subject, not only to have examined and reported upon the various practicable routes for connecting the Mississippi with tide-water on the Atlantic, but the feasibility of an almost continuous land-locked navigation from Maine to the Gulf of Mexico. Such a route along our coast would be of great value at all times, and of inestimable value in case of foreign war. Nature has provided the greater part of this route, and the obstacles to overcome are easily within the reach of the engineer." Into the details of this remarkable plan, which is evidently a pet project of the President, he did not enter, perhaps for the same reason that he has not as yet informed the public what are the grounds for his devout expectation that the twentieth century will see all the nations of the earth speaking one and the same language, and united in a federal republic. It seems clear, whatever the details may turn out to be, that the President will favor any plan which may be brought before the next Congress for securing this land-locked navigation from Maine to the Gulf of Mexico. In accordance with the recommendations of the Message, a committee was appointed by the Senate, with Senator Windom, of Minnesota, as chairman, with full power to sit during the summer, and travel about the country for the purpose of investigating the subject of cheaper and more certain transportation. This committee, known as the Senate Transportation Committee, and which has already done a good deal of travelling, is soon to hold a meeting in this city, and give a general hearing to everybody on the subject.

At the close of the last session of Congress, then, immediately after the exposure in the Crédit Mobilier investigation of the way in which the money of the country is spent on national highway schemes, there was in existence a committee charged practically with the duty of reporting to the next Congress on a variety of new schemes of such vast magnitude that, in comparison with them, the Union Pacific Railroad sinks to the level of a local turnpike.

The appointment of a committee of this kind is usually the signal for the immediate development of an enormous amount of enthusiasm on the subject of the committee's investigations, and, naturally enough, the committee had hardly been called together when from all sides there flocked together transporters, shippers, producers, politicians, and yeomen, not, indeed, at first interested in the proceedings of the committee, but interested in the fact that the air was full of signs that a descent might be made upon the next Congress in the cause of cheap transportation. In May a "Producers' Convention" was held at the Astor House in this city, and it was at this meeting that a speech was made by a veteran railroad promoter in favor of a double-steel-track freight railroad, built by the Government from the West to the East for the purpose of moving the crops. One direct result was the formation of the "American Cheap Transportation Association," having for its object this "people's movement," promising "increasing facilities for commerce, cheaper food for the people, a reform in public morals, and a practical step towards civil-service reform," through a Government-built, double-steel-track freight railroad for the purpose of moving the crops to deep water. At the time of this convention, a Congressional excursion party was being carried about by the city of St. Louis for the purpose of examining the means of improving the navigation of the Mississippi, while a convention of Governors had just been held at Atlanta to consider the advisability of a canal through Georgia to the port of Brunswick or Savannah. Besides this there is the Darien Ship Canal, which has been actually surveyed, and which it is estimated will cost $60,000,000. With regard to this canal, it is proposed in a pamphlet we have before us that an association of individuals should obtain from the U. S. Congress a national charter, and upon an expenditure of ten millions on the work, should ask from Congress a guaranteed interest upon $30,000,000, with such safeguards as Congress may see fit to impose.

All these schemes, however, are unimportant in comparison with the designs of the farmers. The local schemes to which we have referred are all promoted by a few interested persons, who have behind them no very large party. The farmers, on the other hand, have not only the design to secure cheap transportation, they have powerful numbers, complete and effective organization, and in several States already hold the balance of power in their hands. Their designs for the winter are of the utmost importance. Hitherto, it has been supposed that their intentions were chiefly to fix the rates of transportation through the local legislatures, and, so far as the movements have been political, they have as yet done little more than secure the passage of a freight law by Illinois. This law, however, as we have often said, is a complete failure. Its general result has been to raise the rates of transportation, and thus apparently to show those engaged in the movement that nothing can be done without going to Washington.

From all these facts, it is certainly not a very rash inference that at the next session these various canal and railroad systems will be urged upon the attention of Congress with much energy. Into the merits of the several schemes we do not propose to enter; but there are certain general considerations connected with them which seem to us of too much importance to be passed over.

In the first place, it is not very long since the land-grant system, as it is called, was formally abandoned by Congress, and the country was congratulating itself that the public lands were not going to be squandered away for the benefit of greedy railroad corporations. There is, however, no difference in principle between the granting of subsidies in the shape of moneys to a ship-canal, or to a scheme for "land-locked" navigation from Maine to Mexico, and the granting of land for the purpose of building a great national highway. There is, indeed, much less immediate apparent objection to the latter, because the gift of the lands apparently involves no immediate increase of taxation, while a gift of money does. As a matter of fact, of course, the subtraction of either land from the public domain or money from the public treasury is so much out of the pockets of the people. What are the reasons why Congress has put a stop to land-grants? It has done so under the pressure of a very strong public opinion, and the only solid foundation for that opinion is that Congress is not to be trusted any longer with so dangerous a function as special legislation for the purpose of subsidizing private enterprises, however much they might, if properly carried out, benefit the public. In every State in the country in which the State constitutions are undergoing revision, one of the principal objects

of the revisers is to take away from the State legislatures this power. The Crédit Mobilier investigation showed how the power is used.

There is another consideration connected with this subject which seems to have escaped general attention. A year ago, we were assured by everybody that the great desire of the farmers of the West was for free-trade. They were the real anti-monopolists, who were to break down the protectionists' strongholds. It did indeed seem at the time as if this were so. Since the beginning of the farmers' movement, however, it has become every day clearer that free-trade makes no part of their programme, which is in reality a descent upon the Treasury at Washington for a sufficient sum of money to enable them to carry their crops to the ocean whether they are wanted there or not. The farmers have, in short, well learnt the only lesson which the politics of the last twenty years has taught, that the true remedy for all economical difficulties was not free-trade, but protection. It is protection in transportation which the farmers are going to seek next winter at Washington. The Illinois farmer has seen every one but himself go to Washington for money to assist him in his business with success. He has seen the salt and coal and iron miner, the cotton and woollen mill-owner, the wool-grower, and every one engaged in the business of manufactures, when trade was dull, seek his remedy at Washington by change of the tariff. Thus far these others have managed to do it pretty much at his expense. It was the farmer who was taxed on his blankets, his shoes, his stove, his shirt, his coat, his hat, his stockings, his hoes, rakes, spades, shovels, harness; who was taxed, while he remained a healthy and laborious producer, on everything by which he supported life; if he lost his health, on the medicine which was to restore him to his productive condition again; and if he died, on the very grave-stone which covered his body. He has endured this long enough; he has naturally enough determined to see whether the agricultural interest is to be the only non-protected interest in the country. He knows a far simpler way of finding out than by studying the works of Adam Smith. He takes the same means he has seen his neighbors take. He goes to Washington, and there to his surprise finds a vast number of people interested in the question of cheap transportation. One man wishes to have cheap transportation by way of Niagara, another by way of Darien, another by way of the Kanawha Valley, another through the heart of Georgia. The President himself, even, is interested in the subject, having recommended "land-locked navigation" in his last Annual Message. The way is obvious. A judicious system of log-rolling is organized, and the result is, not that any one of the various schemes succeeds, but that all do; and the farmer goes back to his constituents protected against the market for six months.

THE DEFECTS OF THE POSTAL SERVICE.

THE English postal service has recently been subjected to some criticism both in Parliament and in the newspapers. The Postmaster-General is invested with much more discretionary power in England than is given to him in this country, and in the exercise of this power he established a regulation to the effect that no package which appeared to contain money or stamps should go through the mails except as a registered letter. This wide latitude of executive discretion, we may remark, is one of the characteristics of the English system, for the reason that the head of an executive department can be so readily and effectively called to account in Parliament for any abuse of his powers. Accordingly, in this instance, the regulation had hardly gone into operation before the Government was questioned in Parliament as to the reason for a rule which appeared onerous and inconvenient. It appeared in the discussion that the use of postage-stamps is now a common method of remitting small amounts in England, some dealers stating that they received on an average as many as one hundred such enclosures a day, and that the Post-office Department cashed these stamps at a trifling discount. To require such letters to be registered, it was said, would be, to say the least, an inconvenience; and if a man chose to risk his bank-bills or postal stamps in the ordinary way, had he not a right to do so? And was it not arbitrary in the Post-office to subject him to the additional expense and trouble of registering a letter when he preferred to subject himself to the additional risk instead? To this the Government answered that the Post-office had not the right to prohibit absolutely the sending of valuable packages through the mails, and that the regulation in question was merely intended to exclude such as palpably invited the agents of the Department to dishonest practices; that ample facilities are given for sending money or valuables in a safe way; and that the sending of money in ordinary letters is a kind of bounty on peculation which impairs the general usefulness of the mail service. The answer was not altogether satisfactory to the objectors; but it was cheerfully admitted, both in Parliament and by the press, that in England there is no department of the public service which has so carefully studied public convenience, and which gives such universal satisfaction, as the Post-office.

To our own mail service, with its extended routes and loose, political administration, such a regulation would be peculiarly applicable. The post-office, primarily, is neither a common carrier for carrying packages nor a banker for transmitting funds. Its original function is simply that of a public agency for the universal transmission of intelligence. Hence it is that post-offices and mail routes are and ought to be established which, in a business sense, will never pay. The complete transmission of intelligence between the most distant points, and to the most secluded hamlets, is one of the conditions of civilization. It is also a condition, if not of free government, certainly of intelligent government. One can hardly imagine what would be the condition of national affairs if the greater part of our population, cut off from letters and newspapers, knew little more of affairs in Washington than the returning members chose to tell them. It is for these reasons that the post-office rises above money-making contrivances into the region of public necessities. Whatever its cost on the one hand, or its defects on the other, it can never be dispensed with; and as it is the one agency of Government that comes impartially to every man's door—even to the poor freedman or emigrant who cannot read the missive which it delivers—it is not surprising that it is the one which most studies public convenience.

As a consequence of this study, the European post-offices have devised, and our own has copied, the money-order and registered-letter systems; the one being neither more nor less than a banking business by means of bills of exchange, and the other a common carrier, for the transportation of valuable packages. Both are of very great public convenience, but neither comes within the fundamental principle, that the post-office is a means for the general transmission of intelligence. Nevertheless, though not established for the primary object, they have become necessary auxiliaries of it, and, properly used by the public, enable the post-office to attend to its real business of transmitting intelligence with greatly augmented certainty and despatch. If all the money now sent through these systems were inclosed in ordinary letters, one of two things would be inevitable—either that the temptation to mail robberies would be immense, or that the post-office must resort to certain checks in the way of records and receipts. Such checks are not compatible with either economy or despatch. Two things we must have for ordinary letters—the utmost cheapness and the utmost speed. To delay a mail while the clerks are counting and registering the letters, or to double the postage for the purpose of having a great array of clerks, would not accord with either our convenience or necessities. Hence everything approaching the registration of ordinary letters has disappeared from the post-office routine, and the system has come down to absolute, primitive simplicity. We drop a letter into a city box; it is taken by a carrier to the post-office, assorted, and sent with others to the mail-car, there reassorted as it travels and put up for some "distributing office"; at which it is a third time assorted, and sent to the village to which it is addressed. From first to last there is

nothing to show that such a letter was received or carried or delivered. In its transmission it passes through at least five different hands, and if it were to be purloined there would not be the slightest direct evidence to show which of the five agencies was responsible for its loss. It is evident with a system so loose in its business methods that it in effect says to every clerk, "You may help yourself until suspicion be aroused and the eye of the detective be upon you." One cannot afford to freight it with matter that does not belong to it. Every man who puts money in an ordinary letter not only runs a direct and needless risk himself, but he impairs the usefulness of the service for every other man who uses it for its legitimate purpose. Therefore it is that the money-order and registered-letter systems have become necessary auxiliaries of the post-office in its primary and proper work of disseminating intelligence; and if men wish to go beyond this primary work (as to which cheapness and speed are the chief essentials), and avail themselves of its business facilities (as to which care and safety are additional elements), then it would not be unreasonable to compel them by law to resort to its appointed business machinery, and leave its general usefulness unimpaired.

To this end, we call attention to the peculiar advantages of the registered-letter system; and we note the singular fact that a large majority of people have not the slightest practical knowledge of its existence. In the first place, it is in operation in every post-office, and is not, like the money-order system, confined to those which do a considerable amount of mail business. So far as the sender is concerned, the cost is trivial (fifteen cents), and there is not the double operation of sending to the post-office for a money-order and then enclosing it in a letter. On the contrary, he can enclose his money in his letter as he writes it, affix six stamps instead of one, and sending it to the post-office by any messenger receive back the postmaster's receipt. On the part of the receiver there is also the same advantage of a single operation, for he finds the money in the letter when he opens it, and is not obliged to present his money-order at the post-office for payment. But there is also this peculiar advantage, although the registered letter be sent from New York to the remotest prairie post-office in Texas, there comes back to the sender, in course of time, the receipt of the party to whom it is addressed, and this the Post-office brings to him without an additional charge. Thus it saves the receiver the trouble and cost of acknowledging its receipt, and assures the sender that his remittance was actually delivered. So far as safety is involved, the system is subject to the usual casualties, such as fire and shipwreck, but apart from those may be said to be nearly perfect. Every mail agent, from the first postmaster to the last, receipts for the package when he receives it, so that if a loss occurs the Department can put its hand upon the responsible party. As a matter of fact, we believe that no loss has occurred under the present revised system, except such as would come under the head of actual casualties.

But while these conveniences are certainly such as should be appreciated, there are others which are most needlessly withheld from the public. The old-time carrier's cart has, in this country, passed into the hands of great corporations called express companies. These companies have ingeniously arranged their routes, so that a package going from one point to another shall be transferred from one company to another, or, in other words, shall pay double or treble expressage. If, now, a bookseller in New York has to send a handsomely bound book to a country correspondent, it is practically excluded from the registered-letter system by the requirement of letter postage. It would cost the Government no more to transport it in one mail-bag than in another, and the registration fee would indeed yield the Government a handsome profit; but the system is now restricted to letter matter. If the bookseller would send it as printed matter, he must leave one end exposed, so as to tempt every clerk who handles it, and with a tolerable certainty that the binding will be injured before the book arrives. Consequently, he is driven to the express, and his customer pays the double expressage. Again, many small articles which it would be a great convenience to send by mail, cannot be left exposed without the certainty of their loss. In Europe, a package of samples can be sent from London to Brussels, carefully enclosed and sealed up, at printed-matter rates. But the fact that cheap postage has done away with the old tricks and expedients for evading letter postage is a fact not yet perceived by the Congressional mind; and our postal laws still cautiously retain the provisions which in other countries have become obsolete. At least, in such cases, the examination might be deferred till the package is delivered, and the final postmaster be authorized then to open it and see whether it be subject to letter postage.

So long as our Government is managed by politicians, for the benefit of themselves and their party, it is idle to hope that any large amount of brain-work will be given to any branch of the public service. The utmost that we can expect from the Postal Department is that it will borrow, with reasonable rapidity, the improvements which European governments devise. It has taken four years to transport postal cards from Berlin to Washington; which, considering that the journey can be made in a fortnight, certainly seems an unreasonable length of time. The only American improvement which we have to show is the postal car, and it did not come until sleeping cars and restaurant cars had fairly forced the idea into the official mind. Our extended routes on the one hand, and our intelligent, reading, migratory population on the other, furnish a magnificent field for official ingenuity; and instead of a system which is content to drag along tardily in the rear, we ought now to have one decidedly in advance of every other.

THE LIONS OF DIJON.

MARTIGNY, August 8, 1873.

I WOULD advise every traveller who runs over from Paris to Geneva to stop for a day at Dijon, once the capital of the famous Duchy of Burgundy. No province of France has played a more important part in history. The Dukes of Burgundy were for a long time among the most formidable rivals of the kings. Bourgogne and Armagnac were the warcries for a long period; and the quiet capital of a French Department, now administered by a prefect, was in those times a city as important as Paris. Its walls have been demolished, but the numerous spires of the churches, even at a great distance, bear witness to the past magnificence of the town. It must always perplex the traveller to find in a place like Dijon, which, by reason of the wine-trade, is still a centre of great wealth, hotels which would be a dishonor to the remotest town in the far West. I was taken, on a recent visit, by a landlord in his shirt sleeves, up a dark and dingy staircase to a room which was furnished only with a bed, a cane chair, and dirty curtains. But the bed was clean and good, as is almost invariably the case in a French inn, and the landlord, after having asked the news from Paris and given me at full length his opinion on the situation, ordered for me an excellent meal, better than I could have procured in a Paris restaurant. Too much respect and an old tail-coat have never seemed to me as agreeable as an affable landlord who does the honors *à la française*. My new friend would readily have told me the history of his life, of his family, of his neighbors, but I found him as ignorant of the antiquities of Dijon as if he had been born in Brittany. Fortunately, I did not need his services. The *lions* of Dijon are well-known to every scholar. They are the tombs of the Dukes of Burgundy and the famous Puits de Moïse (well of Moses).

Among many religious establishments, the favorite of the dukes was a *Chartreuse*, built a mile from the town. It had become the St. Denis of Dijon. The order of the Chartreux was founded in the XIth century by St. Bruno, and for seven centuries the rules laid down by the saint were strictly obeyed. Philip the Bold built the Chartreuse, and employed the most famous artists of the fourteenth century. A large church was erected in five years. Nothing now remains of it except the portal, with a large statue of the Virgin and two kneeling statues of Philip and his wife. This portal is now the entrance of a new chapel, which no longer receives either monks or dukes, but the poor creatures who live in the Chartreuse, which has been turned into the lunatic asylum of the Department. The tombs of the dukes which adorned the church have been transported to the palace of the dukes, which had become afterwards the palace of the States-General of Burgundy, and which serves now as a museum. Of this palace, which is truly splendid in its proportions, nothing remains of the old building except a strange Gothic tower, very

irregular in its form, and the guard-room, which was saved from the fire which destroyed all the rest. This guard-room is of magnificent size. In its chimney a whole deer could be roasted, and sixty knights could sit round it. The top of the chimney is a huge framework in the Gothic style, which extends to the roof. Opposite the chimney is the tomb of Philip the Bold. His painted statue is lying over the great rectangular tomb, built of black marble. Over his head two kneeling angels with gilded wings hold his helmet. His head rests on a pillow painted half red and half blue. His crown has not the form of a modern crown; it is a simple band of gold covered with large jewels. The duke holds his two hands as if he were praying, and his rings are not, as it is now the fashion, on the third phalanx of the fingers, but on the second. His long gown and his mantle lie in noble folds, and his pointed iron shoes emerging at the end rest on a lion. There is a strange majesty in the attitude of this giant-warrior, wrapt in a sort of sacerdotal robe. But the most curious part of the monument is a kind of miniature cloister which runs all round the tomb, and which is built in alabaster, cut in the most delicate manner. Under the arches of this cloister are the mourners of the duke—monks, priests, dependants of all sorts, in every attitude of grief. It is like a people of pigmies mourning over a giant. The carving of them is exquisite, and all the details of their costume carry the mind back to past ages.

A second tomb of equal size, which was made on the model of the first, bears the statues of Jean-sans-peur and Margaret of Bavaria, his wife. Two winged angels bear the helmet of the duke, and two the arms of the princess. I will remark here that the escutcheon of Burgundy is always supported by winged angels, and that it bears the fleur-de-lis, as King John, who was a prisoner in England, gave the Duchy of Burgundy to his younger brother Philip, who had at the age of fourteen fought by his side at Poitiers. All round this second tomb also is an alabaster cloister, under which are a number of monks, weeping, praying, moving in every direction. Nothing can well give an impression of these extraordinary monuments; their preservation is perfect, though one sees in the black marble top fissures which run across. At the time of the Terror, in '93, an order was sent to destroy the tombs of the tyrants; but this order was executed intelligently—the black marble was simply fissured and not broken. A few of the little alabaster monks were stolen, but have since been replaced.

Some idea of the magnificence of the old St. Denis of the Dukes of Burgundy may be formed from inspection of the two movable altar-pieces (in French called *retables*), which are in carved wood, completely gilt, and which represent various scenes of the Passion, the sides being covered with lovely statues of saints and martyrs. St. George is particularly noticeable, as he is in the exact costume of a knight of the fifteenth century. The temptation of St. Anthony is also one of the subjects of this fanciful decoration; a black devil offers him a purse of gold, a form of temptation which will always be well understood. A young woman also comes before the saint, but she is completely covered with one of those long gowns without folds and without any visible *ceinture*, which were the fashion at the time of Margaret of Bavaria. The artistic ideal of the Middle Ages was chaste, and did not allow in a church such representations as are so common in the "Temptations of St. Anthony" painted afterwards by the Flemish masters. The young princess who tempts the saint would not be distinguishable from a saint, except that she wears on her long flowing hair two small horns. Over the altar hangs an old piece of tapestry, which is very well preserved, and is almost as interesting as the tapestry of Bayeux. It represents the siege of Dijon (1513). The bear of Berne is still visible on one of the standards. The Swiss were secretly bribed by a large sum of gold, suddenly left their allies, and Dijon was saved by their retreat. The profile of the town, with its numerous spires and churches, was very much then what it is now at a distance. Burgundy, it must be remembered, was one of the centres of early Christianity in Gaul. St. Stephen is the oldest church, and St. Bénigne the oldest abbey. Round them is a congregation of secondary churches—St. Vincent, Notre Dame, St. Médard, St. Michel, the Holy Chapel. In other parts of the town are St. John, St. Philbert, St. Nicholas, St. Peter. St. Stephen, the mother-church as it were, was built in the fourth century, but became a cathedral only long afterwards. The abbots enjoyed many privileges and coined their own money. Since 1178, Notre Dame has been the first parish church of the town; its façade, though built in the Gothic style, has a very unusual form. It is rectangular, and has two stories of columns over the porch, without any windows. This shape is not very pleasing to the eye.

The church of St. Bénigne was the centre of a part of the town which was outside the old *castrum romanum*, and enjoyed peculiar privileges. It was the first refuge of the Christians at the time when the Roman *prætores* still inhabited the *castrum*. It was in this church, which had received the remains of the apostle of Burgundy, that the dukes afterwards swore solemnly to respect the ancient rights of the town and of the Duchy. Little remains of the oldest part of the church, built in the circular Roman style over the tomb of St. Bénigne. The legends connected with this tomb are innumerable, and it is enough to say that for centuries it was one of the holy places of Gaul. The abbot was in direct dependence on the Pope, and it was probably in this capacity that he received the oath of the dukes, and gave, as their superior lord, the ducal ring, the mantle, and the crown.

I must now attempt to describe the well of Moses. Imagine a large well full of water; in the centre rises a huge column, whose capital is of enormous size, and is divided into six parts. In each part is a statue of a size larger than life. First, you see Moses, with the tables of the law in his hand, a long flowing beard, and two short horns, like the Moses of Michael Angelo; if we turn a little on the circular platform which has been built round the monument, we come to King David, with a harp in his hand and a crown on his head, not a single band like the crown of the dukes, but a high crown formed of separate branches. The other statues represent Jeremiah (the expression of anguish and pain on his face is truly wonderful), then Zacharias, in the vestments of a high-priest; Daniel, with a curious Asiatic cap; and Isaiah, with a book under his arm. Each of these statues is admirable; they are not stiff and meagre; they are full of life and of majesty. They were all painted in the fashion of the time (the date of the monument is 1399), and many traces of the gilding and of the colors are still visible. Over these huge figures is a line of winged angels, which support the upper part of the capital, on which was built a Calvary, Jesus on the cross, with the holy women and St. John at his feet. This part of the monument has been unfortunately destroyed. The statues of the capital, in the conception of the artist, represent the precursors of Christ, David his ancestor, and the prophets who had beforehand had a vision of the Passion; they hold in their hands long rolls, on which are inscribed, in Gothic characters, the verses of the Old Testament which relate to the death of the Messiah. Moses represents the old Law, considered as the fountain of the new Law. Many pages have been written in explanation of this monument; to my mind, the idea is very simple, and this very simplicity adds much to the effect. The cross of Christ, which was on the top, was the central idea; all the details of the capital were simply grouped round it, as additional ideas. The absence of John the Baptist has been much commented upon. I leave it to the exegetists to explain it; I will only say that Saint John the Baptist seldom appears in the monuments of the Middle Ages; his importance, as an artistic element, does not even begin with the early schools of painting, and is only very noticeable at the time when art had made great progress in Italy (with Perugino, Donatello, etc.) It is probably because the scene of the baptism requires a great familiarity with the naked form of man, and the early artists avoided the nude as much as they could.

The traveller will find much more to see in Dijon: the old palace of its parliament, which serves now for the law courts, and many private houses of interest, among which is one which was once inhabited by the ambassadors of England, for the Dukes of Burgundy were at one time the allies of England; but in our day we live somewhat in a hurry, and an æsthetic mind will be quite satisfied with the contemplation of the guard-room of the palace, of the tombs of the dukes, and of the well of Moses. We keep only a few features of the past, and we must try to choose the purest of all.

MORLEY'S ROUSSEAU.*

PARIS, July 30, 1873.

MR. MORLEY has done for Rousseau what he had done already for Voltaire. He has not simply written his biography—he has made this biography the ground, the first plan of a philosophical and political picture of the eighteenth century. Judged at this long distance of a century, these two men, Voltaire and Rousseau, assume now very different proportions. Voltaire had more practical effect in his own age, and Rousseau in the age which followed him. Voltaire, though he advocated so many changes, appears to us as a conservative, and Rousseau as the very genius of revolution and of socialism. Voltaire is more really humane and philanthropic, though he wrote for the great; and Rousseau, who wrote, so to speak, against the great, was at heart a despot, a hater of mankind. Voltaire was wanting in sentiment, but he had an exquisite urbanity, and he hated cruelty with a sort of noble fervor; Rousseau was always in tears, overflowing with sensibility, but his sensibility belonged to the nervous temperament, and his soul was really tuned and formed like the souls of the Terrorists of the French Revolution.

* 'Rousseau. By John Morley.' New York: Scribner, Welford & Armstrong. 2 volumes. 1873.

The secret of all his political and philosophical work must be sought for in his life, and it is with much reason that Mr. Morley devotes so many chapters to his youth, and to his wandering life in Savoy and Switzerland. One can hardly read a few pages in the two volumes of Mr. Morley without being referred to the 'Confessions.' The 'Confessions' is in fact Rousseau's great work, his enduring work; for his 'Essays,' his 'Contrat Social,' his 'Emile,' his 'Nouvelle Héloise,' can hardly be read now from beginning to end without tedium. There is in them something so utterly false, so unreal, that one wonders how the French society of the eighteenth century could have been fed so long on such unsubstantial nourishment. These books, notwithstanding their magnificent style, strike us as do the fashions of another age. It seems as if the dresses of the Empire or the Directory could never have been really worn. Is the 'Nouvelle Héloise' really a love-story —this perpetual preaching on love—this eternal confusion and distinction of virtuous vice and vicious virtue? Give me rather the letters of Héloise and Abélard, or the pastoral of Daphne and Chloe, or the short ode of Sappho. Is 'Emile' a treatise on education? Take me to the wild Indians or to any tribe of savages rather than to a people of Emiles. I would rather die at once than be so *ennuyé*. Is the 'Contrat Social' the gospel of a new political faith? What could be more unreal, more fantastic than a theory founded on the supposition that men in the woods, troglodytes, formed a compact, invented the ballot and universal suffrage? What we call "the state" is not, and never was, an initial cause. It is an effect, the ever-changing effect, of long centuries of culture and civilization.

But the errors which were proved so dangerous, during the Terror, of the 'Contrat Social,' as well as the errors of the 'Emile,' can all be traced to the same cause, which must be found in the 'Confessions.' What a distance there is between the 'Confessions' of St. Augustine and those of Rousseau! Both represent themselves as great sinners, but one is almost as proud of his sins as the other is ashamed of them. St. Augustine is the founder of the doctrine of grace and of election; in his eyes, man deserves nothing from the hands of God; he owes everything to the generosity, to the goodness, of the Almighty. All the doctrines of Calvin, of Jansen, of Pascal, are in germ in the 'Confessions' of St. Augustine. Rousseau's 'Confessions' are conceived in a totally different spirit; he uses his sins simply as weapons against society; instead of believing in the total depravity of man, he believes in the perfection of the individual, isolated man; he endows his ideal *natural* man with all the virtues; his vices, his faults are only forced upon him by a forced state of society. Rousseau himself is, so to speak, this *natural* man, moving among a corrupt people, in conflict with civilization. He is a *solitaire* among millions; he cannot dress like anybody else; he invents a style, and speaks of the sublimities of nature in a manner quite unknown in an age of small verses, of well-cut French parterres, like the parterres of Versailles and of St. Cloud. He teaches mothers to nurse their own children; his Emile must learn a trade; and such is the influence of the new teacher that we see even now, in the palace of Versailles, traces of the handicraftsmanship of Louis XVI. This revolution can be compared, to a certain extent, to what has been called in our time in England muscular Christianity, and so far had some good effects; but the naturalism of Rousseau had much wider consequences in the moral order. Open any book you like written in the latter part of the eighteenth century, read any speech you may choose of the Constituent Assembly or the Convention, and you will find marks of the deep impression produced by the teachings of Rousseau. The whole of society seems pervaded with the poisonous doctrine, which exonerates the individual man and throws all responsibilities on the ideal, unknowable, invisible "state." At least, when Louis XIV. proudly said, "l'état c'est moi," he assumed a responsibility, he undertook to make France great, glorious, and prosperous. But what will become of a state in which every man considers himself as perfect, will attempt no struggle with his own passions, spend his days in glorified selfishness, and expects from the "state" the gratification of all his wishes, desires, and even caprices?

Rousseau tells us how he was walking from Paris to Vincennes, on a visit to Diderot, and felt suddenly inspired, entranced, by seeing in a newspaper the announcement of the following theme propounded by the Academy of Dijon: "Has the revival of science contributed to purify or to corrupt manners?" Of course Rousseau pleaded the cause of ignorance against science. This paradoxical essay, written, as Rousseau himself confesses, without conviction, determined however the direction of his entire intellectual career. He entered the lists as an enemy of civilization, of all conventions, of all historical forces. He was not a charlatan; he constructed for himself a sort of belief in the wickedness of society and the intrinsic virtue and perfection of man. He was a visionary; every eye can perceive the defects of society, but every eye cannot see the ideal Emile. His brain was certainly somewhat diseased, for he had all his life that strange delirium of persecution which is a common symptom of impending madness. Rousseau lived in a land of dreams, he was essentially anti-scientific, anti-positivist. Mr. Morley justly remarks that the 'Spirit of Laws' of Montesquieu had initiated a true method for the study of history and legislation, of a method founded upon facts: "The *Discours*," says he, "was the beginning of a movement in an exactly opposite direction; that is, away from patient collection of wide multitudes of facts relating to the conditions of society, towards the promulgation of arbitrary systems of absolute social dogmas."

This dogmatism culminated in the French Revolution and the various constitutions which were presented to the French people by political dictators amidst thunder and lightning, as a revelation from God; but, long before the Revolution, the national mind had been permeated by it. It is so much easier to drift into theories and dreams, to talk of sensibility, to shed tears over humanity, than to get possession of hard facts, of statistics, to make calculations, to enter into the details of administration! The old régime, nursed with the 'Nouvelle Héloise' and the impracticable 'Contrat Social,' became quite imbecile, unable to solve the smallest problems. What produced the French Revolution?—the inability to pay a debt of six hundred millions, a sum which seems to us a mere trifle. The system of taxation was ridiculous, and nobody knew how to change it. What is less known is the incapacity of the revolutionists as administrators and financiers. This incapacity was not the result of a subjective defect; it arose from the false method which Rousseau had originated, from the mania of big words and the contempt of small facts. Tocqueville has well proved that the whole system of centralization, which is generally considered as the work of the Convention and of Napoleon, is really the work of Richelieu, of Louis XIV., and of the ministers of Louis XV. Even at this time we have many of the taxes of the old régime. There was little administrative originality in the Revolutionary school, because it was always in a sphere of abstract dogma. To this day the Republican and Socialist parties have remained faithful to the doctrines of the 'Social Contract'; and this is the reason why the germ of Cæsarism is concealed in the French ideal of a republic. Gambetta would make no objection to these words: "As nature gives to each man an absolute power over all his members, so the social pact gives to the body politic an absolute power over all its members." Can we not find the theory of what is called by the modern Jacobins the imperative mandate in these words: "Sovereignty, being only the exercise of the general will, can never be alienated; and the sovereign, who is only a collective being, can only be represented by himself; the power may be transmitted, but not the will. Sovereignty is indivisible, not only in principle, but in object." The sections of the Parisian populace held no other doctrines when they dictated their will, amidst glittering bayonets, to the frightened Convention; and Robespierre, in his Declaration of Rights, only echoed Rousseau when he wrote: "The sovereignty resides in the people; it is one and indivisible, imprescriptible and inalienable." Rousseau himself dimly foresaw the dangers of a theory which considers all men as detached atoms of the same weight; and in his constitutional scheme for Poland he insisted upon the advantages of federal governments. In a large country like France—without any federal states, any distinct provinces—ten millions of electors, with unbounded equal and inalienable rights, forbidden to delegate their sovereignty for a limited number of years to any representatives, must either destroy each other or abdicate into the hands of a dictator. He felt at times that perfect equality was a dream, and spoke of elective aristocracy. But on the whole the Anglo-Saxon idea of government was distasteful to him; and he went so far as to say that there was no liberty at all in England. He was democratic and despotic, and considered even the separation of church and state as an abomination.

As Mr. Morley often justly observes, Rousseau ignored history; he drew all his conceptions from his imagination; he ignored the influences of race, of accumulated forces, of habit, of education, of nationality. He was a destroyer, an iconoclast, a hater of the past; but he was at the same time a prophet. His dangerous catechism is easily understood by the masses. He says to every man who suffers: "You suffer not by your own fault, but by the fault of the state, of the kings, of the priests, of the laws, of the rich, of the nobles. Christianity has promised to all men the blessings of eternal life. I offer to you this visible world; it is all your own. You can, by legislation, make yourself king, priest, lord, dictator."

I have not been able to do sufficient justice to the work of Mr. Morley. He has shown in these new volumes the qualities he had already shown in his 'Voltaire'—a perfect knowledge of his subject, a catholic sympathy for all the manifestations of thought. His feelings as a gentleman have often been revolted by the actions of Rousseau, but his respect for genius has always given dignity to his most severe criticisms.

Correspondence.

FREIGHT CHARGES AND WATERED STOCK.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: The grievance of the farmers is, that the charge for transportation absorbs the profit of raising grain.

The alleged excessive charge for transportation is attributed to the fact that some railroads have "watered" their stock.

The conclusion from this statement is that the larger the nominal capital of a railroad, the more power it has to charge and collect high rates for the service it renders.

In other words, it would appear that if there were but two railroad lines from the seaboard to Iowa, the charge for the transportation of wheat on each line might be in proportion to the nominal capital, and that the line on which stock should be issued without a cash payment thereon would have the power to charge the highest rate. Of course, nothing can be more absurd than this notion.

In considering this question, a definition should be given to the term "watered stock." This term is applied indiscriminately to all stock that is issued in the form of a dividend, or on which no actual assessment in money has been levied and paid, but there are two or three very different kinds of "watered stock."

1. There are many successful roads that have earned an excess of profits above their dividends on the capital actually paid in, or that have forborne to make cash dividends, and have invested their surplus or their earnings in new track or additional equipment, and, having thus furnished themselves with additional power to perform service, have issued stock as a dividend to represent such actual machinery and apparatus.

2. There are roads which, having secured the best route between given points, and having fully equipped their lines, have yet found it possible to earn a fair dividend upon a larger capital than has been actually paid in in cash, and have thereupon issued additional stock, such stock representing no additional equipment or track on which to perform service.

3. There are roads that have been built with the proceeds of bonds, and upon which the stock has been issued as a bonus without any cash payment whatever.

From this definition of three classes of "watered stock," it must be obvious that there can be no connection between the nominal amount of capital, or the nominal cost of a railroad, and the charge made by the road for transportation.

In the first case, the "watered stock" is itself evidence of the power of the road to perform service more effectively and at less rates of charge than would have been possible had not the road earned the equipment of which such watered stock is an evidence.

In the second case, the watered stock is evidence of the existence of traffic between given points that will be certain to attract capital to the construction of another road between those points, or that will cause railroads to be built from the chief market supplied by such a road to other points where products of like character can be obtained.

In the third case, the issue of stock may be, or may not be, a wrong method, but it does not indicate any special power on the part of the road to charge excessive rates, or any different power than would have existed had the payments of cash for the bonds been represented by stock and not by bonds. The fraud, if any, in such case is perpetrated upon those who may afterwards buy the stock on the supposition that it represents a cash payment, and not upon those who send merchandise over the road.

The facts are, that, inasmuch as all our railroads may be classed into the above three classes, with a fourth, in which the stock and bonds would substantially agree with the cash paid in, the nominal amounts of stock and bonds existing upon any given line are no criterion whatever of the rates of transportation that are or may be charged over that line.

So far from the truth is it that the roads most honestly built, and on which the stock and bonds outstanding represent actual cost, can and do perform their work at less charge than any other, that it may appear that roads upon which the stock has been excessively watered, either upon the first or second methods, are worked at less cost for transportation, and at a less charge to the community, than any other roads in the country.

The writer has not the data to prove this point, but it is suggested that a comparison should be made by railroad experts of the comparative rates of charge made by railroads. It would not be difficult to classify roads into the four classes named, and to compare their charges per mile. It is safe to predict that the roads in the first class would prove to be the most serviceable to the community, and thus to prove that there is a substantial identity of interests between the railroad corporation and the community served by it, and that a war of one class upon the other can result only in harm to both.

New Englander.

Notes.

Little, Brown & Co. will publish in the fall two volumes completing the 'Life of Timothy Pickering,' interrupted by the untimely death of Mr. Octavius Pickering. The continuation is the work of Mr. Charles W. Upham.——'Womanhood, its Sanctities and Fidelities,' by Mrs. Isabella B. Hooker, is among the forthcoming publications of Lee & Shepard.——General Lew Wallace is the author of an historical Mexican romance entitled 'The Fair God,' which will make a plump volume of nearly six hundred pages, and will be published by J. R. Osgood & Co. The same house have in press 'Oldport Days,' by Mr. T. W. Higginson.

—If we make in these Notes rather frequent allusions to the Boston Public Library, it is not from any motive of partiality, but in order that as much currency as possible may be given to the examples it is constantly furnishing of how such an institution should be managed for its greatest usefulness. 'The Twenty-first Annual Report of the Trustees' and the new 'Catalogue of Books in the Lower Hall' (History, Biography, and Travel) invite remark in this sense. The Library now consists of a central hall and three ward or district branches, comprising a collection of more than 220,000 volumes, or double the number possessed ten years ago. Of these, 92,333 are recorded as gifts; a fact which needs no comment. The most important acquisition of the year has been the Barton Library, of which we made mention at the time of the purchase. The present Report gives no particular statement of its composition. The most novel experiment, and one hotly contested, has been the Sunday opening of the Periodical Reading-room. The result of it, say the Trustees, "has probably disappointed the expectations of those who took extreme views on one side or the other," but that it has brought in a class of readers not reached before, and that it is worth the outlay, seems to be conceded. "The use has been from one-half to three-quarters of the average week-day use," and the attendance uniformly decorous. The feature of the above-named Catalogue which is new and striking, is the liberal insertion of notes designed to facilitate further reading or study of any given topic. They do not consist of a bare list of authorities, but aim at discriminating among them intelligently and without bias. They are found under general articles like Slavery, Indians, Mohammedanism, Art, and under the names of individuals like Washington, Luther, Webster, Napoleon, etc., etc., while the historical notes under England, France, India, United States, and the like are elaborately subdivided into heads of enquiry which greatly lighten the task of consulting them. When reference is made to a work in the Library itself (and this is of course almost always the case), the hall, shelf, and number are added, permitting instant examination without further trouble. The nature of this work, we need scarcely add, adapts it for general use in all libraries, and in almost every study, and it ought to find a place beside the regular catalogue of every institution of the kind in the country.

—Evidence of a supermundane circulation of the N. Y. *World* would appear to have been afforded by an occurrence last winter at a spiritual *séance* in London. Mr. Holmes, described as "a celebrated physical medium from America," officiated, and he and another gentleman held a clean slate in a darkened cabinet, with the usual guaranty against trickery. When it was withdrawn, the following "sentiment" was found written on it:

"The same process of philosophy that materializes spirit also spiritualizes matter. We lose nothing in giving up the old ideas of immateriality if we still hold that matter is cunning enough to produce consciousness, thought, affection, and will. Names are of no consequence. If the latest thinkers choose to call the thing that manifests these phenomena nervous fluid, or ether, or force, or tissue under the play and vibration of a combination of forces, I do not see in this language any danger of our shocking our old-fashioned souls. Matter or dynamical machinery that is capable of personality, is very likely to have also the faculty of immortality. Good-night, dear friends. Doctor."

All this was duly published in a London spiritual journal called *Human Nature*, but only lately fell under the eyes of Mr. J. H. Noyes, the patriarch of the Oneida Community, who at once recognized part of an article on "Positivism" which he contributed to the *World* in January, 1869, with one or two verbal errors in the transcription ("process" for *progress*, "shocking" for *losing*), and the addition, "Good-night," etc. Mr. Noyes is now trying to decide whether he or the "Doctor" was the original author of the passage, and whether, if it was merely a quotation on the Doctor's part, and more quotations are likely to be made by the same irresponsible plagiarist, there is any way by which he (Mr. Noyes) can correct proof before delivery.

—A late number of the *Pall Mall Gazette* contains an interesting notice of the French artist Gavarni, the biography of the brothers De Goncourt "suggesting," but not "furnishing, the materials" for the article. It is curious enough that he was first privately known as an admirable designer of fashion plates. An engineer by profession, he "seems to have forsaken his original calling at the earliest opportunity, merely for the sake of drawing gentlemen and ladies in irreproachable attire." He always kept up his mathematical studies, and ended by putting aside art "to occupy himself with a sort of transcendental engineering." "For some years before his death, almost the only designs he made were in connection with flying machines and aerial navigation generally." In politics, he was of the school of Mr. Fitzjames Stephen. You could judge of the men, he said, by the mere phraseology of their political cries. What, for instance, was the meaning of "Droit au travail" (what Judge Bradley in the New Orleans butchers' case calls the "sacred right to labor")? Would it, he said, be a particle more ridiculous to talk of the right to breed rabbits, which no one had ever contested? His personal sympathies were with the Orleans family. Gavarni's object in going to England was to make a number of drawings illustrative of English society and of English life. This work proving a failure, he returned, after a trip to Scotland, to London, where he took rooms, resolved to study the national character thoroughly. His life there seems to have been as original as from his sketches one would suppose everything about Gavarni to have been. It was his practice to sally out of his rooms in Salisbury Square, Fleet Street, in the evening, or, whenever he felt inclined to be idle, walk across the Square in dressing-gown and slippers, enter a tavern called the Barley Mow, and sit there smoking cigarettes, drinking bottled ales, "coupé avec de l'eau"—in other words, diluted with water—ruminating or conversing, as the case might be. "British bottled ale was at that time almost as strange to Frenchmen as cigarettes were to Englishmen. Gavarni entertained a high opinion of it, especially of the Scotch variety; and, perhaps from having met with it in Paris only at such places as Tortoni's and the Café Anglais, fancied that it was a particularly fashionable beverage."

—He grew so fond of bottled ale that an idea occurred to him, which the writer of the notice cites as an illustration of the difficulties in the way of his getting completely to the bottom of England and Englishmen. It was that of producing a work illustrative of English life in every class, and in every place, town as well as country, to be called 'A Pot of Beer.' Hop-picking, the interior of a large brewery, a village public-house, with laborers and artisans drinking porter, and finally a banquet, with gentlemen and ladies drinking ale, were among the scenes he proposed to represent. It was pointed out to him that ale was not the characteristic drink of people of fashion, nor porter the drink of our working-classes alone; and, moreover, that the title 'A Pot of Beer' would be thought vulgar. On this he abandoned his hastily considered project. One curious thing is mentioned about Balzac, which we have never seen noticed before. Gavarni had a great admiration for Balzac, but he declared that in private conversation he was "stupid," repeating, in answer to a request for an explanation of so surprising a statement, that he was "simplement bête." He added that Balzac found it very difficult to set to work, and that he would cover his paper with numbers of little words and phrases, which he scribbled in all sorts of ways, before he began; though, once having got his faculties into play, it is known that he would continue writing for prodigious and almost alarming periods.

—The slighting French phrase, "he didn't invent gunpowder," must, it seems, be applied to the Chinese, who have so long been credited with this as with other discoveries which they never learned to put to their highest use. In Trübner's *Literary Record* for August, we find an abstract of a paper on this subject which appeared last year in the *Journal* of the Royal Asiatic Society. The author is Mr. Wm. Frederick Mayers, Chinese Secretary of the British Legation at Peking. He asserts that the Chinese invented gunpowder only in the encyclopædias, and that every native writer who treats seriously of the subject disclaims the honor. "Probably the first disquisition relating to gunpowder that exists in Chinese literature is that which occurs in the work entitled '*Wuh-li-siao-she*, by Fang I-che, who flourished during the last reign of the Ming dynasty, or, therefore, between 1600–1644 A.D." This esteemed author says expressly that "gunpowder (*huo-yao*) came from the outer barbarians," and places the first instance of its use in China in the second year of K'ai Pao of the Sung dynasty (969 A.D.) Chao Yi, a modern writer, also of high repute for learning and research, admits that ancient Chinese literature (or that preceding the T'ang dynasty, seventh to tenth century A.D.) contains not a syllable in reference to gunpowder or any analogous compound. He says that "Chinese antiquarians are agreed that the fire-crackers of the present day merely imitate the crepitating sound of bamboos, which were formerly burnt as a charm for exorcising evil spirits," a practice first recorded in two famous works assigned to the middle of the sixth century; and gunpowder was first employed in manufacturing the fire-cracker (called to this day *p'ao-chu*, or "crackling bamboo"). Mr. Mayers seeks to prove that gunpowder was known for centuries in India before it came to be employed in China, where it was probably introduced about the fifth or sixth century from India or Central Asia, in connection with the manufacture of fireworks for purposes of diversion. His competency to discuss Chinese antiquities may be judged from the announcement, in the same number of the *Record*, that he has been engaged for some time on a 'Biographical, Historical, and Mythological Dictionary of Chinese Literature,' similar to Dr. Smith's well-known classical series.

—Doubtless we shall soon get track of the original inventor of what we may call the feudal *right of entrail*, alluded to in our last issue. The August number of the *Polybiblion* has two responses to its previous enquiry. M. Louis Veuillot, in his 'Droit du Seigneur au moyen âge,' remarking on the falsifications of history with respect to feudal institutions, cites a case of "imbecile credulity" from an 'Encyclopédie des jeunes étudiants et des gens du monde, par une société de gens de lettres et de savants' (Paris: Hachette, 1833). It is under the rubric 'Droits Seigneuriaux' that, as he says, after the usual defamation of seigneurs, bishops, and monks, one is treated to what the cyclopædist calls the abominable right which the seigneurs of Montjoie arrogated to themselves: "When in winter the counts of Montjoie and of Mèches went hunting, they had the right to disembowel *two* of their serfs for the sake of warming their feet in their smoking entrails." The *Polybiblion's* correspondent who sends this information obtained from M. Veuillot, adds that he has somewhere read that this pretended right was first heard of in the tribune of the Constituent Assembly, and intimates that it was taken up and repeated by the historian Dulaure and others of his kidney. Still another correspondent would fasten the honor of the invention on M. Duvernoy, inasmuch as in this author's 'Ephémérides du Comte de Montbéliard' (1832) occurs the following passage:

"The inhabitants who groaned under the weight of feudal burdens, feared to find in the Baron of Montjoie a suzerain more jealous of his rights than the Prince of Montbéliard. Among these rights was one calculated to excite horror in the highest degree. When in winter the counts of Roche and the lords of Maîche went hunting, they could cause to be disembowelled two of their serfs for the sake of warming their feet in their smoking entrails."

This version is identical with that copied from the Encyclopædia, as our translation shows, with the single difference in the proper names and in the alternative construction: *pour réchauffer leurs pieds, pour se réchauffer les pieds.* M. Duvernoy assigns as late a date as 1704 to the exercise of the right in question. The correspondent points out the similarity of *servus* and *cervus* as perhaps having given rise, through a clerical or printer's error, to the misconception. Apparently the only part of the transaction for which our Communist author Tridon was responsible, was the introduction of the barbarous custom into Brittany from the South of France.

—At one of the ordinary general meetings of the Royal Institute of British Architects, in London, during the last spring session, a paper on the "Art of Sgraffito Decoration" was read by Mr. Alan S. Cole, son of Mr. Henry Cole, the late Superintendent and Director of South Kensington Museum. Of the young gentleman himself, it is enough to say that he seems to be worthily treading in the steps of his father, who, as Mr. C. Barry remarked at the meeting, has rendered himself conspicuous for many years, among the art-teachers of Europe, in making experiments and failures which he has not been afraid of, because they teach more than anything else. The method of employing *sgraffito*, which has been experimented upon by Mr. Moody and certain students at South Kensington, for some ten years, was narrated at some length by Mr. Alan Cole, and led to a very interesting discussion by some of the leading architects of the English metropolis, who were present to welcome the début of the young lecturer. *Sgraffito* is the scratching of an ornament upon an *intonaco* layer, or upper layer, applied to a black (or colored) ground, leaving the white of the intonaco to represent the white forms and the black to represent the black. To fix this preparation of plasters to a wall it is necessary that the wall should be well wetted; in fact, as Ceninni has said, "you cannot wet the wall too much." An ordinary "floating" coat of plaster three-quarters of an inch thick is first laid; when this is sufficiently dry—say in three or four days—a layer of black plaster not more than a quarter of an inch thick is then applied; when this layer has settled and is still damp, the finishing coat of light-colored plaster one-eighth of an inch, or less, is then laid, according to the delicacy of the work, or the distance at which the *sgraffito* may be ultimately placed from the eye. When the surface is prepared for being worked upon, and before the plaster hardens, the *sgraffito* or hatching should be executed. In this respect, it will be observed that this method

resembles fresco painting, since no more of the surface should be prepared than the artist is able to finish in one day. Mr. Moody's own report of his experience as to the transfer of a design, and its subsequent execution on the plaster, gives very interesting details:

"Having made a full-sized drawing of the proposed ornament, it can be transferred to the wall by tracing the lines through the paper on to the wet and yielding plaster, or if the drawing is executed in charcoal, it may be printed on the wall by turning its face toward the plaster and rubbing it firmly at the back; then, with an ordinary desk penknife, which was found to be the best tool, the artist firmly incises the outline, cutting through the upper layer into but not through the black layer below; he then scrapes away the upper layer and exposes the black wherever black is wanted, leaving the upper layer wherever white is wanted, and in this way any design in two tints can be executed with rapidity and effect. Where large spaces of black occur, it is as well to use a broad tool with a square end, which not only removes the upper layer easily and quickly, but gives a tolerably even surface to the layer below. Although designs are very generally executed in black and white, any colors which are permanent, when mixed with plaster, can of course be used."

For the experiments at South Kensington there were, of course, the precedents which exist for the various uses of stucco supplied by Italian artists of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, and by the Tuscan architects and decorators especially. Yet a successful modification of *sgraffito* which was tried certainly deserves remark. It is Mr. Moody who is recording his essay:

"Having prepared a maroon ground instead of a finishing coat, scarcely more than one-sixteenth of an inch thick, a layer was laid of light cement one-half of an inch thick, and having traced the drawing upon it, the outline of the figure was cut straight down to the ground; after clearing away the waste, a projecting slab of the exact figure wished for remained. The face was then carved after the manner of cameo-cutting; and in this way a relief was obtained, in some respects better, perhaps, than if it had been modelled; for the degree of relief in this experiment is more uniform and sculpturesque, while the figures come more satisfactorily off the ground than they would if they were painted upon it."

—Mr. Alan Cole hesitates to speak with any exactness of the origin of *sgraffito*. The Italian artists employed stucco considerably in the decoration of the Vatican, both for modelling and painting upon. Hence, from this latter use of plaster were revived the various methods, more or less similar, which went by the names of "painting in fresco," "intonaco," "terrata," etc., which, as the earliest examples of wall decoration indicate—the wall-paintings of Pompeii, for instance—were known to artists practising thousands of years ago. It is not unlikely that *sgraffito* is an offspring of cameo-cutting. They both are arts having limits analogous one to the other. The artist who designed and executed a cameo limited himself in materials and colors. He depended solely upon the variations of layer which a stone possessed. In the same way the *sgraffito* worker, relieved certainly of the trouble of finding a suitable combination of layers, since each combination is under his control, limits himself to the variations he can obtain from the two layers of oppositely colored plasters. In the subsequent portions of his communication, altogether a graceful performance, Mr. Cole gave other interesting details as to the practice of the art, enumerating some of the principal Italian artists who employed it since the XVth century. The ensuing discussion called up Mr. F. P. Cockerell, Mr. Gambier Patty, Professor Kerr, Mr. C. Barry, and Sir Digby Wyatt as the principal professional speakers; and the architects of New York, with their unrivalled opportunities of a rising and growing metropolis, an area practically inexhaustible, a wealthy and liberal clientèle, and the brightest and cleanest climate possessed by any modern capital, would do well to study the report of it.

—Karl Blind has an interesting article in *Die Gegenwart* on a recent incident in the Belgian Chamber, when for the first time, on taking a vote, a German *ja* was heard instead of the usual French *oui* of assent. It was a very appropriate response under the circumstances. The bill before the House proposed to authorize the use of the Low German (*niederdeutsch*) language in judicial proceedings. That this should be necessary when Low German is the native tongue of a large majority of the Belgian people, is a paradox which gives Herr Blind an opportunity of narrating the history of the imposition of the French language against the wishes of the Flemish population, but with the countenance and aid of the Walloon (Celto-romanic) minority inhabiting the southeastern territory. The fact that French is the official language and the language of cultivated society, and has been so for more than half a century, does not prevent Low German from still being the common speech, not only in the rural districts but also among the lower classes in the cities, and even in the familiar domestic intercourse of the upper classes. Charles V. was the first ruler of the Netherlands to favor the substitution of French, and under him it came to be used in the dealings between the Flemish States and the Government, in spite of the resistance of Flanders, and especially of Brabant, next neighbor to the Walloon influence. But during the XVIth, XVIIth, and XVIIIth centuries, it was pretty strictly confined to this use, and even then the publication of laws and other ordinances was, for the Low-German-speaking communities, made in their language. By-and-by, under Maria Theresa especially, this practice gave way to publication in both languages, with the French for the original, and the nobility yielded a ready support to the innovation. The expulsion of the Austrians only confirmed the French yoke; French was everywhere officially installed, and Flemish driven even from the schools. Bonaparte's censorship scarcely permitted a Flemish book to see the light, and Flemish newspapers were at last forbidden to be published, unless accompanied with a French translation. Twenty years of this rule proved too much for the suppressed language even when the new United Netherlands seemed to promise for it a glorious resurrection. Religious and party differences came in to separate the two countries, and the revolution of September, 1830, left the Low-German majority in a worse plight (linguistically) than ever before. They first made themselves heard by petitions in 1840, but their prayers were neglected or only nominally granted. In 1858, a Society for the Elevation of the Flemish People came to their rescue, and has ever since been striving not for the supremacy but the equality of the Flemish tongue. Their efforts have been crowned with very partial success, but it can hardly be doubted that the victory at Sedan was an assurance of their final triumph.

WHIG THEOLOGY.*

LORD RUSSELL writes of Dr. Samuel Clarke that "his Christian faith is the doctrine of an enlightened man well read in the Holy Scriptures." The terms of this eulogy sound odd and old-fashioned to modern ears. They are not the words in which any one would naturally describe a religious divine or statesman of the nineteenth century. No one would describe, for example, Dr. Liddon as a person well read in the Holy Scriptures, or talk of Mr. Gladstone's religion as the "doctrine of an enlightened man." Yet the phrase runs naturally from Earl Russell's pen. It is the language of all the men among whom he moved in his youth. Neither Sydney Smith nor Jeffrey nor Sir Walter Scott would have seen anything to wonder at in expressions which sound strange to the present generation. They would have felt that Lord Russell was conferring the highest praise on a revered teacher, and was describing a man who, while (to use the language of that day) he avoided the follies of enthusiasm, was pre-eminently distinguished by rational piety. The sentence, in short, which we have quoted, and many others which might be collected from the 'Essays on the Christian Religion,' reminds us that Lord Russell has clung no less in his theology than in his politics to the traditions of his youth. We do not, however, bring any charge of narrow-mindedness against him. No one can read his references either to Matthew Arnold, whose view of St. Paul is "far more in accordance with the real doctrine of St. Paul than that which persons who have failed to comprehend his real intentions have attributed to him," or to Dr. Newman, whose "latest work requires to be deeply studied," without perceiving how candidly he has studied the latest writers, and how little either for good or bad he has imbibed their spirit. We dwell on the tenacity with which he has clung to former modes of thought, because it makes him a representative of men whose theological views and assumptions deserve, even as a mere matter of history, careful consideration, and because it gives his work its only valid claim to interest.

Looked at as a compendium of ecclesiastical history, the book is as poor a manual as any man of ability ever published. If we were bound to criticise it simply with regard to its literary merits, the respect which every friend of free government must feel for Lord Russell would make us refuse to play the part of critics. Happily, the essays, though valueless as a contribution to ecclesiastical history, have a worth of their own, from the light which they indirectly throw on the theological doctrines derived by Lord Russell from the statesmen and teachers by whom he was trained, and by the party of which he was long the leader, and is now nearly the last survivor. The religious views of these men certainly deserve consideration. The Whigs, whatever their defects, have been as patriotic and as successful a body of politicians as has ever existed. If we take down the early numbers of the *Edinburgh Review*, or read Sydney Smith's remarks, we shall see what were the objects which the Whig writers desired to obtain as the result of their political efforts. Then, if we reflect upon the history of England during the last fifty years, we shall be compelled to admit that the Whigs carried out nearly every reform which they intended to achieve; and, further, that in substance the course of English politics has until recently run very much in the line marked out for it by the Whig statesmen. The Whigs may have been right, or may have been mistaken in their views, but these views they

* 'Essays on the History of the Christian Religion. By John, Earl Russell.' London: Longmans, Green & Co. 1873.

have most successfully impressed upon the English nation, and the history of the last forty years is essentially the history—in politics, at any rate—of the triumph of Whig ideas. There is another side to the picture; but still, if we look at the matter in a broad point of view, we must admit that Lord Russell has a right, on looking back over a long and well-spent life, to feel that he and his associates have struggled both manfully and successfully for what he terms "the cause of civil and religious liberty."

In no field have the Whig ideas achieved in some respects a more complete triumph than in the province of religious politics. They never aimed at establishing religious equality, as that expression is understood by modern Nonconformists, and the time is still probably distant when religious equality will be established in England. Their aim was to establish complete toleration and unlimited religious liberty, and their end has been completely attained. There exists hardly an office in England from which any man can be excluded on account of his creed. We have seen a Roman Catholic Chancellor of Ireland, and within a few weeks a Jew made Master of the Rolls in England. Social sentiment may still put some limits (though what the limits are is hard to say) on the expression of opinion. But, as far as law goes, there is at this moment more unlimited freedom of discussion in England than there has ever existed in any country in the world, except our own. When Lord Russell exclaims, "Let Mr. Darwin and Professor Huxley explain their opinions as freely as the Archbishop of Canterbury or Mr. Spurgeon," he expresses a wish which the fates have long ago granted, for we cannot believe that these eminent men can be hindered from expressing any doctrine which they wish to make public. It is, therefore, as a mere matter of political history, well worth examining what have been the religious views of the Whigs and the effect of these views on their policy. Lord Russell's book, while it inevitably suggests these enquiries, to a great extent supplies the answers to them. His views are, no doubt, like those of every thoughtful and religious man, his own individual opinions, and probably would not represent precisely the religious doctrines of any one of his friends or teachers. But he has unconsciously, if not in his specific opinions, yet in his general treatment of religious questions, clung so closely to the traditions of his party, that we shall scarcely do his friends an essential injustice if we take Lord Russell as the exponent of their creed.

The first point to be noted is, that Lord Russell occupies a distinctly Christian position. No doubt, some of the Whig writers had a tendency to scepticism, and Sydney Smith in his letters expresses considerable alarm at the free tone of the earlier reviews. But to consider the Whigs as a body of infidels or sceptics is entirely to misunderstand their position. Any one who reads, for example, Sydney Smith's life will, if he reads it with any candor, see that the Canon of St. Paul's was, according to his own ideas, an orthodox clergyman of the Church of England. Nature certainly did not mean him for a priest, but nature certainly made him an honest man, and one cannot trace throughout the whole of his letters or conversation the least suspicion that he could not fairly and honestly hold the situation and perform the duties of an English parson. Take, again, Lord Russell himself. He was never under any temptation to avow any religious feeling he did not entertain. He has certainly now nothing to gain by affecting an unreal piety. Yet every page of his last work is written in the tone of serious, if not fervent, religious belief. Modern critics of the Whigs are constantly misled by confounding a want of religious sentiment with want of religious belief, and by the idea that men necessarily disbelieve dogmas to which as a matter of fact they attached but little importance. Another point which Lord Russell's work brings into marked prominence is the extent to which he, in common with all the orthodox persons of his generation, grounded his religious views directly upon the Bible. He places as a motto to his essays the following sentence from Dr. Jortin: "The Scriptures, say the Protestants, are the only rule of faith in matters pertaining to revealed religion, and they say well. There is no other Christianity than this, no other centre of union than this. Whatsoever is not clearly delivered there may be true, but cannot be important." He takes care to insist upon the error of believing in verbal inspiration; nevertheless, practically, if not in theory, he regards the Bible, not as a collection of many books written by many authors, at different times and under different circumstances, but as one consecutive work, containing a complete scheme of religion, which can be discovered from the book itself, and neither derives nor needs any additional support from church authority.

The religion to be derived from the Bible he thus sums up in a creed, which is at any rate clear and succinct: "The religion of Christ has three main foundations. 1. God is a spirit, the maker of heaven and earth. 2. Christ was sent from God, and revealed to men the message of God. 3. Christ died for mankind. The miracles of Christ were performed by him and ended with his life. The gift of miracles was continued to his apostles, as we are informed in the Acts of the Apostles." These are the essentials of Christianity. The subsequent history of the Church is the record of the mode in which these essential truths were overlaid and corrupted by the growth of dogma. The Council of Nice left "the beaten roads of the early Christians to wander through the pathless forests of controversy and ascend the heights of a new heaven." In the struggle between Athanasius and his opponents, "the spirit of Christianity was lost, and man was taught to hate his neighbor and to exalt himself." In perfect consistency with his general view of religion, Lord Russell, while sympathizing with the Reformation, denounces with the utmost vehemence the "rancor, the treachery, and the persecuting spirit of Calvin." "It appears to me," he writes of Calvinistic theology, "that, like the adherents of the so-called Athanasian Creed, the followers of Calvin, in their attempts to magnify the glory of Christ, neglect to extend their researches into the entire history of the life, the teaching, the declarations, the promises, the character of their divine Master." Now, to the expressions in which Lord Russell clothes his belief, few Christians of whatever school could, as far as the mere words go, take exception. But every intelligent reader can see at once that the creed in which Lord Russell was educated does not exactly correspond with any of the prevailing forms of belief or of unbelief. His position and that of the party to which he belonged may pretty fairly be thus summed up:

> Christianity is a divinely-revealed system of morals to be found in the pages of the Bible. It is a system revealed from heaven, and proved to be true, both by its intrinsic character and by the miracles of its founder. It is further a system perfectly in harmony with natural good sense. The dogmas which have grown up around this system are, comparatively speaking, of minor importance. Those of them which can be proved from the Bible, or, in other words, which are admitted by orthodox Protestant bodies, are true. Those doctrines which cannot be proved from the Bible, or, in other words, which are not admitted by orthodox Protestant sects, are untrue, and may be treated as superstition. In any case, metaphysical dogmas, true or untrue, are matters of slight moment, equally foreign to the instincts of sound piety and of plain common sense. The perverted ingenuity of logicians, the rash enthusiasm of the multitude, have constantly tended to give an undue prominence to speculative theology. Men of enlightenment and education, to whatever communion they nominally belong, are gradually learning to neglect rather than reject the study of dogmas, and to confine their attention to the practical side of religion.

We do not think that any one who studies Lord Russell's book will hold that this is an unfair summary of his religious views, and few persons at all versed in the literature of the last century will dispute that it represents roughly the tone of thought prevalent among educated persons, whether Whigs or Tories, at the time when Lord Russell imbibed the ideas which have influenced his whole political career. The theology of that period could not, in England at least, be called sceptical. It might be fairly described as the Christianity of common sense.

It is easy enough to see the weak points of this common-sense creed. Like most of the speculations of the last century, it is marred by erroneous views of history. No modern thinker, of whatever school, would admit that the dogmatic and the practical teaching of Christianity could be severed in that easy, off-hand manner which Lord Russell's favorite theologians naturally enough adopted. Another point on which this creed would indubitably be assailed by most English Churchmen, is that it involves the assumption that the whole history of the church is the history of a long deviation from the path of truth, to which, under the guidance of rational piety, we are at last returning. No Calvinist, again, would for a moment admit that Lord Russell gave anything like an adequate account of Calvinism, and Anglicans would maintain that he struggled in vain to make the theology of the Church of England square with Whig latitudinarianism. The main objection, however, to this view of religion is one which at once strikes any modern critic, whatever may happen to be his individual convictions. It makes the assumption that the influence both of theological dogmas and of religious enthusiasm is yielding to the progress of general enlightenment. This assumption was almost universally made by the politicians of the last and preceding generation. We find it in the works of Burke, in the speeches of Erskine, in the writings of the Edinburgh Reviewers, and in the books of a man so little given to scepticism as Sir Walter Scott. The present generation know from experience that this assumption was to a great extent unsound. At this moment, religious differences are convulsing the continent of Europe, and underlie half, at least, of the most important questions which agitate English politics. It would be a less arduous undertaking to change the English monarchy into a republic than seriously to modify the creed of the Church of England. Theological dogmas may be untrue, but no practical politician can treat them as unimportant.

The defects of Whig theology are easy enough to perceive. It is of more importance to appreciate its real merits. The predominant characteristics of Lord Russell's own religious speculations and of the religious views of his party are common sense, honesty, and fearlessness. It may be quite true that he and they underrated the influence of theology; but he and they after all

placed themselves on very firm ground when they asserted the importance of religious morality, and boldly denied that you can divorce religion from sound sense. It is this conviction, that true religion is conformable to reason, which gives Lord Russell's theology at once its honesty and its fearlessness. It is refreshing, at a time when a religious politician like Mr. Gladstone finds it impossible to answer straight off the very simple question, Are you a Roman Catholic? and when a host of Protestant writers are occupied in showing up sympathetically the good side of Roman Catholic errors, to find a statesman who can roundly denounce Popery on the simple ground that its doctrines are untrue, and can feel that the claims of the Pope are disposed of by simply stating in their nakedness the propositions of the Syllabus. At a time, again, when we are told by all kinds of writers that no political economist can be a Christian, one feels a respect for the teacher who dwells on the obvious but apparently forgotten truth that it is absurd to presume that "a man who has learned political economy, and has adopted the policy of modern days, disregards or disbelieves the Christian religion," and that "it is not because a man is so far a free-trader as to admit that corn and cotton and wool and silk may pass freely from one country to another that he loses sight of religious obligations." When, again, one sees a prime minister showing at once his terror and his ignorance by feeble invectives against German free-thinkers, it is impossible not to sympathize with a writer who feels "sure the truth will ultimately be the gainer from freedom of discussion," and not to perceive that modern religion has still something to learn from the rational theology of the last century.

MASSON'S LIFE OF MILTON.—VOL. III.*

THE faults of Mr. Masson's 'Life of Milton'—the elaborate and ungraceful efforts at ease of style, and the lack of due proportion between history and biography—are already so familiar to the reading public that it is necessary to say nothing more about them here than that the latter of them is far less apparent in this volume than in either of the two preceding. Whether from the nature of the facts, or from deference to criticism, it contains more of Milton than the others, in proportion to the entire bulk. Moreover, Milton's life and labors during the period here treated were far more interesting and valuable than during the previous one. He wrote little poetry, but several of his most famous prose works belong here—his Divorce tracts, the treatise on Education, and, above all, the 'Areopagitica.' Here also belongs the first collected edition of his works, as well prose as poetry. He still lived in comparative retirement, teaching for a livelihood, and preparing himself for that public career which will come within the scope of the next volume.

The history of the times, too, which after all occupies considerably more space than the biography proper, is on the whole more interesting than that of the previous volume; it covers in general the period from Marston Moor to the death of Charles. Military events are told rather cursorily, but the political history with great minuteness. These chapters embody the results of an immense amount of conscientious labor, and are marked by industry, sagacity, and impartiality. It is certain that Milton's literary career cannot be understood except in the light of these events; and if Mr. Masson has erred in an excess of fulness, better this than the opposite fault. He might very well have passed over the military history of the time with only an incidental mention, and we see no reason for a detailed account of the king's trial and execution; but the great battle between Presbyterianism and Independency, in Parliament, Westminster Assembly, army and literature, deserved all the study he has given to it and nearly all the space it occupies in the book. The history of Milton's own mind is, in truth, a type of that of the nation. We saw him in the last volume a Presbyterian, laboring in the establishment of the Presbyterian organization in England; here he appears as a radical Independent, and an efficient worker in the triumph of Independency. Most of his writings during these years have a more or less direct bearing upon this controversy.

The subject made most prominent in this volume is therefore the contest between two systems of church government, one of which was an organization, while the other embodied the extreme principle of individualism—a contest not inferior in significance to that between the Presbyterian organism and the hierarchical one which it had overthrown. And no less than in the painstaking analysis of the struggle in its successive phases, Mr. Masson deserves our thanks for bringing out the prominent share which the principle of toleration exercised in it. All the more so, as the public mind is beginning to be a little befogged as to the grounds on which this great principle rests. At a time when one writer clamors for "Catholicism in its strength"—that is, the Spanish Inquisition—as a panacea for all social diseases; when a vigorous upholder of the Church of England declares that there is no difference, in point of principle, between the Spanish Inquisition and the assessment of a penny tax for the support of a national church—that is, that logically a religious organization demands absolute unanimity in matters of faith; and when it is beginning to be commonly assumed that any sincere and earnest religious faith, Catholic or Protestant, can have no choice but to persecute, it is time to go back to the foundation, and see whether it is true that toleration means indifference. Doubtless there have been men who persecuted out of pure mercy, and who lighted the fagots with a heart full of love; perhaps we ought in charity to believe that it is so as a rule. Our charity does not extend so far, however. It is hard to get at real motives, and motives are at any rate seldom unmixed; but we fully believe that for one who persecutes out of pure love for his victim, there are ten with whom the leading motive is intellectual pride or offended conceit, or some lower motive still. It is hatred, not love. After all, Mr. Mill hit the nail on the head when he declared that the spirit of persecution was, at bottom, nothing more nor less than a personal claim of infallibility. In these pages of Mr. Masson's relating to the early history of toleration, it is refreshing to find men who were heartily in earnest in their own convictions, and yet broadly tolerant of those of others; still more satisfactory to find in how large a degree the controversy was waged on this very issue of toleration. No doubt, as he says, it was in most cases the personal experience of intolerance that taught the beauty of tolerance; there are not many, on any subject, who have the capacity to arrive at just abstract principles, except from very concrete examples. "Every persecuted cause claimed at least a toleration for itself from the established power; and so, by a kind of accumulation, the cause that had been last persecuted had more of a tendency to toleration in it, and became practically more tolerant than the others" (p. 100). None the less credit to them for this, if the tolerance was real; and the reader heartily accepts the writer's eulogy upon Roger Williams as the apostle, in the seventeenth century, of this great principle, and as one of whom Americans may well be proud.

Nevertheless, true as it is that toleration is historically the child of persecution, it is none the less true that "the principle of religious liberty is almost logically [he might have omitted the 'almost'] bound up with the theory of the independency of particular churches." Protestantism is not in theory favorable to free thought; it pretends to be the authoritative substitution of a true system of dogmas for a false one. The Protestant organizations, therefore, did not differ in principle from the Catholic organization in respect to the right of controlling private thought; if they were more tolerant, it was simply because their circumstances required it, and especially because their very existence, whether they acknowledged it or not, was a recognition of the right of freedom of thought. But Independency necessarily implied withdrawal from all religious organizations; that is, its very essence was the voluntary grouping of individuals into loose organizations of a purely voluntary character, as opposed to the great, compact, coercive organizations of Episcopacy and Presbyterianism. This voluntary grouping was inconsistent with anything but complete freedom of thought. The character of the Independency which thus fought the battle of toleration in the seventeenth century is graphically described in one of Mr. Masson's best paragraphs. It is in relation to Cromwell's army:

"The common conception of an army of fanatics is that of an army mad for one set of tenets. Now the Parliamentary army was really, as the Presbyterians called it, an Army of Sectaries. It was a miscellany of all the forms of Puritan belief known in England, with forms of belief included that were not Puritan. The much largest proportion, after Presbyterians, of whom there were many, and ordinary Independents, of whom there were more, were Sectaries of the fervid and devout sorts, such as Baptists, Old Brownists, and Antinomians, with mystical Millenaries and Seekers, all passionately Scriptural, saturated with the language and history of the Old Testament, and zealously Anti-Romanist and Anti-Prelatic; and these, on the whole, were the men after Cromwell's heart. . . . But there were also in the army Sectaries of a cooler or easier order—Arminians, Anti-Sabbatarians, Anti-Scripturists, Familists, and Sceptics. Hardly a form of odd opinion mentioned in our conspectus of English Sects in a former chapter but had representatives in the army; nay, new speculative oddities had broken out in some regiments; and it may be doubted whether, even in the English mind of our own time, there is any form of speculation so peculiar as not to have had its prototype or lineal progenitor in that mass of steel-clad theorists contemporary with the Westminster Assembly. Nor did each man keep his theory to himself. There were constant prayer-meetings in companies and regiments, and meetings for theological debate; troopers or foot-soldiers off duty would expound or harangue to their fellows in camp, or even from the pulpits of parish churches when such were convenient; whenever the army halted, there was a hum of holding-forth. There were army chaplains, it is true, and some of them, such as Peters, Dell, and Saltmarsh, great favorites; but, on the whole, the regular cloth was in disrepute; those who belonged to it were spoken of as the *Levites*, or priests by profession. The need of such a profession was voted obsolete, and every man was held to be as good for the preaching office as any other, if he had the preaching gift. .

* 'The Life of John Milton: Narrated in Connection with the Political, Ecclesiastical, and Literary History of his Time. By David Masson, M.A., LL.D., Professor of Rhetoric and English Literature in the University of Edinburgh.' Vol. III. 1643-1649. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1873. 8vo, pp. 729.

. . . That extreme kind of Independency had become common which repudiated a National Church of any kind whatsoever, nay, denied that there was any church on earth at all, any system of spiritual ordinances visibly from God, anything but a great invisible brotherhood of saints walking in this life's darkness, passionately using meanwhile this symbol and that to feature forth the unimaginable, glad above all in the great glow of the present Bible, but expecting also each soul for itself rays and shafts from the Light beyond. . . . . That absolute doctrine of toleration which Roger Williams had propounded, and which was logically inseparable in his mind from Independency at its purest, had found its largest discipleship in the Parliamentary army. Toleration to some extent was the universal army tenet; even the Presbyterians of the army, with some exceptions, had learnt to be Tolerationists in some degree. But a very full principle of toleration had possessed most, and the most absolute possible principle was avowed by many" (p. 522).

When this was the prevailing temper of the time, the leading principle of that body of men which conquered the kingdom for itself, it is easy to see how closely Milton's thoughts, during these years, followed with the community. His doctrine of divorce was the most daring of the heresies of the day; his 'Areopagitica' was the noblest expression of the theory of toleration in one of its chief aspects, and his plan of education was novel and radical. The few poems of this period, too, bore for the most part in the same direction.

This volume, like the earlier ones, has a feature of great value, in the sketches of literary men with whom Milton came in some way in contact—names of moment in their own day, but now almost forgotten. Even where these sketches exaggerate the general want of proportion by reason of their length and the slight direct bearing upon the life of the poet, we should be sorry to spare them. The long sketch of John Amos Comenius, for example, whom Milton does not seem even to have seen, is warranted by the fact that Milton's tract on Education appears to have been in part suggested by the speculations of Comenius on the same subject. Other interesting sketches are those of Samuel Hartlib, to whom this tract is dedicated, and of Humphrey Moseley the bookseller, who published the first collected edition of Milton's works; not to mention the abstract, p. 446, of literary publications between 1640 and 1646. The long delay in the publication of this volume, which was promised two years ago, is a proof of the careful labor of the author. No intimation is given when another instalment of the work may be expected.

Columbus, Ohio: Its History, Resources, and Progress. By Jacob H. Studer. (Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. 1873.)—Columbus is only about sixty years old, having been founded in 1812, and at the time it was laid out its site was covered with a dense forest, so that for several years afterwards "its streets were so obstructed by stumps, brush, and logs that teams were obliged to move in zigzag directions in order to get around these obstacles." The history of such a town naturally consists of little else than an unexciting narrative of material progress and growth in population. The only antiquities of which Columbus can boast are the Indian mound which has given a name to one of its streets, and to which the chronicler alludes as "noted," without troubling himself to go into particulars. Another opportunity for an entertaining episode is equally neglected. The city was located on what were called the "refugee lands," from the fact that they had been "appropriated by Congress for the benefit of persons from Canada and Nova Scotia, who, in our Revolutionary War, espoused the cause of the revolted colonies"; and, more precisely, located, in part at least, on a certain half-section of which the title subsequently came into dispute, but which Congress had granted originally to "one Allen, a refugee from the British North American Provinces in the time of the Revolution." Very inadequate mention is here made of a remarkable character, Col. John Allan, who was a refugee only in the sense that he left Nova Scotia and repaired to Maine with a view either to conquer and annex the province (which then included New Brunswick) to the colonies, or, failing in that, to hold the extreme eastern boundary of the latter against British invasion. Many circumstances favored the bolder enterprise, and it was honestly attempted, but success was reserved for its alternative—no common undertaking either, nor without its risks and difficulties. Until the appearance of Kidder's 'Eastern Maine and Nova Scotia in the Revolution' (Albany, 1867), this brave frontier-work was scarcely known, much less appreciated. As the Ohio land was the nation's acknowledgment of its indebtedness to Col. Allan, the main facts in his career were worthy of a note in Mr. Studer's 'History,' more especially as this is the only historical name with which Columbus has anything more than an accidental association.

The laying-out of the State capital was a real-estate speculation which proved legitimately profitable to the four proprietors who united in it, but the fortunes acquired were soon lost in the case of all but one. A part of their engagement was the construction of a State-house. Over the west door was inserted in the wall a stone slab bearing an inscription from Barlow, in which these two lines occur:

> "Equality your first firm-grounded stand,
> Then free elections, then your federal band."

They had been already engraved when brought to the attention of Mr. Ludlow, the State superintendent in the construction of public buildings. "He was a staunch Democrat of the old school, with a rooted dislike to the use of the word 'federal,' except as the name of the opposing political party." "Federal band" of course could only refer to the Union, but Mr. Ludlow would leave nothing to interpretation. He had the word "federal" plastered over, and the word "union" cut in its place. Time, with a due regard to poetic justice, crumbled away the cement, and allowed Barlow's verse to shine out in all its integrity. Mr. Ludlow put his own ideas in the form of verse on another stone, placed over the east door. They will hardly be immortal as poetry, but as political doctrine they are better than anything the Democratic party has professed or practised since they were written:

> "General good, the object of legislation,
> Perfected by a knowledge of man's wants
> And nature's abounding means applied,
> Establishing principles opposed to monopoly."

In the anti-slavery struggle there was an incident which will always reflect credit on Columbus and on the State. A colored man, Jerry Finney, long a resident of the city and known to everybody, was kidnapped in March, 1846, and carried back to his professed owner in Kentucky, on the peremptory order of a wretched justice of the peace in a neighboring town. Those engaged in the seizure were promptly indicted in the county court, and one of them was convicted; but he afterwards escaped, on account of an informality in the trial. The State Legislature, moreover, authorized an eminent lawyer to institute legal proceedings in Kentucky calculated to result in the liberation of Jerry. The result was what might have been anticipated, except that the Ohio advocate did not meet with the fate of Mr. Hoar in South Carolina. Finally, money was raised to ransom the victim, who died of consumption shortly after he was restored to his family.

Columbus owed its existence to the need of a central position for the capital, but it has long since ceased to depend for its importance on the fact of its being the seat of government. Already it asserts itself the third city in Ohio, outranking Toledo; and its proximity to the great mineral deposits of the State, the rapid development of its manufactures, and its multiplying railroad connections, all justify its expectations of a still more striking increase than in the past. Its population, which in 1815 was 700, and in 1860 18,554, had become in 1870 31,274. Though considered a healthy city and well policed, it has had several severe visitations of the cholera, one of them making frightful havoc with the inmates of the penitentiary. The public schools of Columbus appear to be handsomely maintained, but its public library is as yet feeble enough.

Mr. Studer's 'History' is composed with method and intelligence, and is accompanied by a good map; but it is much in need of an index, especially of names.

Earnest Words on True Success in Life, addressed to Young Men and Women. By Ray Palmer. (New York and Chicago: A. S. Barnes & Co. 1873.)—This small volume contains essays, or rather letters, for they were all first addressed to young men and women *viva voce*, on such subjects as characteristics of youth, causes of failure in life, self-culture, false views of life, the law of habit, the danger of indulgence in little sins, the choice of a life-work, moral courage, true greatness according to Christ, and Christian character as an aid to success. While we do not entirely sympathize with Dr. Palmer in all his views on what may be called the discipline of life, we are glad to be able to say a good word for his book, as being free from the more offensive faults with which books of the morally suasive order are generally stuffed. We do not find, for instance, in looking through the pages, the dreadful warning addressed in one of Dr. Eddy's works to young men, in which they were informed, in the most startling kind of rhetoric, that the line which divided the once-tasted wine-cup from the gallows was a narrow hair's-breadth, almost invisible to the naked eye—a warning which would certainly have a tendency to incline the youth who had been so unfortunate as to have once tasted the cup to believe that it was in all probability up with him in any event, and that as he was already marked as prey for the common hangman, he might as well in the interval enjoy life in the most iniquitous manner he could. There is little or none of this exaggeration in Mr. Palmer's lectures; but we find on page 68 an instance of a minor fault almost as frequent, that of weak illustration. In speaking of the importance of prescribing for one's conduct fixed rules, he selects as a proof of it the supposed case of a person travelling abroad who finds himself on a

fine Sabbath morning in Paris—a bad city, as somebody once said, for deacons. A servant takes an early opportunity to inform him that there will be a full exhibition of the "splendid water-works at Versailles," and, as they are exhibited on Sundays and the greater holidays only, he will have no other opportunity to see them. The servant adds, apparently with a deep malice, that "the Americans generally in the hotel are going." Mr. Palmer then asks triumphantly, whether if you have not fixed principles on the subject you will not probably go. Probably you will; and perhaps the most devout Sabbatarian would hardly think it worth while to have principles firmly established beforehand on the subject of going to see the Versailles water-works on such an occasion as this. If he does, we hardly know how he will be able to get through life at all, either in Paris or out of it.

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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

SEPTEMBER 1, 1873.

THE demand for money has been rather more active, and there is a noticeable hardening of rates. The demand has been supplied during the week at 4 and 5 per cent., with the bulk of business at the last-named figure. At times money loaned higher than at the rates above quoted—Tuesday, 7 per cent. gold being paid in some instances; but 5 per cent. was about the ruling rate on stock collaterals.

Foreign advices are favorable. The bank rate in London remains standing at 3 per cent. The Bank of England lost £100,000 in bullion last week, while the Bank of France gained 1,000,000 francs.

The bank statement for the week ending August 30 is again unfavorable, showing a considerable loss in the total reserve, made up of both specie and legal tenders. By the figures published below, it will be seen that the total reserve has fallen off $2,852,100, and the total liabilities have decreased $7,233,500. The surplus reserve now stands at $5,906,450, against $6,950,175 last week—a falling off of $1,043,725. The following are the statements of the past two weeks:

	August 23.	August 30.	Differences.
Loans	$289 931,800	$288,883,000	Dec. $1,048 800
Specie	25.144 400	23,095,200	Dec. 2,049,000
Circulation	27,214 400	27 281,900	Inc. 67,500
Deposits	227,691,300	220,390,300	Dec. 7.301.000
Legal Tenders	45,532,400	44,729,300	Dec. 803 100

The following shows the relation between the total reserve and the total liabilities:

	August 23.	August 30.	Differences.
Specie	$25,144 200	$23,095,200	Dec. $2,049,000
Legal tenders	45,532,400	44,729,300	Dec. 803,100
Total reserve	$70,676,600	$67,824,500	Dec $2,852,100
Circulation	27,214,400	27.281,900	Inc. 67.500
Deposits	227,691,300	220,390,300	Dec. 7,301,000
Total liabilities	$254,905,700	$247,672,200	Dec. $7,233,500
25 per cent. reserve	63,726,425	61,918,050	
Excess over legal reserve	6,950,175	5,906,450	Dec. 1,043,725

The following table separates the National from the State banks:

	National.	State.	Total.
Loans	$248,667,200	$40,215,800	$288.883,000
Specie	20,823,400	2,271.800	23 095,200
Legal tenders	39,988.000	4,741,300	44,729,300
Deposits	190.467,500	29,922 800	220.390,300
Circulation	27,249,700	32,200	27 281,900
Percentage of reserve to total liabilities	31 15-100 p.c.	23 41-100 p.c.	27 38-100 p.c.

The stock market at times showed considerable activity in a few speculative stocks, such as Western Union Telegraph and Pacific Mail, but beyond these, the sales for the week were light, and very little interest has been shown in the future course of prices outside of the few professional operators and speculative brokers who have remained in town. The Pacific Mail S. S. Co. have at last succeeded in borrowing some money, which will undoubtedly be of great assistance to the Company. The amount borrowed was $500,000, the lender being the Panama R. R. Co., which takes a bill of sale of six of the steamers, with the understanding that the Steamship Company has the right to take the steamers back upon payment of the loan, interest, and insurance.

Western Union Telegraph improved from the low quotations made during the early part of the week, and sold at 92¼ on Friday. At the close on Saturday, it again fell off, as did the quotations of almost everything else on the list. The negotiation of the loan for the Pacific Mail did not seem to help the market for the stock at all, as the price declined to 43⅜ on Saturday, after having been 45½ on Wednesday. The balance of the list has been very dull, and reference to the figures given in the following statement will show that no important changes have taken place.

The following shows the highest and lowest sales of the leading stocks at the Stock Exchange for the week ending August 30, 1873:

	Monday.	Tuesday.	Wed'day.	Thursday	Friday.	Saturday.	Sales.
N. Y. C. & H. R.	104¼ 104⅝	104¼ 104¼	104¼ 104⅝	104⅝ 104⅞	104⅝ 105	104⅛ 104⅝	15,800
Lake Shore	92½ 93	92⅝ 92⅞	92⅜ 92⅜	92⅜ 93	92⅞ 93½	92½ 93	37,100
Erie	59⅛ 59¾	 59	58¾ 59⅝	59½ 60¼	60½ 62	59⅝ 60⅝	55,600
Do. pfd	....	 73	 73	..... 72½	 72	....	.....
Union Pacific	25⅞ 27	25⅝ 26⅜	25⅞ 26¼	26¼ 26⅝	26⅝ 26¾	26½ 26⅝	27,700
Chi. & N. W.	..... 64½	64⅛ 64¼	 64	64½ 65	64½ 65	....	2,200
Do. pfd	....	....	 81	81½ 82⅛	....	....	.....
N. J. Central	 104	102 103	 102	102 103	102 103	....	.....
Rock Island	103⅝ 109	103⅝ 104⅝	108½ 109	109 109½	109 109½	108¾ 109	5,700
Mil. & St. Paul	51 51½	50⅜ 50⅞	50⅝ 50⅝	50½ 51¼	..... 51¼	50⅜ 51	3,500
Do. pfd	..... 70½	70 70½	70 70⅜	70 70½	..... 70¾	....	700
Wabash	69½ 69½	67¼ 69¼	67¼ 68	67¾ 68¾	67¾ 69	68⅝ 68¾	16,900
D. L. & Western	100⅜	100¾ 100⅜	100½ 100⅝	100⅜ 100⅜	..... 100⅜	....	2,100
B. H. & Erie	2½ 2¾	..... 2½	2½ 2⅝	2½ 2⅝	2⅝ 2¾	....	700
O. & M.	39¼ 39½	38⅛ 38½	38⅝ 39⅛	39⅛ 39⅜	39¼ 39⅜	39 39½	19,600
C. C. & I. C.	30⅞ 31½	30¾ 30⅞	30 30½	30½ 31	31 31¼	..... 30⅜	9,000
W. U. Tel.	89½ 91½	88⅝ 90⅜	89½ 90¼	90⅜ 91½	91¾ 92¼	91¼ 91⅝	133,500
Pacific Mail	43 44⅜	43⅜ 44⅛	44⅜ 45½	44⅞ 45½	43⅞ 44⅜	43⅜ 44¼	147,700

Business at the exchange in State bonds has been limited, only a few sales of Virginias and Tennessees being recorded. Railroad bonds of the better class have remained firm and in good demand.

Government securities have fluctuated in sympathy with the change in the gold premium, but the general tone of the market has been firm. European orders to buy continue to flow in, but the same difficulty in executing them is experienced which we have had occasion to notice for a long time past.

The gold market has taken up the great part of the attention of the Street. The fight between the bulls and bears is very warm, and the former, so far as the quotations indicate, have got the worst of it—the price on Monday, 116⅛, not being maintained. The closing price on Saturday was 115⅜; the lowest point reached was 115¼, Wednesday, and the highest 116⅛, Monday. Nearly $9,000,000 gold was bid for at the Treasury sale Thursday, and the $1,500,000 was awarded at 115.40 to one party. The Treasury programme for September includes a sale of $6,000,000 gold; $1,500,000 on each Thursday, and a purchase of $500,000 bonds on Wednesday, 17th inst.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 11, 1873.

The Week.

THE election in Maine took place on Monday, with a light vote and with the usual result. It was without significance unless for the Democratic party, but the lesson of repeated and overwhelming defeat has long since been lost on them in Maine as in Massachusetts and other Republican strongholds. We ought to except Iowa, where the party has made a sort of formal abdication this year. By-and-by, we suppose, Democrats will learn that their old name and their old organization are about as useful to them as a convict's striped clothing would be in an application for a bank clerkship. The Butler canvass in Massachusetts is at an end as we write, and its fate is in the hands of the Convention at Worcester, to which, with his usual effrontery, General Butler has had himself elected as a delegate. The last days of the struggle have been signalized by Mr. Dawes's taking the stump in opposition to Butler, and by some very plain talk addressed to the Administration by the Boston *Daily Advertiser*. Mr. Dawes, with characteristic want of backbone, declared himself prepared to support the nominee of the Convention, whoever he might be, on the ground that the "party" was more than any man—one of those glittering generalities which imply a want of principle in the person who utters them, and a want of intelligence in the persons addressed. The bold and decisive tone of the *Advertiser* was in striking contrast with that which it has usually maintained towards the Administration and the more unscrupulous leaders of the Republican party, and was certainly very refreshing to those to whom Boston journalism has seemed only tame and timid, and without a mind of its own in political discussion. California politics are a good deal mixed, and for the present at least party lines are obliterated. The late election was for members of the Legislature, and as the Central Pacific Railroad is believed to have had altogether too great an influence on that body, and to have secured by means of it a devoted servant in the Senate of the United States, there was a strenuous effort made to choose anti-railroad representatives. This the party opposed to monopoly, which seems to have been largely composed of Republicans, succeeded in doing; and we believe the returns leave it not doubtful that Senator Casserly's place will be filled by some one not suspected or not capable of favoring the railroad interest. Governor Booth is named as a probable candidate.

Mr. S. M. Smith, Secretary of the Farmers' State Association of Illinois, has made a speech at Carollton, which is one of the saddest products of a great political revolution that we have seen for a long time. Early in August, Mr. Smith made a speech at Winchester, which he says was misinterpreted, and he wishes to have this Carollton address taken as a studied and deliberate expression of his and his fellow-farmers' views. In the first place, he says that threats of "blood and anarchy" did not make part of his Carollton speech; that he did not say that he "would take his boys and go to the State capital and help ride the villains out on a rail"; if he had mentioned the subject, he would merely have said that they deserved such treatment, and what he did say was that "he was very much inclined" to adopt some such punishment for the members as rail and tar and feathers; what he said to his boys was, that "when he was a boy we used to shoot crows and hang them upon a pole in the corn-field as a terror to evil-doers," and that "perhaps the time might come when, if every other remedy failed, we might hang some men about the country in that same way as a terror to evil-doers"; but he believed the true remedy was the ballot-box. This is what he, Smith, considers a peaceful method of expression of his preference for the ballot-box, and his enemies have tortured it into threats of blood and anarchy. The rest of the speech is very wild, the speaker going to the extraordinary length of asserting that the farmers of the United States have been obliged to pay (in interest on mortgages) ten per cent. on an aggregate sum of $1,500,000,000, while only getting three and a half per cent. from their farms. On what they have supported themselves and their families, he does not explain.

The most curious part of his address, however, is that in which he attacks the "ploughmen"—not the ploughmen who follow, but those who make, the plough. These men, it seems, have an annual convention, in which they fix the price of ploughs, not according to the state of the market, but just as the railroad men fix the rates of transportation, and, moreover, just as the pork-packers fix the price of pork. Col. Coleman, Mr. Smith says, "called these pork men scoundrels," and he believes it to be "a good word." It is not only the railroads, the "ploughmen," and the pork-packers, however, who are imposing on the farmers, but the circuit judges are also in the ring. "Did you ever stop to think," Mr. Smith asks, "that it takes the product of a whole township to feed a judge? One circuit judge eats up all we earn in a township in a year. Is he not a monstrous eater? Is it not time we tried to look into this matter, and see if we could not get some man who would eat less? It costs too much to board that kind of cattle." The only thing for the farmers to do is to form a combination, and then it will be combination against combination; and then the farmers must charge half a dollar a bushel without regard to the market, just as the ploughmen and pork-packers charge, and if the poorer farmers feel that they are forced to sell, they must be enabled to "hold on" by a supply of money from the richer farmers; and if the worst comes to the worst, "we can be self-supporting on a farm," as farmers were when Mr. Smith was a boy, when they made their own linen and muslin, and everything they used, and when there were no railroads or pork men, or ploughmen either. Mr. Smith also demands that the farmers be allowed to fix the price of the products of their own labor. Unhappily, this yearning of the farmers is as old as the race. This is what all men in all trades would like to do, but no trade has ever yet succeeded in doing it for any great length of time.

Those who are not themselves within the profession have little knowledge of the difficulties under which journalists labor who make a sincere endeavor to keep the stockholders of large corporations informed of the real value of their property. The Erie Railroad having recently declared a dividend on its preferred and common stock, the *Times* at once published figures showing that the dividend was fraudulent, owing to the fact that the company had no money with which to declare it. In order to give this statement greater authority, the *Times* added that the figures were taken from the company's own books, and that it was of no consequence how they were obtained—the imagination of the reader being by these hints carried back to those other accounts which the *Times* obtained in an equally mysterious manner, and which, if we remember right, enabled it to trample in the dust the power of a corrupt ring composed of Tweed, Sweeny, Hall, and Connolly, who formerly ruled this city. The *Times* then went on to point out that this dividend (declared on a deficit of $1,691,506) showed Erie to be "rotten to the core," and in conclusion offered to pay over $10,000 to any charity in this city if they could not, from the books of the company, prove to the satisfaction of a committee of experts that the dividend even on the preferred stock alone was fraudulent.

This liberal offer on the part of the *Times* seemed to bring the matter to a direct issue, and we fully expected to see the next morning in the *World* that a meeting of the Erie directors had been held over-night for the purpose of nominating Messrs. Vanderbilt, Tracy, and Sloane (these names having been suggested by the *Times*) to serve on the committee. It therefore surprised and interested us

to learn from the columns of the *World* the next day that the figures of the *Times* had been published before in the *Tribune*, and that this attack on Erie was no mere isolated assault, but was part of a concerted movement headed by Jay Gould for the purpose of raising the price of gold, and making a corner in the market. From the statements of the *World*, it seems that while the financial editor of the *Times* is "a gentleman whose unflinching hostility to Jay Gould is well known," the rest of the paper is controlled by "a living jumble of slow perceptions, narrow intelligence, and petty malignity," whose deficiencies have made him fall an easy prey to Jay Gould's malignant schemes, one of which is to throw discredit on all public-spirited journalists who are engaged in preventing a further depreciation of the currency. Putting all these things together, we infer that Gould is really a dangerous man. The *Times* says he owns the *Tribune*, and, according to the *World*, he controls pretty much all the *Times*; and, wielding as he does so large a part of the power of the press, it is certainly singular that he should ever have any difficulty in carrying out his schemes. But the *World* and the *Evening Mail* have beaten him, and between them have forced gold down to 112. Gould is raging impotently in his lair, but there is little reason for him to expect quarter, for the sympathies of the public are wholly with these two journals.

"H. B. B.," in an editorial in the *Woman's Journal* criticising our remarks recently made on the "Condition of Parties," denies that the woman-suffrage movement is dying out, and requests us to give to our readers several facts. The first of these is that "H. B. B." "does not know a single suffragist who has lost faith in the feasibility or efficacy of the reform." The second is that within a year the question has been "under discussion" in the legislatures of Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Missouri, Michigan, Iowa, Kansas, California and Oregon, Kentucky and South Carolina; possibly in other States also; that it has been the subject of two bills offered in Congress, and Senator Frelinghuysen's attempt to repeal it in Utah has been defeated; that the Republican party everywhere is pledged to its "respectful consideration," and, in Massachusetts, has declared itself in its favor; that in Iowa and Michigan it obtained a majority of votes in one branch of the legislature, and in Michigan it failed in the other branch only for lack of a quorum. Besides this, "H. B. B." wishes to have it stated that Mrs. Woodhull has never held office in either the American or the National Woman Suffrage Societies. In reply to this, we have to say, first, that we ourselves know of a great many once ardent suffragists who have in these latter days abandoned the movement completely, some having been caught in the meshes of matrimony, while others have fallen by the way in sheer weariness of the flesh; secondly, that a subject being "under discussion" in a State legislature proves little, inasmuch as there is no subject, from the existence of God down to the inspection of tooth-brushes, which cannot be brought under discussion in a State legislature if some member chooses to bring it up. In the third place, the "respectful consideration" of the Republican party is and will be at the disposal of any one who thinks it worth while to ask it as long as the Republican party continues to exist. The Woman Suffrage party certainly have reason to congratulate themselves on the repudiation of Woodhull, but this alone, in the minds of most men, will hardly entitle them to the suffrage.

Judge Colvin, of the St. Louis Court of Criminal Correction, has rendered a decision declaring the "social evil" law of that city invalid, on several grounds: 1st, that the law virtually permits in St. Louis acts which the general laws of the State make criminal; 2d, that the ordinance is unconstitutional, being *contra bonos mores* and the spirit of Christianity; 3d, that it is unconstitutional as being a special law, whereas the end in view could have been effected by a general law. The case, it is said, will be taken up to the Supreme Court. Apart from all questions of morality and decency, it seems obvious that any efficient regulation of the social evil is very unlikely to prove possible in any American State, for the same reason that the liquor-law system has never proved effective—that the inspection of houses is certain to fall into the hands of careless or corrupt men. The object of the inspection in both cases is to prevent the spread of vice; and the alternative seems to be whether, in the long run, we shall do better to put our trust in such bodies as the State Constabulary of Massachusetts, headed by such men as Major Jones, or in the laws of nature. In France, too, the only country where the social evil has for years been subject to efficient police regulation, it may fairly be doubted whether the health of the population has been improved. It still remains to be proved that medical examination affords any reasonable guaranty of impunity.

The sessions of the Canadian Royal Investigation Commission have begun, but as the witnesses examined are all Government witnesses, there is little hope of anybody but the Administration being satisfied by the result. The newspapers are conducting an investigation of their own, which is much more fruitful. Though they have not the power to examine under oath, they have means which are even more effectual of arriving at the truth. The Montreal *Herald* of the 4th instant published a letter from Sir John A. Macdonald, dated the 1st, to one J. H. Pope, who is implicated in the scandal, in which the former says that he wishes Pope "to see about the election of our candidate for West Montreal," and, "before we take any steps about John Young's appointment," suggests one William Workman as a candidate, and tells Pope to hint to the latter that if he carries West Montreal "we will consider that he has a claim to an early seat in the Senate," and adds that "this is the great object of his [Workman's] ambition." Mr. Pope having written to the Montreal *Witness* to say that he has never received the letter, the *Herald* replies that it has possession of the original, and is ready to exhibit it. On the whole, it seems as if the annexation of Canada, so anxiously desired by certain politicians not long ago, would not have been such an universal blessing as it was painted. Canadian politics and Canadian journalism seem to be wonderfully like American politics and American journalism; if Canada were now an American State, instead of having the satisfaction of gloating over its corrupt condition as we now can, we should be receiving assurances from all sides that its scandalous state was the result of republican institutions introduced by annexation.

The inherent difficulties connected with the education of princes were illustrated in an interesting manner in a speech made by the Prince Imperial at Chiselhurst on the 15th of August—the late Emperor's fête-day. The greatest pains, it will be remembered, have been taken with the education of the Prince, who was surrounded with instructors in every branch of art and science, and taught at the same time to look upon life from the point of view of a prospective emperor. Notwithstanding, or perhaps in consequence of, all this labor, the young man's mind seems to be thoroughly under the influence of modern ideas; for in making his speech on the occasion of this fête, he promised to be faithful to the principle summed up by the founder of the Napoleonic dynasty in these words: "Everything for the people and by the people." The enemies of the dynasty say that the First Emperor never "summed up" anything in these words; that his principle was "everything for the people, but nothing by the people." The Prince Imperial's phrase is evidently derived from a surreptitious reading of Mr. Lincoln's address at Gettysburg. The whole matter seems at this distance unimportant, but in the excited condition of French politics nothing is unimportant, and a phrase from any of the leaders of any one of the four parties in the field is pounced upon by the press as a subject for discussion. More really important than the speech of the Prince Imperial is the article in the *Débats* of John Lemoinne, which is supposed to foreshadow the adhesion of a part of the Left Centre to the Royalists. The Imperialists, who joined the movement for the suppression of Thiers in the hope of

being able to make use of the Right for their own purposes, seem thus far to have been completely outwitted.

M. John Lemoinne enjoys an exceptional position as a journalist, and his article in the *Débats* taunting the Radicals with their mistake in not helping the Conservative Republicans to defend the Republic against the Monarchists, has produced impression enough to draw forth a reply from Gambetta, in which he maintains that the course of the Radicals in the Paris election was rendered expedient, even necessary, by events; that they defeated Rémusat as a rebuke to the Assembly for assuming constituent power, and elected Barodet as a rebuke to the Government for seeking to deprive Lyons of municipal rights. In the meantime, however, most close observers are of opinion that the question of monarchy or republic is practically settled already, and that the monarchy will come before long in one shape or another. Most probably, it will be a rickety affair, not destined to last beyond the customary twenty years; but then this is nothing against any form of government in France. There is a curious change of opinion going on about the Duc d'Aumale. His abstinence from all active participation in affairs during the first two years after his return was treated as a proof of feebleness, or want of energy and enterprise; but those who thought this now begin to accuse him of having lain low and kept dark, waiting for the republican fever to die out, and of now playing a deep game for the restoration of the monarchy. There is still much uncertainty about the "Fusion"; but the probable opinion is that the Count de Chambord's curious devotion to the white flag stops the way.

No little perturbation is manifest in Italy over the reported fusion of Orleanists and Legitimists, and the possible accession of the Comte de Chambord to the throne of France. It is not simply what Henri V. might do to interfere with the affairs of the Peninsula that causes alarm, but the certain effect on the Clerical party in Italy itself of his mere elevation to power, unaccompanied by menaces, or even attended with protestations of innocence of any hostile design. Between their distrust of any such declarations from a bigoted papist like Chambord, and their knowledge of the lengths to which their own Clericals will go with even the shadow of support from abroad, the Italians promise themselves anything but a quiet time in case the French Republic goes down. Estrangement from France, too, leaves Italy no resource but to ally herself once more, and more closely than ever, with Germany; and this in itself is a grief to many minds, such as cherish the obligation to the Second Empire for its part in the unification of the kingdom, and such as desire to see the Latin races hold together. It is noticeable that the Pope is making no sign of great expectations from France, and that he even remains the most moderate of all the priesthood at the Vatican.

The Salmeron Ministry in Spain has fallen after a protracted existence of several weeks, and another has taken its place, with Castelar as President without a portfolio. But the Cortes has virtually resigned its power by making Castelar dictator; and he, it is reported, intends making Espartero or Serrano generalissimo, so that the Republic has at last "swung round the circle," and got back to "the place of beginning"—that is, has attained to the normal condition of Latin republics, in which parliamentary forms are upheld and order maintained by martial law. A better illustration of the embarrassment of the Cortes could hardly be offered than the choice of Castelar as dictator, as he is a man whose reputation is wholly rhetorical, and who has had no administrative experience, and has never given any proof whatever of administrative ability. He announces his intention of calling out an enormous military force; but as he has neither officers nor money nor credit, the troops will probably never appear anywhere but on paper. If they do, and Espartero or Serrano uses them with effect, some great change must have come over the nature of Spanish generals if Castelar does not disappear from the scene in a flood of indignant eloquence. The Carlists are being steadily reinforced by the property-holders and lovers of a quiet life, as the one force in Spain which is held together by an idea or conviction, and, indeed, are only kept back by want of arms. The story that there is an alliance between them and the Intransigentes is on its face improbable. The private accounts of the condition of the country are distressing, and paint a scene of all but complete social dissolution.

The German Government has begun, after a short respite, to enforce the new church laws, and is now fairly at loggerheads with the Catholic bishops. The most obnoxious of these laws was that which required Government approval for the curriculum of all Catholic divinity schools. The bishops having declined to comply, the Government has begun promptly to use the arm of flesh against them. The Bishop of Ermeland has had the Government contribution to the salaries of his chapter cut off. The Bishop of Paderborn no longer receives the Government subsidy in aid of his seminary, and notice has been given to his pupils that they will not be allowed to take charge of any parish. The Bishop of Fulda has had his school closed by the police (which a German correspondent in this country assured us some weeks ago could not be done), and the Bishop of Posen's young men have been informed that the exemption they have hitherto enjoyed from the conscription is at an end, and that they will be required to serve in the ranks. Different penalties are dealt out in different districts, but they are stern and relentless in all. The Archbishop of Cologne is undergoing prosecution for excommunicating some priests without the authority of the civil functionaries, and in one place, where the tolling of the parish bell for a Protestant funeral was forbidden by the bishop, the police had it tolled in spite of him, and in the best manner. Thus far, Bismarck has undoubtedly the best of the fight, and it is now rumored that the bishops will bring up their reserves and close all churches and chapels, which is the nearest approach that can be made in our time to an "interdict." But this would be a dangerous experiment, and will probably not be tried.

The "audience question" in China has been settled in a way not altogether satisfactory to foreign residents. The Emperor, it is true, received the foreign ministers, but he paid them very little attention, reserving that for the Japanese ambassador, Soyeshima; and the Peking *Gazette* studiously referred to the audience in terms which left it to be inferred by the Chinese that the ministers were received with the ancient ceremonial as "tribute-bearers." However, the immediate public of Peking was not likely to be deceived, being well aware of the stand taken on this question by the foreigners, and having gathered in flocks to witness the procession, in which the *green* sedan-chairs of the ministers, and the number of their bearers, were palpable evidences that they did not attend the Emperor in the guise of tributaries. The Emperor himself, too, is said to have been much impressed by the appearance and demeanor of the foreign ministers, and evidently surprised that they were gentlemen and not barbarians. Still, the chief figure in the reception was, as we have intimated, the Japanese Soyeshima, to whom is ascribed the credit of cutting the knot of delay and tergiversation on the part of the Emperor's advisers, and of reducing the issue to "audience or war." When that point was reached, the Chinese succumbed, and the Japanese embassy was only in its rightful position at the head of the foreign ministers at the reception, although this served to mitigate the humiliation of the Government. Soyeshima is a personage of great influence in his own country, and in perfect sympathy with the revolution now in progress there. Should the perilous experiment of imposing almost in a day European customs, forms of government, and modes of thought upon an Asiatic people succeed, it would appear that in Japan the civilized world will have the most efficient helper in breaking down the Chinese exclusiveness and altering the destiny of the Flowery Kingdom.

THE MASSACHUSETTS BUGBEAR.

THE attempt of Mr. B. F. Butler to become Governor of Massachusetts is, of course, mainly the concern of the people of that State, and it is quite true, as we are often told, that "if the people want him they will have him." But his enterprise has, both as a symptom and an illustration, a good deal of interest for the people of other States also, which makes it worth discussing, even though the question of his nomination will have been decided before this reaches our readers. That he will be nominated seems at this writing very unlikely; but if he were nominated, it would have some advantage in furnishing a more complete illustration than his career has yet afforded of the working of the system which has raised him into prominence.

In the meantime, there is all over the country a certain mischievous enjoyment of the perplexity into which his performances have been plunging Republican voters in Massachusetts, partly because he is, as we see him, the work of their own hands—the Republican party in Massachusetts, and especially that portion of it which is now opposing him, having made him what he is; and partly because the Administration, which Massachusetts Republicans have served with unusual fidelity, is doing most to force him on the Convention. The truth is, that at the bottom of the Butler enterprise there lies the belief, which even the best Massachusetts people have cherished, that it was possible to use him as long as they pleased and then cast him aside; that he was, in short, an isolated phenomenon, without incidents or consequences; and that, whenever he got too bad for endurance, all they had to do was to drop him. His character before the war was nearly as well known as it is now. Governor Andrew painted him as accurately as anybody has done since. But during the war he managed to make himself useful in some small ways, and he was accordingly taken up with effusion by his own State. He rendered one service, too, which, as men's minds then were, people were not disposed to consider trifling, in irritating the enemy. The more Jefferson Davis and the British denounced him, the more tenderly Massachusetts people hugged him, and the more lavishly they honored him. The votes of thanks and other tokens of recognition which he has of late been parading at his meetings, were really given him in the main for having, as the Portuguese drill-sergeants say, "made ferocious faces at the enemy." He turned out a delightful, saucy old blackguard, who annoyed the rebels horribly, and kept himself so effectually out of harm's way that they never could lay hands on him. When the war was over, everybody was satisfied he could do no mischief, and as a brassy, audacious creature was needed in Congress, the respectable folks looked on and smiled when the Essex District sent him to Washington. He was accordingly furnished with just the kind of field he needed—a recognized place in politics, with a party organization at his back, and complete freedom from the responsibilities of character. Nobody expected Butler to be honest, decent, or sensible, and Butler revelled in the knowledge of the fact.

He then rapidly began to get control of the bad political elements thrown to the surface by the war. He was the head of the first of the organized attempts made by the jobbers in the Senate to secure the Executive patronage by deposing Johnson through impeachment, and then setting up simple old Mr. Wade as a figure-head, behind whose back, or in whose name, they could divide the spoil. After the failure of that attempt, he determined that if he could not control the Executive, he would keep on good terms with it. He accordingly pocketed the slur cast on him as a military man by General Grant, and became the fast friend and supporter of the new President in and out of Congress. He was thus enabled to acquire very speedily the reputation at least of being a powerful disposer of Federal patronage, and he was soon enabled to support it by putting his creatures in several prominent offices. He strengthened himself still further by spreading in every direction the report that he was a terrible enemy, and this reputation he endeavored to support by systematic falsehood and abuse on the stump and in interviews with reporters. Having thus secured a large following of the needy and unscrupulous adventurers and waiters on Providence, and frightened the timid, refined, and fastidious into letting him alone, he began to play the part of the friend of the "poor and lowly," to use his own cant phrase, and to make speeches throughout Massachusetts such as the lowest class of European demagogues address to peasants. It was while cultivating this field that he began the attack on the bondholders in 1870, and so little was his real character perceived or feared at that period, that he actually enjoyed the support and connivance of some of those who are now holding him up to odium as a public enemy. When Mr. Dana gallantly undertook to face him at the polls, too, the contest seemed to afford nothing but amusement to the respectable gentlemen who are now sounding the tocsin in Boston and Worcester. He has consequently been growing steadily in influence, and even in honor.

For the last two years, his hold on the President and on Congress has been increasing. He has become the mouthpiece of the President in the House; he was deputed—he, the great American Rascal, naturally as it seemed—to the office of deciding one of the most delicate questions of ethics and jurisprudence ever submitted to Congress, the proper rule for the distribution of the *Alabama* damages; and, as might have been expected, he made a report which had knavery in every line. Subsequently, emboldened by success, he "engineered the salary grab," thus putting $100,000 in the President's pocket and attaching to himself, as a leader and confederate, all that was base, unscrupulous, and greedy in both the House and the Senate. After all this, it was not wonderful that he should have gone up to Massachusetts, flushed with confidence, to carry off the Governorship by main force, and should have been able to set the Federal machine at work to aid him almost immediately on his arrival, and should have in a few weeks shown the decent people of the State that it would be at least difficult to defeat him. What is wonderful is, that the decent people should not long ago have foreseen what was coming, and that what is called "the revolt of the *Advertiser*"—a sharp intimation by that paper that the Government was forfeiting the support of Massachusetts—should have been reserved until he had nearly packed the nominating convention with his own tools.

Another thing in the canvass that is surprising many people outside the State is the fact that Massachusetts Republicans should be so very indignant just now over Federal interference in their State election. There is nothing novel or unforeseen about this. The President and his advisers are only doing in Massachusetts what they have long been doing in other States with the connivance or approval of Massachusetts. The meddling in support of Butler is a perfectly natural sequence of the support of Casey and Packard. Butler is in some respects, doubtless, a more objectionable man than Casey, but he is also more useful, and we do not see in principle any difference between the control of Louisiana by Long Branch and Washington politicians and that of Massachusetts. It is sad, doubtless, that Federal patronage in Massachusetts should be in the hands of such worthless busybodies as are now trying to elect Butler; but then, are they not as respectable advisers as our own Murphy, and Bliss, and Davenport? The fact is that our Massachusetts brethren must give up regarding themselves as a peculiar people, who can afford to make light of their neighbors' calamity, and must learn the great lesson that what they wink at in other parts of the country may any day have to be encountered within their own borders. They must learn, too, that men like Butler are living organisms, and grow in all directions—on their bad side just as well as on their useful side. They cannot be dismissed at the convenience of their employers, after having done all the dirty work of the establishment, but have to be provided for to avoid public scandal and barn-burning.

THE CHANGE IN ENGLISH POLITICS.

THE recent changes in the English Ministry, and the events which preceded and led to those changes, as well as the discussion which has since sprung up as to the meaning and probable effect of them, throw a very strong light upon the general alteration in the tone of political discussion in England which the years since the close of our civil war have produced. Liberals and Conservatives, it is true, still stand facing each other as they did seven years ago. Mr. Gladstone is the acknowledged leader of the former, standing in the place of Earl Russell; Mr. Disraeli is the recognized chief of the latter, as Lord Derby was before him. The Liberal party is always spoken of as the party of progress and new ideas, we hear the Conservatives still denounced as obstructive and reactionary. They are even occasionally spoken of in this country as Tories, though it is some time since their opponents lost the name of Whigs. On the surface, everything seems to be in *statu quo*.

Beneath the surface, however, nothing has remained, as nothing ever does remain in politics, stationary. A striking instance of the change occurred the other day in Parliament. A Conservative member, Mr. Trevelyan, rose and gave notice of a movement looking to an extension of the franchise in the counties which would increase the voting population by some 900,000 votes. Mr. Forster immediately read in reply to this attack a note from Mr. Gladstone, declaring that such a measure was "wise and politic, and could not long be avoided." This, of course, took the wind out of the Conservative sails, and saved the Government from a dangerous risk. The measure for the extension of the franchise was understood to have the sanction of Conservative leaders, and it was treated by all concerned as a natural move in the game, the merits of which were to be judged by its success. When we consider, however, what English Conservatism has been supposed to mean, and what kind of support it was accustomed thirty years ago to give to measures for the extension of the franchise, this piece of strategy on their part certainly deserves attention.

For some five years Mr. Gladstone has been in office, and he cannot be said to have proved a popular prime minister. He has exposed his Government to all sorts of attacks, and has witnessed a gradual decline in the House of Commons of the power he wielded when he took possession of the Government. The Conservatives for months now have seen the spoils of office almost within their grasp, and for five years have had an opportunity of explaining to the public what they would do with the power if they had it. It seems now that what they would do with it would be to add nine hundred thousand votes to the voting population; these nine hundred thousand votes, too, not being like the borough householders of the Reform Bill of '66, presumably active-minded and intelligent men, but agricultural laborers of dull, sluggish intellect, and presumably incompetent to do anything intelligent with their votes but sell them. The proposition, however, excites no comment, except a promise from Mr. Gladstone to his own party that if he is kept in power, he will do the same thing. Mr. Disraeli's proposal is looked upon as perfectly natural. No more articles appear in *Blackwood's* or in the *Quarterly* ridiculing and scarifying him. That the party which used to be called Tory shall prove its title to respect by shamelessly bidding for the votes of the very classes which in times past it has insulted and oppressed, and its title to power by relying on the support to be derived from the ignorance of the very classes it has itself kept in ignorance, seems in 1873 a natural and logical conclusion in English politics. If, in the anti-slavery agitation which preceded the rebellion, the Southern leaders had suddenly resolved to defeat the designs of the Abolitionists by freeing their slaves themselves, their action would hardly have been more theoretically inconsistent than this movement of the English Conservatives.

In order to understand the process by which their change of heart has been effected, we must go back a few years, to the time when the Earl of Derby succeeded, after the defeat of Mr. Gladstone on the Reform Bill of 1866, in forming a ministry. The language used by the Conservatives was of the most reactionary and Tory kind. The working-classes were insulted right and left, and Mr. Gladstone himself was denounced as a "plebeian." Early in the next year, however, the scene began to change. *Blackwood's Magazine*, always supposed to be the organ of the party, suddenly announced that under certain circumstances Lord Derby had better himself bring in a reform bill. Disraeli, who was then Chancellor of the Exchequer, and heir-expectant to the ministerial succession, was understood to desire it, and shortly afterwards, on the opening of Parliament, the Queen's speech finally committed the Government of Lord Derby to a "free extension of the elective franchise." There was still, however, a feeling in the Conservative party of the necessity of being consistent, so that, when Mr. Disraeli introduced in the House of Commons his resolutions on the subject, although he acknowledged the necessity of an extension of the franchise, he coupled with his promises of reform a scheme for a redistribution of seats and the creation of fresh boroughs, in order to prevent the ascendancy of the working-classes, and he protested at the same time against making the fate of ministries dependent on the success or failure of their reform measures. But Conservative public opinion was by no means ripe for such measures as these. Mr. Disraeli's resolutions were withdrawn, and the Earl of Derby's Cabinet broken up. Three members of it retiring in disgust, a compromise bill was introduced, which provided a shield for the upper classes in what was called the "dual vote"; this dual vote was itself abandoned, and at last, after a series of humiliations, which made the ministers, for the time being, the laughing-stock of England, the bill was passed. Speaking of it at the time in the *Nation*, we described the history of the bill, in language which we certainly now see no reason for changing, as "perhaps one of the most extraordinary bits of political history in existence." It consisted, indeed, in nothing less than the introduction of a radical change in the constitution of one of the most conservative countries in the world, under the leadership of a Jewish adventurer with whom no portion of the population had a particle of sympathy, and by means of tactics which involved not merely baseness but the total repudiation of party government in a country in which there was no other kind of government to fall back upon. This was the view generally taken by the Conservatives outside of the House of Commons. Mr. Disraeli was openly denounced by such members of his own party as Lord Cranborne, and there was a general feeling in England that such things could not be repeated. However, the depth of Mr. Disraeli's character, and the depth of the change in the general situation, had by no means been sounded, for not only did he manage to keep the reins of government during all the trying scenes attending the passage of the Reform Bill, but afterwards, when the Irish Church question came up, he had the audacity, in the teeth of English constitutional usage, to keep his ministry together after an adverse vote had been carried in the House of Commons. It is not difficult to remember the excitement and indignation which this occasioned, and the amused disgust with which Disraeli's charlatanry was regarded by all true Conservatives when at length he went out of office.

Meantime, what have the Liberals been doing? Certainly, they have played as a party no such shameless tricks as their opponents. They have not made bids for their opponents' votes, and, by the extinction of Fenianism, the abolition of the Irish Church, the abuses connected with Irish land-ownership and the purchase system in the army, they have certainly relieved the British Empire of very serious burdens. They have no doubt labored under the disadvantage of having unpopular men in some of the Cabinet offices, and they have committed many errors of administration; but these errors are not of that flagrant kind which shows a party to be rotten, nor is there any reason for supposing that the Conservative party, if it came into power, would not commit errors quite as grave.

There is, however, one very serious defect about the Liberal Administration, which seems to show that, whether 900,000

more voters are enfranchised by it or not, its day is almost over. The fact is, that there is very little more for it to do. The Liberals came into power as the successors of the Whigs, for the purpose of giving the masses the power to which they were justly entitled in political affairs, and this they have done. They have (the Conservatives helping them) extended the franchise until it must be obvious to any dispassionate observer that it has lost its value. There is no one in England who is clamoring for a vote. Even the agricultural laborers take far more interest in emigration than they do in voting, and their leader, Mr. Joseph Arch, instead of showing a desire to be sent to Parliament, is crossing the Atlantic for the purpose of finding out whether it is a feasible thing to transport a million or so of them to new homes and a new life.

The change, then, which has taken place in English politics in the last five years is very analogous to the change which has taken place in American politics in the same time. In both countries there are two parties which divide the power between them; in both, they shout the same battle-cries which they have always shouted; in both, they have accomplished the ends which were the "final causes" of their existence. In both countries the people—the masses—hold the balance of political power in their hands; in neither country do they know very well what to do with it; and consequently, in both they are, for the time being, the *corpus vile* on which the expert politicians of either party experiment. In each country the wide extension of the suffrage has cheapened votes, until they are a drug in the market. In America, the changes are so well understood and so thoroughly admitted by practical people, that a complete severance has been effected between the political class and the public—intelligent people looking on at the manœuvres of the politicians with a contemptuous disgust, while in England the bids of the leaders for further leases of power are beginning to be looked upon with a feeling of cynical amusement, in strange contrast with the vivid interest which only ten years ago party struggles engendered. In short, the Americanization of England, of which we used to hear so much a few years ago, is already an accomplished fact. England is Americanized or democratized already. Her aristocracy has been broken down, the suffrage has been diffused, the power of the crown reduced to a nullity, and, above all, the popular representative body, the legislature, made at the same time by the system of a responsible ministry absolutely omnipotent—for there is no written constitution in England to check its extravagances. If the Farmers' movement were taking place in England instead of at the West, there would be absolutely nothing in the way of constitutional or judicial intervention to prevent the immediate destruction of every railroad charter in the kingdom by act of Parliament.

THE ANDERSON SCHOOL OF NATURAL HISTORY.

THE island of Penikese embraces about 100 acres; ten of these constituting a northern peninsula, reserved by the donor as a future building spot. The rest forms an irregular circle; the northern shore rises gradually, the southern one is precipitous; and near the southern border is "Flagstaff Hill," about 100 feet above the sea. The island, like the neighboring Cuttyhunk, Nashawena, and Naushon, which, with smaller ones, constitute the Elizabeth group, is drift plentifully sprinkled with boulders representing nearly all kinds of rocks, amongst these a splendid specimen of conglomerate or "pudding-stone."

The buildings given by Mr. Anderson stand near the water, upon the southwest shore of the little bay between "Great" and "Little Penikese." The house faces the south, and has been occupied by the instructors with their families; a projecting ell accommodates the servants. The proposed buildings were two, each 100 feet by 25, running parallel, east and west, and connected by a lecture-room 25 by 40 feet; all these are now completed; but upon the 5th of July, when Professor Agassiz reached the island, the utmost efforts of the architect and builders had only succeeded in roofing in the more southerly of the two buildings. Yet on Tuesday, the 8th, at least fifty persons would arrive for permanent occupation, and others to witness the opening exercises. How the carpenters worked all Sunday, upon the ground that the Anderson School was no money speculation, but an institution for teaching God's truth; how Mrs. Agassiz and other ladies not only directed the willing labors of the employees, but themselves unpacked crockery and furniture and made the beds, so that by Tuesday noon the south building was floored, and the furniture arranged at the east end for the ladies and the west end for the gentlemen, need not be described in detail; nor how the steward and his assistants provided then and thereafter the equally essential materials for the subsistence of the 70 to 80 persons who occupied an island fifteen miles from New Bedford. Suffice it to say that this was accomplished at a cost of $8 40 per week for each student, with an additional charge of $10 for the use of furniture during the summer. These figures are given to show at what expense living and instruction were furnished the first year, when all was new and necessarily more costly than it is likely to be hereafter. Within a fortnight, the eighteen women students had each a room upon the second floor of the south hall; the remaining rooms were occupied by as many men, and by such of the instructors as could not be accommodated in the house; the remaining male students occupied the western third of the lower floor, the other two-thirds forming the general laboratory and lecture-room. It will be understood that next year each of the fifty students will have a sleeping-room on the second and a working-room on the first floor.

Communication with New Bedford was had almost daily either by sloops chartered by the institution, by the *Sprite*, of which hereafter, or the steamer which visited Cuttyhunk twice a week. The burden of business was assumed by a friend of Professor Agassiz's, and an account was kept with each student in respect to board and the alcohol and other supplies required for their private collections. Fifty aquariums, each 30 inches long by 20 inches wide and deep, had been ordered as early in the spring as plans could be made. The frames and glass arrived during the first week; but, in spite of the exertions of all concerned, they were not fully completed before the close of the school, and so one great feature of seaside instruction was wanting. Yet not entirely either; for bowls, pails, and jars were in constant use as small aquariums, and so much was learned and enjoyed even from these simple contrivances, and so fully was the time occupied, that more than once it was said that the aquariums would this first year have been almost an *embarras de richesses*.

The materials for aquarium study and for dissection were obtained in part by the students themselves, wading over the flats or in excursions to and among the neighboring islands, and in part by the almost daily dredging from the *Sprite*. This is a beautiful yacht of about forty tons, presented to Prof. Agassiz by Mr. Galloupe, and under the charge of Count Pourtalès, of the Coast Survey, whose deep-sea investigations during the past ten years have not only changed our views of life at great depth, but suggested similar researches upon the other side of the Atlantic. The dredging party consisted of eight ladies and gentlemen, and always brought in valuable material, although the limits within which it was thought best to confine the excursions precluded the results obtainable in deeper waters. A neighboring "pound" afforded a constant supply of the sharks and skates which were needed both for instruction and for the prosecution of researches which Prof. Agassiz has been for many years carrying on respecting selachians. Very valuable acquisitions were also made through the fishermen of New Bedford and vicinity. From these various sources came, among radiates, plenty of star-fishes and holothurians (or sea-cucumbers), also sea-anemones and corals enough to give all an opportunity to study them. Sea-urchins (*echini*) were not found, but a supply arrived from Prof. Baird, at Peak's Island, near Portland, Maine. Of mollusks, the island shores afforded the *litorinas* in plenty, and larger univalves as well as bivalves were found by wading, or brought up by the dredge. Of the cuttle-fish, only a few squids were found. Articulates were obtained in great abundance; the gigantic and tufted marine worms were a revelation to those from the interior, whose knowledge of this class was confined to earth-worms. Sand-fleas and little shrimp-like crustaceans abounded upon the flats and among the sea-weed, while the larger crabs and lobsters were occasionally procured in quantity for general examination. An almost treeless island would not be expected to furnish many insects, yet representatives of all the sub-orders were found; garden-spiders and house-flies abounded, the latter multiplying to a troublesome degree toward the end of the summer.

Naturally, the marine vertebrates occupied most attention. Fishes of several kinds were sometimes had in large number, so as to be examined by all; or the rarer species were prepared as permanent specimens, either by the students or by those who collected for the Museum at Cambridge, of which the Anderson School is practically a summer branch. And here it should be stated that so far from laying claim to what was obtained, Prof. Agassiz urged the students to make collections to take home, and provided for the purpose cans and alcohol at cost. The only exception was in the case of a skate brought in by a dredging party, which proved to contain in each oviduct an egg in its case or shell, apparently just formed and ready to

be laid; and the finder gladly placed at the Professor's disposal a specimen of which he could make the best use. Among other prizes were the sharks with eggs bearing young in different stages of growth (for many sharks bring forth living young), and a skate five feet across, with a tail of still greater length, and so heavy as to require two men to carry it into the laboratory; a "file-fish" (*monacanthus*), several "globe-fishes" (*diodon* and *tetrodon*), two specimens of *tetrapterurus* allied to the sword-fish, an *elacate*, and three species of *echineis*. A few pipe-fishes were found, but no lampreys or sturgeons; but some specimens of *amphioxus* and lampreys, gar-pike, and other ganoids, had been brought by Prof. Wilder to illustrate the lectures.

The batrachians were plentifully represented by hosts of toads, which are said to have been introduced only five years ago, but now cover the island, making holes two to five inches deep, apparently for protection against the salt spray, and eating little crustaceans (*gammarus*) as well as insects. No reptiles were found upon the island, but a number of turtle have been introduced as a supply in future years. Several kinds of birds were obtained, but the most abundant were three species of tern, whose eggs and young were in some localities not easy to avoid treading upon. None of these were killed for sport, and the means for embryological study will therefore continue. The sheep constituted the sole mammalian inhabitants, until the arrival of the rabbits and guinea-pigs sent by Dr. Brown-Séquard. Notwithstanding the unpromising aspect of the island from a botanical point of view, one of the students made a list of about seventy-five plants; the sea-weeds were objects of great interest, and beautiful specimens were prepared. Fossils were obtained at Martha's Vineyard; but Penikese afforded no geological material beyond the drift and boulders already mentioned.

The means of study at Penikese consisted of dissecting instruments supplied at cost, and of trays, jars, dishes, etc., which all were free to use. Several students had microscopes, and the institution supplied nearly a dozen of different kinds, which were constantly in use. A stereopticon furnished several instructive exhibitions. The instructors brought works upon their special subjects, and the students soon learned that Professor Agassiz's denunciation of books referred mainly to compilations and text-books; while even in respect to them, it could be fairly interpreted as was the Scriptural declaration against rich men; and all soon learned that only those who trusted too much in books were likely to be excluded from the ranks of true naturalists. The key-note was given when Professor Agassiz, in his opening address, stated that he was less anxious to impart actual information than to lead the students to observe for themselves, and to become as far as possible original investigators; and that, if they could learn the best *methods of study*, the results would be sure.

It was evident that the applications for admission would far exceed the number (fifty) which could be received; and Professor Agassiz established a rule which is to be even more rigidly adhered to hereafter, namely, to admit only those actually engaged in teaching natural history. The admission of women could hardly form a question with one who, though not a believer in coeducation in general, has always received them both as students and assistants in the Museum; and the earnestness, industry, and skill with which they availed themselves of all the privileges at their disposal, proved the justice of their admission. The students, most of whom were themselves teachers, even superintendents of schools, all worked with great zeal both in taking notes and in dissection; indeed, all needed cautioning more than urging. Not content with their regular work, they organized an Agassiz Natural History Club, whose weekly meetings proved of great interest.

It will be remembered that the first announcement of the school included the names of about twenty scientists who had made specialties of the various branches in which instruction was to be given; and it is one of the pleasantest features of the whole affair, that although, almost without exception, hard-worked in their regular duties, these gentlemen volunteered their services. From various causes, enforced absence, other duties, and in several cases the need of absolute rest, many of these free-will promises could not be fulfilled; but their offers themselves remain on record as evidence of their wish to assist in an effort to advance natural-history education, and of their faith in the leader of the enterprise. Instruction was actually given by the following: 1. Louis Agassiz, Harvard University. 2. Arnold Guyot, Princeton College. 3. Count Pourtalès, Coast Survey. 4. A. S. Packard, Peabody Academy, Salem, Mass. 5. B. G. Wilder, Cornell University. 6. T. I. F. Brewer, Boston. 7. B. Waterhouse Hawkins, England. 8. Edwin Bicknell, Cambridge. 9. Paulus Roetter, Cambridge. Professor N. S. Shaler, to whom the school is so largely indebted for its existence, and Dr. Brown-Séquard were detained in Europe till too late to join their colleagues.

Mr. Roetter gave several practical outdoor lessons in drawing from nature, and Mr. Hawkins delivered three lectures upon the principles of art and the method of natural-history drawing. He also illustrated two of Dr. Wilder's anatomical lectures upon the board; but most of his and Mr. Roetter's time was spent in transferring to paper the aspects in life and action of the new and interesting animals constantly brought in. Mr. Bicknell gave constant instruction in microscopic manipulation, and prepared specimens for the microscope or by injection for various investigations; he also on several occasions employed the stereopticon for illustration of microscopic structure and even of living animals while moving and devouring each other. Dr. Brewer delivered three lectures upon birds, the first of which was a most instructive demonstration of their usefulness as insect devourers, and a vigorous protest against their destruction. All hoped that his radical views would be published and heeded. Count Pourtalès superintended the dredging, and gave instruction in the use of the various instruments required for observation upon land and sea. It must not be forgotten that a timely storm delayed Prof. Peirce, the eminent chief of the Coast Survey, sufficiently long upon the island to enable the school to hear his views upon the nebular theory. Prof. Guyot, the former fellow-student and always warmly-attached friend of Prof. Agassiz, was able to remain only a week, but he lectured nearly every day, and succeeded in imparting an amount of information upon physical geography and meteorology which, as is well known, could not have been obtained from any other source.

Dr. Packard and Dr. Wilder took charge of the instruction upon articulates and vertebrates respectively, and were at all times in the laboratory superintending the students' dissections, pursuing their own investigations, or preparing for their lectures, which generally came upon alternate days. Dr. Packard began with the lower forms of life, and then followed a regular course with the worms and crustacea, illustrating them with diagrams, or, when possible, with actual specimens. A most interesting and instructive account was given of the structure and embryology of the horseshoe crab (*limulus*), mainly from his own researches. The closing lectures were on the general structure and metamorphoses of insects, but there was not time for a detailed account of the sub-orders; the students were advised to form "biological collections" to illustrate the life-history, the foes and friends and food of single species, as a most interesting study and an aid to agriculture. After some preliminary lectures upon methods of study, upon the habits of spiders, and upon general anatomy and physiology, including a demonstration of the viscera and muscles of a large dog, Dr. Wilder began with *amphioxus*, and treated successively the several groups, the last lectures being upon the brains of mammalia, and especially of dogs; all were illustrated by diagrams and by specimens.

Prof. Agassiz himself worked, as he always does, hard and almost uninterruptedly; in fact, too hard for his health. He was almost constantly in the laboratory, encouraging and aiding alike the students and the other teachers, or spending hours in elucidating new points in the structure of animals which he has studied all his life; and he lectured nearly every day, at times even twice in a day, for he attended every lecture by others, and at its close, or even in its course, would rise to add a word of confirmation or doubt, and, as upon several occasions, would continue for half an hour upon matters suggested by the lecture. On one occasion, some general remarks before a lecture led to a spirited discussion upon some important subjects, to the exclusion of the lecture itself, but to the greater satisfaction of all concerned. In fact, nothing could be less formal and more genial than the intercourse between the respected chief and all connected with the school. From what has been said, it will be seen that an enumeration of Agassiz's subjects would not be easy. A series of admirable lectures on glaciers, embodying much that has never been published, and a course upon radiates, and a third upon the egg, formed nuclei around which were grouped discourses upon general topics and special questions, such as were never before brought within the same time. And when it is remembered that the school opened July 8, and the last students departed August 28, and that during these seven weeks Prof. Agassiz was absent less than one (and that upon urgent business), it will be evident that when he asked the co-operation of others he did not mean to content himself with directing their labors; but it is to be hoped that another year he may be willing to give himself more of the rest he so sadly needs.

Correspondence.

A CARD FROM MR. WILLIAM BLACK.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: My experience of American publishers has been so favorable—their dealings with me have been so equitable and even generous—that I hope you will allow me to express in your columns the surprise with which I find myself made the victim of a somewhat shabby trick on the part of one of

their number. I find in the columns of the *Scottish American Journal*, along with a series of wild and uncalled-for compliments addressed to myself, an announcement of a "new story" from my pen, the first portion of which is placed before the readers of the *Journal*. The "new story" was written when I was of the mature age of twenty-one; and I had fondly hoped that it had died a natural death, for there are few of us as wise at twenty-one as we then consider ourselves to be. I think that it is very hard that the wretched little tale should have been unearthed at all; but the audacity—to call it by no other name—which invites attention to this precious production as a "new story" is beyond a joke.

I am, sir, your obedient servant, WILLIAM BLACK,
Author of 'A Daughter of Heth,' etc.

PALL MALL CLUB, LONDON, August 27, 1873.

PROGRESSIVE DECLINE IN RAILROAD FREIGHTS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your correspondent, "New Englander," makes it very clear that the farmers, in their controversy with the railroads, must use more conclusive arguments than the stale charge of "watered stocks." It is quite probable, as your correspondent supposes, that the so-called watered-stock roads carry farm produce at as low rates as make the tariff of transportation lines whose stock and bonds represent actual cash payment for their full amount.

The practical question is, *What are reasonable charges per ton per mile?* Further, how do these charges compare with those of former years, when farmers had not made the discovery that they were robbed by the railroads? Comparatively, are they moderate or excessive? And do our railroads now pay their stock and bondholders an exorbitant profit? On these points I have just found some most instructive reading in the recent report of the Michigan Central Railroad. This road is one of the leading arteries to and from the West. At Chicago it has close connections with those powerful corporations, the Illinois Central and Chicago, Burlington, and Quincy Roads; and at the East it connects with the Great Western of Canada, leading to the New York Central at Suspension Bridge. Its stock and bonds are largely owned, and the road is wholly controlled, by such "bloated bondholders" as the Thayers, Forbeses, and Hunnewells of Boston, and Moses Taylor and John Jacob Astor of this city, and the road has probably been diluted by the watering process as little as any Eastern or Western road. In construction, equipment, and in the talent of its executive and subordinate officers, it is in every respect a first-class road. The stock of this Company during the ten or twelve years previous to the last has ranged from 110 to 125, and, until a year past, has uniformly paid ten per cent. annual dividends; and any merchant, manufacturer, or artisan may be challenged in vain to assert that such a return for a precarious investment was unreasonable. Now, this powerful Company has paid nothing in cash to its stockholders for more than twelve months, its entire earnings having been expended on the road. Further, under the pressure of the absolute requirements of the road for new rails, double-track equipment, etc., more than five millions of dollars have, during the past year, been raised by the sale of bonds, and expended to keep the road up to the highest point of efficiency for its future service, for which end the directors (who are the largest stockholders) consider that stockholders should forego without murmuring their present reduced profits. The result of passing dividends and further bonding of the road has depreciated the stock to the neighborhood of 90. It is quite probable that the indignant farmers who had accumulated a few earnings before the robbery began of what they had not accumulated, may have opportunity to invest in this first-class railroad at even a less price than 90 before good dividends are resumed. What has caused these meagre earnings and this depreciation of stock, and afforded clamorous farmers and others opportunity to buy good railroad stocks at a bargain? Let one of the ablest men of the West tell us. The President of the Michigan Central Road writes from Detroit in June last in an apologetic tone, giving as the cause of their disappointment, among other reasons, the following:

"Allusion has been made in the reports of this Company for two or three years past to the rapid construction of railroads which might affect its local traffic by competition at its local points. The effect of the intense competition for through business is probably understood by all stockholders. At Kalamazoo the road is crossed by a branch of the Pennsylvania system of roads running far north into the State; also by a branch of the Lake Shore and Michigan Southern to Grand Rapids. At Battle Creek it is intersected by the Peninsular Road, connecting with the Pittsburg and Fort Wayne, and also with the Detroit, Lansing, and Lake Michigan, at Lansing. At Albion and at Jackson it is intersected or reached by two other branches of the Lake Shore and Michigan Southern Road. At Wayne it is crossed by the Flint and Père Marquette. At all the important points on the main line, and at several points on the other division lines, full competition is established, *and substantially the rates at all local points are as fully fixed by competition as are the through rates. The result has been everywhere a reduction of rates*, and, for the information of stockholders, we place before them the earnings from freight, both local and through, for the years running from 1865 to 1873, inclusive of both years, stating the number of tons carried in each year, and the number of tons carried one mile in each year, and the gross earnings therefrom, and the rate of freight per ton per mile which has ruled each year:

	Tons of Freight Moved.	Tons Moved One Mile.	Freight Earnings.	Earnings per Ton per Mile.
1865	485,275	72,937,319	$2,233,529 47	$.3\frac{6}{100}$
1866	533,451	84,897,713	2,208,591 82	$.2\frac{60}{100}$
1867	578,177	91,950,418	2,285,521 69	$.2\frac{49}{100}$
1868	638,586	101,264,251	2,480,974 16	$.2\frac{45}{100}$
1869	802,835	131,827,774	2,775,200 48	$.2\frac{9}{100}$
1870	822,770	132,903,174	2,634,438 87	$.1\frac{98}{100}$
1871	1,105,875	190,606,687	3,072,557 58	$.1\frac{61}{100}$
1872	1,238,313	216,739,727	3,379,625 54	$.1\frac{56}{100}$
1873	1,416,792	246,078,512	3,852,933 41	$.1\frac{57}{100}$

"It will be noticed how gradually but certainly rates have been sinking from $.3\frac{6}{100}$ per ton per mile in 1865 to $.1\frac{56}{100}$ in 1872, with slight increase in 1873. It follows that we are doing all freight business, *including local* as well as through, on an average, *at very nearly half what the rates were eight years ago.* To illustrate the effect of this, take the year 1868 as an example. This is only five years ago, and then the rates had declined from $.3\frac{6}{100}$ per ton per mile in 1865 to $.2\frac{45}{100}$ in that year.

"The gross earnings from freight in that year were $2,480,974. In that year the surplus to be divided among stockholders, after paying expenses and interest, was $944,328.

"Now, had the Company been compelled to do that business that year at the rates of last year, viz., $.1\frac{56}{100}$ per ton per mile, the gross receipts from freights would have been $1,579,722, instead of $2,480,974, and the difference would have been $901,251, *which is very nearly the total surplus of that year credited to income account.* If we had also been compelled to do the through passenger business of that year at present rates, which is about four-fifths of the then rate, there would have been a deficit in earnings even to pay interest on the then debt of the Company.

"Now, reverse the case, and take the business of 1872. The freight earnings of that year were $3,379,625, with the rate per ton per mile of $.1\frac{56}{100}$. Had we been able to realize the sum of $.2\frac{45}{100}$ per ton per mile, the rate of 1868, the earnings from that business would have been $5,310,123, or $1,930,497 more than was realized at present rates.

"On the business of the present year, which is a large increase over that of last year, the difference is still more striking. In the last year the gross earnings from freight were $3,852,933 41. The rate per ton per mile was $.1\frac{57}{100}$. At the same rate as in 1868, the earnings would have been $6,028,923 54, which is $2,175,990 13 more than was actually realized. *That amount has been saved to the producer in a single year by the competition which has sprung up only within the last five years.* The only comfort there is in it to railway managers is in the fact that the rate per mile was not reduced during the last year—indicating that competition for the present has done its worst. In fact, it is difficult to conceive that business can be done cheaper with any reasonably adequate profit to the railroad companies."

Assuming that the experience of the Michigan Central as regards competition for freights is representative in a large measure, and that the above statements and tables are trustworthy, directors and stockholders must look elsewhere for cheerful summer reading, or be philosophical under a double misery—the loss of dividends and the violent abuse of gentlemen engaged in an occupation which Washington said was "the noblest employment of mankind."

The writer is in the employ of no railroad, and neither himself nor family has a present or prospective interest in any railroad stock or bonds; but in this controversy he is of opinion that the item of facts which Lord Bacon and the late Mr. Gradgrind prized so highly ought to weigh against mere theories of railroad profits or railroad despotism. A. L. W.

Notes.

MACMILLAN & CO.'S list of fall publications is of the usual excellence. Omitting new editions of standard works, we select for mention 'The Schools and Universities of Germany,' by Matthew Arnold; 'Comparative Politics,' by Edward A. Freeman; 'An Art Tour through the Northern Capitals of Europe,' by J. Beavington Atkinson; 'Plutarch: his Life, his Lives, and his Morals,' a series of lectures by Archbishop Trench; 'A New Biographical Dictionary,' especially for natives of Great Britain and Ireland,

by Thomas Cooper, editor of *Men of the Time*; 'A New French-English and English-French Dictionary,' by Gustave Masson—a handy volume, by the way; some fresh fairy stories, 'Queer Customers,' by Mr. Knatchbull-Hugessen; and the following scientific works: 'The Principles of Science,' by W. Stanley Jevons; 'The Origin and Metamorphoses of Insects,' by Sir John Lubbock; and 'Contributions to Solar Physics,' by J. Norman Lockyer. Among the holiday publications of this house, the most notable are Mrs. Charles Heaton's 'Leonardo da Vinci and his Works,' and Eliza Meteyard's 'Wedgwood and his Works'—both illustrated with permanent photographs. ——J. B. Ford & Co. publish immediately a second series of Mr. Beecher's 'Yale Lectures on Preaching'; 'Winning Souls,' by Rev. S. B. Halliday; 'Silver and Gold,' by Rossiter W. Raymond, author of 'Mines and Mining,' and several novels.——'Through the Air,' by Mr. John Wise, the aeronaut, is announced as a subscription work by the *To-Day* Publishing Company, Philadelphia. It is a history of air navigation from the earliest times.——J. B. Lippincott & Co. are to publish in one volume a popular edition of the 'Life of John Adams,' begun by John Quincy Adams, and completed by Charles Francis Adams.

—It is of small consequence whether Gen. Butler invented or borrowed the convenient phrase "contraband of war" to cover the case of fugitives from rebel masters. As he has offered only a technical denial to the circumstantial charge of plagiarism, it is quite likely he has been taking praise which did not fairly belong to him; but the fact that he was "cute" enough to appropriate the good thing of another, will atone with his admirers for the want of originality. There can be no doubt that the application of the term was entirely novel. We have received several communications seeking to prove the contrary, but the cases are not parallel. In one we are reminded that "the term 'contraband' was familiarly used, long before the late war, in the Island of Cuba and elsewhere, to designate those negroes who were taken from slave-ships, in contradistinction to those who were born in slavery. An illustration of the word being so used may be found in 'Captain Canot; or, Twenty Years of an African Slaver,' p. 108." This work was published by the Appletons in 1854. More interesting is the following instance of an early use of the word in the same sense:

"In 1790, Benj. Franklin, a few weeks previous to his death, presented a petition to Congress calling the attention of that body to the wrongs of slavery and the African slave-trade. (I have the memorial before me.) After the reading of this petition, and on motion of its commitment, a furious debate arose, in which the Southern members dealt out the severest invectives against the memorialists and Quakers generally. It was finally referred to a special committee of seven, who, after a month's delay, brought in a report consisting of seven resolutions. It was on the discussion of the sixth resolution, relating to the foreign slave-trade carried on from ports of the United States, that Scott of Pennsylvania made an elaborate speech. After alluding to the fact that Congress was prohibited, for a limited period, from interfering with the importation of slaves, he added: 'By another clause of the Constitution, Congress has power to regulate trade. Under that head, not only the proposition now under consideration, but any other or further regulation which to Congress may seem expedient, is fully in their power. Nay, sir, if these wretched Africans are to be considered as property, as some gentlemen would have it, and consequently as *subjects of trade and commerce*, they and their masters so far lose the benefit of their personality, that Congress may at pleasure declare them *contraband goods*, and so prohibit the trade altogether."

—The Portland meeting of the American Association for the Advancement of Science was noteworthy for the large attendance—two hundred members being present; and also for the large number of papers read—156. Twenty-two States were represented, Minnesota and Missouri being the extreme Western, and Louisiana the extreme Southern. Massachusetts furnished the largest number of members, 46; New York, 28. It is curious to note that while Maine, which entertained the Association, sent 16 members, distant Illinois furnished exactly the same number. This meeting was also remarkable as completing the first quarter-century of the Association's existence, although but twenty-two meetings have actually been held, a suspension of several years having occurred during the rebellion. No previous session has been so fully reported by the daily press. This one, like its predecessors, illustrated the different ideas of the object of the Association entertained by its members. Some evidently regard it simply as a means of publishing and placing on record their investigations and discoveries, forgetting that there are scientific journals in abundance which would perform this service with greater exactness. Others regard the meetings of the Association as an occasion for bringing their theories and work to the severe but impartial ordeal of discussion by experts, their errors to be detected and their weak points ascertained for subsequent re-examination. This we take to be the highest and most useful function the Association can exercise, as it ensures, what is pre-eminently important, the training of scientific minds to habits of unassailable accuracy in their methods of investigation. Throughout this meeting the criticisms, often severe, and sometimes destructive, were, with scarcely an exception, given and received in a spirit of the utmost candor and kindness. The best results of such discussion, we think, can be attained only by a more concise and explicit mode of statement, in order to which all papers should be required to be presented in writing. It is true there are a few men, such as Professor Peirce, whose extempore speech always has the precision and finish of the most careful composition, but such cases are extremely rare. If the Association would then advance only one step further, and require not only the abstract but the whole paper to be written, much time would be saved for discussion. An incidental value of this Association, which seems not fully appreciated by its members, is the opportunity it affords for the cultivation of intimate acquaintance and friendship among a class of persons who need such fellowship at least as much as any other class, and yet whose vocation often isolates them. A promising movement was made in this direction by the chemists, who devoted an evening expressly to social purposes, and resolved to hold a similar meeting next year. Other specialists would follow their example with great advantage.

—For working purposes, the Association is divided into two principal sections, A and B—the former embracing mathematics, astronomy, physics, and chemistry; the latter, zoölogy, botany, geology, and ethnology. Section B is always the more popular; it has more members, it attracts the larger audience. Section A is marked by the greater decorum and order in its proceedings and the greater personal deference of its members in debate. This is said to be characteristic of these sections generally. A keen observer—himself a member of Section B—asserted that the lack of this courtesy in his own section was so marked that it actually discouraged some of the older members from attending the meetings at all, and that a change in this respect was imperative. The reason assigned for the acknowledged difference between the two sections—and which, if correct, justifies this statement of an unpalatable fact—is this: It is possible for a young man possessed of little intellectual training or culture to go out into the fields, observe a few phenomena, collect a few specimens, and fancy himself a botanist, zoölogist, or geologist, while he lacks all qualifications to generalize the facts he may have observed. Such men are usually arrogant, intolerant of criticism, and generally disagreeable. On the other hand, no man can even pretend to reach a respectable standing in the sciences embraced in Section A without a measure of intellectual discipline which shows itself collectively in the general tone of the whole body. Principal Dawson, of Montreal, also a member of Section B, declared very delicately, yet most emphatically, his opinion that our young naturalists need a much better acquaintance with mental philosophy and logic than most of them possess. The Association's entrance on its quarter-century was fitly marked not only by a cordiality of feeling among its members such as has perhaps never before existed, but especially by the establishment of a fund "for the advancement of science," by affording pecuniary aid to those engaged in original research. The foundation of this fund was laid by Mrs. Elizabeth Thompson, of this city, by the gift of $1,000, with the intimation that it would be repeated whenever the Association should have use for more.

—More light on the feudal practice of disembowelling has reached us from an unexpected source. A German, temporarily residiug in this country, has courteously called our attention to a paper by S. Sugenheim which appeared in No. 50 of *Im neuen Reich* (1872), and was entitled 'Aus der Vergangenheit der kleinen Herren.' The writer, says our informant, quoting some examples from a larger essay of his, to which a prize was awarded by the Imperial Academy at St. Petersburg ('Geschichte der Aufhebung der Leibeigenschaft und Hörigkeit in Europa bis um die Mitte des 19ten Jahrhunderts'—'History of the Abolition of Serfdom,' etc.), quotes the following from Rougebief, "one of the best historians of the free county of Burgundy":

"Even to this day (1851) the peasants of this neighborhood never pass the ruins of Château Maîche without angry words and looks of hatred. They remember that the lords of this castle possessed the right on returning from the chase to cut open two of their serfs for the purpose of warming their feet in the entrails. One would fain believe this barbarous ferocity a fiction, but a famous lawsuit caused by this privilege has proved the truth of this fact, which seems to us so utterly incredible."

This certainly has an authentic look, but we must confess that we hear for the first time of the historian Rougebief, and could wish he had referred to his authority both for the tradition and the lawsuit.

—Dr. Kenealy's opening argument in the Tichborne case was enlivened, toward the end of the third or the beginning of the fourth week, by a curious psycho-physiological discussion between himself and the bench. One of the most important difficulties with the theory that the defendant is the real Sir Roger Tichborne, is that he has forgotten many things which Sir Roger Tichborne must necessarily have remembered. Latin, for instance, was one of Sir Roger's acquisitions, but the Claimant's familiarity with that

tongue may be inferred from his translation of "laus Deo semper" as "the laws of God for ever." So many of these mistakes had been made that Dr. Kenealy could not avoid the subject, especially as the Claimant's want of memory extends not only to languages but to very important events of his own life. Dr. Kenealy's theory on this subject was as follows: Memory depends a great deal on the power of perception, and this varies greatly in different persons. His client was a man of dull perceptions, who had passed his life in sensual animal pursuits, and in this way had dulled his mind. Besides this, "slight circumstances," as Locke says in his work on the Human Understanding, "leave no more impression on the mind than shadows flying over fields of corn." So of Roger's life. In truth, Dr. Kenealy said, Roger never became a man until he "threw off the shackles of civilization in South America and Australia." "The pictures drawn on the mind," as Locke says, "are laid in fading colors, and if not sometimes refreshed they vanish and disappear." It is part of the evidence of the case that the Claimant has no recollection of his great-aunt Lady Clanricarde, by whom, before he threw off the shackles of civilization, he had been repeatedly entertained and introduced to the best Dublin society. In the same way, he cannot identify the photograph of the country-seat called Knoyle where he had often stayed weeks at a time. But what was there in the wilderness of Australia to recall and refresh such incidents as those? "Some impressions on the mind," Locke says, "are made as in marble; others as if in sand."

—Besides this, Dr. Kenealy continued, fatness, when extreme, is a species of disease, the load of flesh tending to weaken the mind and impair the brain. On this the Lord Chief-Justice asked whether he had any authority for this, on which Dr. Kenealy replied that he had not, but neither had he expected to be asked for any. The Chief-Justice then intimated that it was his own opinion that he could adduce many remarkable instances to the contrary. Dr. Kenealy replied that though the Chief-Justice no doubt might be able to do so, still fatness was generally supposed to be indicative of dulness, and for himself, the only clever fat man he ever remembered to have read of was Falstaff—certainly not a fortunate instance, considering Falstaff's reputation on the score of truth and veracity. The discussion continued; the names of Sydney Smith, Lord Justice James, Sir James Scarlett, and other gifted men who were known to have been very stout, were mentioned at the bar, the Lord Chief-Justice mentioning one or two of them. Dr. Kenealy, however, still insisted that, on the whole, thin men were the ablest, but Mr. Justice Mellor remarked that there would be a division of opinion upon that point, and Mr. Justice Lush observed, "We shall all become lean if this trial lasts much longer," and at this sally, the report continues, "every one laughed, though with a certain sense of bitterness." It seems strange that the very apposite case of Hamlet did not occur to Dr. Kenealy. A very large number of critics have decided that he was insane, and everybody admits that his mind was in a very queer condition—so queer that he declares his prospective father-in-law (a character who stands to him in almost as near a relation as Lady Clanricarde to Sir Roger Tichborne) to be a fishmonger; and, most remarkable of all, the line:

"O that this too, too solid flesh would melt,"

would seem to point to a very immediate connection between the condition of the mind and the size of the body. Besides this striking coincidence it should be remembered that Hamlet was himself a Claimant.

—A work which we may safely attribute to the events of 1870-71 in Europe, is that on which Professor Seeley is said to be engaged, a 'Life of Stein'—the third German, as he has been called, since Luther and Frederic the Great. Stein's works have lately been translated by Colonel Ouvry. Pertz's 'Life of Stein' still awaits a translator, we believe. Other English announcements promise a 'Life of Samuel Lover,' by Bayle Bernard; a 'Life of Thomas Wentworth, Earl of Strafford,' by Miss Cooper; and a work to be entitled 'Wilkes, Sheridan, Fox—Popular Leaders under George III.,' by W. F. Rae, whose book on this country, 'Westward by Rail,' will be remembered. Some new facts will be brought out in it concerning the Government prosecutions of Wilkes. We are to have also a "popularization of the chief results of the Early English Text Society's work on our language," by a member of the Society, whose name the *Athenæum* does not give. Lord Houghton is to re-edit 'Keats's Life and Poems,' and William Rossetti the 'Poetical Works of William Blake,' for the Aldine Series. We may look, too, for a 'History of Greece, from the Earliest Period to the Present Time,' by Rev. G. W. Cox; a 'History of Persia,' by Clements R. Markham, and a 'Grammar of the Persian Language,' by J. A. Vullers; 'Incidents in the Sepoy War of 1857-8,' from the private journal of Sir Hope Grant; 'The Geography of India, Ancient and Modern,' by Colonel Yule, whose work is always of the best; 'The Slaves: their Ethnology, Early History, and Popular Traditions,' by W. R. Morfill; a 'Smaller History of France,' by Rev. H. W. Jervis; a 'Dictionary of English History,' in one volume; and a 'Volume of Vocabularies, illustrating the Condition and Manners of our Forefathers,' by Thomas Wright. Still another dictionary of importance will be E. A. Dayman's 'Mediæval Latin Dictionary,' based on Ducange. 'Personal Recollections from Early Life to Old Age,' by the late Mary Somerville; 'The Minor Works of George Grote,' which will include several unpublished pieces; and a translation of Comte's 'Politique Positive,' by Dr. T. H. Bridges, F. Harrison, Professor Beesley, Dr. Congreve, and H. Dix Hutton, are all works that will command attention; and the following will probably prove worth examining: 'Our Judicial System as Compared with those of other Nations,' by W. F. Finlayson; M. D. Conway's 'Sacred Anthology: a Book of Ethical Scriptures'; 'The Naturalist in Nicaragua,' by Thomas Belt; 'Etchings of the Moselle,' with short descriptions, by Ernest George; and 'Principles of Decorative Design,' by Christopher Dresser.

—Actual English publications since our last summary hardly call for notice. Among books of travel a peculiar interest attaches to William Davies's prettily illustrated 'Pilgrimage of the Tiber, from its Mouth to its Source,' with some account of its tributaries; and good reading should be John C. Wells's 'Gateway to the Polynia,' as he calls his narrative of a voyage to Spitzbergen; and 'Peeps into the Haunts and Homes of the Rural Population of Cornwall,' by J. J. Tregellas. More solid works are Goudsmidt's treatise on Roman law and its connection with modern legislation—'The Pandects,' translated from the Dutch by R. de Tracy Gould; and Dr. Max von Pettenkofer's popular lectures on 'The Relations of the Air to the Clothes we wear, the Houses we live in, and the Soil we dwell on,' a subject on which travellers are agreed that the Germans stand in special need of enlightenment, though it is not too well understood anywhere. Edward Smith's 'Handbook for Inspectors of Nuisances' has a useful-sounding title, as has also F. W. Burbridge's 'Art of Botanical Drawing.' The 'Life of Moscheles,' by his wife, has been "adapted" from the German by A. D. Coleridge.

—The Cable despatches as to Spanish affairs we have not in general found to be absolutely reliable. Their untrustworthiness is due partly no doubt to the fact that the news they contain is all derived from Spanish sources, but, even when allowance is made for this obstacle, there is still a great deal to be accounted for. We were obliged to wait a month to get any intelligible account of the proceedings with regard to the *Almanza* and *Vittoria*, and then the account came from the columns of the London *Times*, and even now, we fancy, it would puzzle most American readers of newspapers to say what has become of so important a figure in the southern campaign as General Contreras, who, after being last heard from as a captured pirate in the hands of the combined English and German fleet off Cartagena, suddenly turned up again as the leader of the insurgent forces inside the town. Within the last few days despatches have been sent over the Cable announcing a sort of understanding between the Carlists and the Communists or Intransigentes. It is difficult to guess what this means, but the news was telegraphed as if the sender of the despatches desired to produce the impression that the causes of Socialism and Carlism were become identified with one another—an important change if the inference were correct. How little probability there really is in the suggestion of this alliance (apart from the fact that the Carlists are at one end of Spain, and the Intransigentes at the other, separated by hostile forces), is made very evident in the letter of an English correspondent, who describes himself as "in search of Don Carlos," and writes from Navarre, under date of August 17. He says that the assertions of the journalistic supporters of the Madrid Government, that the Royalist army is commanded "by the dregs of the nation," is utterly untrue, and that, "as a rule," the "captains and subalterns of the King's forces are socially, as well as intellectually, superior to the mass of the Government officers, who were often only corporals and sergeants in the time of Amadeo and Isabella." The most important part of the letter, however, is that in which the correspondent describes the "deeply religious" character of the men who compose the rank and file of the Carlist forces. He says that he had an opportunity of seeing the 5th Battalion of Navarre paraded for mass. The regiment had not as yet been provided with uniforms, and officers and soldiers dressed according to their fancy. "Sashes of different colors and hues; caps of every shape and form, with long tassels, sometimes reaching half-way to the waist; daggers and pistols of old-fashioned workmanship, even before the date of percussion locks; some men with shoes, others with *alpargatas* or sandals; and here and there an officer in jack-boots and an attire which reminded me of one of Poole's smoking suits—such was the scene which presented itself to my view." But the most striking thing was the devout attention with which these soldiers followed the services, and repeated "like one man the guttural, deep-toned responses"—gray-haired men and women and young children stand about; kneeling wives and *fiancées* praying for the safety of their husbands and lovers, mothers taking

perhaps the last look of their sons, while these receive the priest's benediction and exhortation to serve well their God, country, and king. At last the service is over, and the men come out of the church, a stern grim look on their countenances, "such as would well have become one of Cromwell's Ironsides, in the days when to kill a Cavalier was reckoned a saintly deed in the eyes of the Almighty." It is to the last degree improbable that any very entangling alliance will be made between the leaders of such troops as these and the gentlemen who have declared for war upon property, war upon religion, war upon God.

—The late ex-Duke of Brunswick ceased so long ago to have any connection with European politics, that his death chiefly attracts notice to his career as that of a remarkably eccentric and thoroughly bad, and probably mad, millionaire. His life was more ignominously irrational than that of the once celebrated Beckford, who, in a different class of life, and amid different surroundings, inherited equally fabulous wealth, and did nearly as little good with it. The father of the late Duke was the leader of the Black Brunswickers, familiar to readers of English literature from his appearance in 'Childe Harold,' who fell in the fight which preceded the battle of Waterloo, and his son, Charles Frederick Augustus William, succeeded to the government, being at first under the guardianship of the English Prince-Regent, afterwards George IV. He did not become his own or his subjects' absolute master, however, until 1823; and when he did, he soon ran through his patrimony, so far as it consisted of his right to govern the Duchy of Brunswick; in 1830, his subjects expelled him with ignominy so well merited that his expulsion was approved by the Germanic Diet, and his brother, the present Duke, succeeded to the government. From this time forward he wandered about Europe, living first for a long time in London, where he earned a social reputation quite as unenviable as his political. He had, however, a million pounds a year, and at first the doors of every court in Europe were open to him, although his startling immoralities led to his exclusion both from the English Court and (what must have been harder still) from the Tuileries, where the intimate friend of his youth, Prince Louis Bonaparte, was installed as Napoleon III. Still nobody could take away his money except those whom he permitted, and he was soon fastened upon as the legitimate prey of the whole circle of impostors. He grew suspicious, and at last hypochondriacal, imagining his steps to be dogged by burglars and by murderers who intended to compass his death by poison; he insisted even on his dinner being served in locked dishes, and on this account as well as others his denunciations of the popular movement, and of the storm by which he had been expelled from Brunswick, did not attract that degree of attention which he felt they deserved. He had one taste—an interest in ballooning, was an accomplished epicure, and had the finest jewels in Europe. He managed during his vagabond career to build up a reputation for shameless vice that was colossal in its proportions, and now has died at Geneva, leaving his huge fortune to strangers.

THE STUDY OF ROMAN LAW.*

SIR WILLIAM BLACKSTONE, who represented the common average culture, learning, habits of thought, and science—or rather, want of science—of the English Bar at the time when he wrote, repeatedly expresses his contempt for the Roman or Civil Law, which was known to him only in the *Corpus Juris* and not in its early and ruder form, and exhibits alike his ignorance of its principles and the blindness of his prejudices by drawing unfavorable contrasts between it and the common law of England, often in particulars and instances where his assumption of superiority is so absurd that it is hard to believe he is speaking seriously. The school of which Blackstone was the fit representative has, however, passed away, or is at least rapidly passing away in England. The teachings of Bentham, although laughed at by his contemporaries, have produced their effects in our own times, and among his disciples were some who excelled their master in knowledge, in science, and in judgment, if not in boldness and in power of denunciation. Chief among these was Austin; and there can be no doubt that his lectures, originally delivered before a small though rare audience, which included many of the present judges and leading barristers and most of the writers upon politics who have since educated the public thought and moulded the public opinion, have revolutionized the study of jurisprudence both as a science and as an art in England. These lectures, afterwards published in an incomplete form, and the 'Ancient Law' of Prof. Maine, one of Austin's audience, are perhaps more original, thoughtful, and suggestive than any other works upon juridical science that have appeared for several years, even from the scholars of Germany or France; and they are in part an illustration and proof of a statement which we here make—but which the limits of this essay do not permit us to demonstrate in full—that jurists educated in England and under the influence of the English institutions are better fitted by their national experience and special learning than are the Continental jurists to comprehend the Roman law as a whole, to appreciate its earlier methods, and to catch and express both the spirit and the form of its development. This statement would doubtless excite a smile in the lecture-room of a German university professor of law, but the single consideration we have time and space to offer will prove its truth.

Although the two systems, the Roman and the English, have generally been regarded as antagonistic, and although there are, from certain historical causes, broad marks of difference and even contrast which distinguish them, and which at once strike the attention of the superficial observer—notably the two classes of things and of property therein, real and personal, according to the English law—yet, in fact, no other systems have or can have so many analogies and even so many absolute identities of thought, fundamental conception, spirit, form, method, progress, and results of development as they. For this reason, as the Roman is necessary to explain by comparison the English, so in the same manner and perhaps to a greater extent is the English necessary to explain the Roman and to clear up many obscurities in it which, to the Continental jurists educated in practical ignorance of the English method, have appeared inexplicable, or for which they have offered wrong solutions. Of course we do not mean that in all the details of positive practical rules there was any identity; but we mean that there was this identity in the essential conditions of the two systems in the earliest period of each, in their gradual working out from that period, in their manner and form of creating new law and of throwing off the old, and in their method of keeping abreast with the progressing civilization, so that the law should be at once the principal motive power and the most accurate index of that progress. The one central point of this identity is the fact that in both systems, in the Roman and the English alike, the great law-creating function for a long period of time resided, not in the legislative bodies, technically so-called, but in the courts. For centuries among the Romans as among the English, the chief work of legislation, the immense progress made in building up the structure of positive jurisprudence, and in fashioning it to meet the wants of society, was done by the judicial magistrates, by the Roman Pretors, and by the English courts; while the function of the legislation, technically so-called, of the *leges* and the *plebiscita* at Rome, and the statutes in England, was to supplement this judicial creation by occasional additions, and sometimes by sudden and sharp changes when the slower and gradual method of the magistrates was not equal to the emergency. This truth the Continental jurists, familiar only with courts whose sole power is expository and administrative, have found it difficult to comprehend and impossible to appreciate fully with all its wealth of results. Some of them have denied that any creative authority ever existed in the Roman magistrates, and have even declared that the Pretorian edict, which in the interval between the Twelve Tables and the Emperors had changed the practical character of the national system, was an usurpation, and utterly illegal. Even those better-informed writers among the Germans and the French who have perceived and admitted the legislative authority of the Pretors have failed to comprehend it in its fulness, and to understand the form and condition of a national jurisprudence which must of necessity flow from such a source. If we turn to England, we find that Blackstone and many others who blindly copied him invented the fiction that the law had always existed as it is, and that the judges, in some unexplained manner, knowing or discovering it, have simply announced it as occasion demanded to the expectant suitors and to the world; and this theory long prevailed among a class of writers upon the English Constitution and Government. Bentham, with his keen vision for shams, exposed the absurdity of this conception. He saw, what is a historical fact which admits of no denial, that the vast mass of English jurisprudence was the law of judicial decision; and opposing that jurisprudence as he did, and wrongly attributing all its faults to the nature of its origin, he condemned what he contemptuously termed "judge-made law" as essentially vicious. His more profoundly learned disciple, Austin, with better knowledge, broader views, and more scientific insight, saw that the law of judicial decision was absolutely necessary in every free and progressive society—necessary to any full and free development. The Romans, even during the period of the Republic, and while the arbitrary and aristocratic ideas of the Patriciate still influenced the private as well as the public law, understood that the judicial function in a progressive state necessarily involved that of creating as well as that of expounding and applying the law. They first, perhaps, of any peoples, and certainly more clearly than any other, conceived of the state as an organic unit possessed of an absolute power and authority, to which they gave the high and comprehensive name of *imperium*. Imperium represented to them

* 'Introduction to Roman Law. In Twelve Academical Lectures. By James Hadley, LL.D., late Professor of Greek Literature in Yale College.' New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1873.

the absolute political and governmental power, of which the highest exercise was the creation of law. With this conception, they always spoke of the Pretors as possessing this *imperium*, and as thus having an equally absolute legislative function with the assemblies of the people, although, for certain reasons peculiar to their original theory of the entire national organization, they give different names to the products of the two law-making sources, the one being *lex*, or *leges*, and the other *jus*. Starting from this central point of identity, we might show the identity of form and method of development running through centuries of the Roman and the English legal history; the early *legis actiones* and subsequent *formulæ* of the one, and the actions at law of the other; the use of fictions to evade and gradually to break down positive rules that were arbitrary and unjust; the invention of new remedies, and the admission of new defences; the extraordinary jurisdiction of the Pretor, and the equitable jurisdiction of the Court of Chancery; the pretorian edict, and the reported judgments of the courts, each building up a continuous and connective body of law, until finally in Rome the work of further development was taken up by the Imperial constitutions, as in England it has been during the present generation taken up by Parliamentary statutes. To explain and establish this parallelism would be interesting and we think instructive, but would far exceed the limits of a single review.

We have said that Austin's teachings had revolutionized the study of jurisprudence in England. This is partly shown by the attention now paid to the Roman law. Instead of being neglected and unknown, it has become a favorite subject of investigation, and forms a considerable element in the system of legal education now pursued by candidates for admission to the bar. A number of valuable works have recently appeared, translations with notes of the 'Institutes,' an annotated edition of Gaius, and general treatises intended to furnish, in a comprehensive form, the results of German thought and research. In fact, a sort of excitement, perhaps feverish, and perhaps healthy in respect to a broader and more scientific preparatory training, seems to have seized the legal profession. This excitement has certainly not reached across the Atlantic and disturbed the quiet or interfered with the business of American lawyers. To most of them the Roman law exists only as a name. They once read Blackstone's sneers; they afterwards glowed in sympathy with Chancellor Kent's and Judge Story's general eulogiums; they probably have sometimes looked with curiosity, ungratified, however, at the latter's long quotations in Latin from the writings of ancient commentators; and there their knowledge of the subject ended. The condition of those who are preparing to enter the bar is not different. We have many law-schools, some with able faculties and crowded with students; at none of them is the Roman law taught as a part of the regular and required course, and we doubt whether it is *taught* at any of them as an optional or elective study. The statement must be made broader and stronger still. At no American law-school is jurisprudence taught as a science in the prescribed order of instruction—taught, we mean, as in the German universities and in the schools lately established in the English Inns of Court. Previous to these lectures of Prof. Hadley, we are not aware of any other work by an American author relating solely to the Roman law, except an essay upon 'Bracton and his Relations to the Roman Law,' excellently translated from the German, with valuable notes by Mr. Brinton Coxe, of Philadelphia. It may be that the awakened interest and new zeal of the English Bar will excite emulation among their brethren in the United States, and that Prof. Hadley and a few other professors like him will be imitated in all the American colleges. There are reasons to us very cogent and convincing why the Roman law should be made, not only a necessary part of the higher professional education, but also, in connection with a group of kindred subjects which may receive the common designation of politics, a part of the higher general education furnished by the college or university.

The law of England, of the United States, and, in fact, of any civilized country possessing a continuous history, is so much a growth that the existing practical rules of to-day cannot be fully understood, even from a purely business point of view, without a knowledge of their origin and of the successive changes which have ended in their present forms. It is possible, perhaps, to conceive of a code enacted and imposed upon a people *uno flatu*, which should have no connection with the history of that people; but it is not possible to conceive of such a code which should not have a connection with the history of *some* people. A moral philosopher may imagine a system of jurisprudence based upon and embodying only the principles of pure ethics, which, abstractly considered, must be the same in all times and all places; but there is not, and never was, and never can be such a system. Two other elements besides the ethical must of necessity enter into every national jurisprudence, and these are, first, matters referable solely to the national institutions, to the tribal and ethnic customs of the people; and, secondly, matters referable solely to considerations of expediency. The first of these elements is, in the earliest stages of the development, invariably the predominant one; it differentiates the system from all others, and it is marked by arbitrariness, formality, and want of *moral* character. The subsequent development largely consists in the gradual restriction and removal of this element, but it can never be wholly eradicated; its influence will continue to be felt amidst all the equitable reforms, as long as the people retains its own race, life, and vigor. This inevitable condition of growth is illustrated throughout the whole history of the English and of the Roman law, and these two systems, above all others, exhibit a continuous individuality, a natural and necessary succession, from their primitive and rudest period to the consummation of the one under Justinian, and to the present epoch in the vigorous life of the other. It is impossible to understand the rules contained in the *Corpus Juris* without a knowledge of the methods by which they became established, and of the changes through which they passed—methods and changes which operated from the decemviral legislation of the Twelve Tables to the imperial legislation of Justinian. In the same manner and for the same reason, it is impossible to understand the practical rules of the English law to-day without a similar study which shall extend back to the Saxon period.

The object of such a study is twofold. It may be, in the most popular sense of the word, practical, with the sole design of promoting success in the lawyer's professional business. On the other hand, it may have a higher and nobler design. The lawyer is in a direct manner answerable for the present and future condition of the national jurisprudence; as advocate, he gives a direction to the legal development wrought out by the judges, and he may create and guide the public opinion which shall control the legislature. If the bar of a state have a philosophical conception and scientific knowledge of jurisprudence, then the jurisprudence of that state will inevitably assume a philosophical and scientific, and therefore in the highest degree a practical, form and character. If the study of the English law is pursued with either of these objects in view, it involves, in order to be thorough and complete, a study of the Roman law. The American lawyer, merely from the lower grade of motives alluded to, becomes familiar as a matter of course with the writings of Coke and Blackstone; but, in fact, the elements which were at an early day derived from the Roman law have remained more permanent, and now form a more considerable part of our living system than the doctrines and rules discussed and set forth by Coke, which, although termed by him "the perfection of human reason," were in the highest degree arbitrary, and have long been abandoned. The reason of this is obvious. The portions borrowed from the *Corpus Juris* were the results of a thousand years' experience, and were based upon unchanging foundations of right and equity, while most of the practical rules elaborated by Coke were based upon customs which have disappeared in an advancing civilization. The 'Institutes' of Justinian contain more which is now obligatory as a part of the law of New York than is to be found in all the voluminous writings of Lord Coke. It is universally conceded that in modern times the English Chancellor, while developing the doctrine of trusts, and Lord Mansfield and his successors, while enlarging the scope of the mercantile and maritime law, made large draughts from the inexhaustible supplies of the *Corpus Juris;* but it is not generally known how important a Roman element was grafted upon the rough English stock under the early Norman kings. The earliest compendium of the English law was the treatise of Bracton, 'De Legibus et Consuetudinibus Angliæ,' written probably between the years 1256 and 1259. The work of Glanville, about seventy years earlier (1190), made no attempt to give the whole law as a system; it was simply a book of forms and of procedure, and its references to the substantial rules of right were meagre and incidental. In Bracton, however, we find the entire body of the private law arranged in an independent, and, for the times, a highly scientific order and method. The antecedent influence of the Roman law is shown in many ways; partly in the classification which was suggested by, though not blindly copied from, the 'Institutes,' and partly by the use of the Roman technical terms. It should be noticed, also, that this early incorporation was made into the common law as distinguished from equity; for there is not the slightest trace in Bracton of the peculiar equitable jurisdiction of the Chancellor, which was developed at a later day, and was so plainly copied from a Roman model that the Continental writers see in him alone the English analogue of the Roman Pretor.

The scientific effects, however, of a general study of the Roman law upon the legal profession in the United States would at present be far more valuable than its immediate practical benefit to individuals. The private jurisprudence of the several States has lamentably degenerated during the past twenty years—a result due, without doubt, to a weakening of the courts in ability and character. There are, of course, noble exceptions, but on the whole the American judiciary has declined in scientific legal culture and in commanding personal force since the method of popular elections became so widely prevalent. It is very evident also that we have arrived at

an epoch when the further work of legal development must be taken up and carried forward by the legislatures rather than by the courts. The attention of the ablest and most thoughtful jurists and statesmen has for the last twenty years been directed to this subject in England, and Parliament has already made changes that leave very little of that old common law which was described by Blackstone. During the past summer, a bill has been perfected in Parliament which consolidates all the superior courts, and goes far to abolish the distinction between law and equity. It is very apparent that in a few years England will follow the example of the great Continental nations, and will reduce its private jurisprudence to a codified form. The work of legal reform, which is as much needed in this country as in England, is one which demands the highest and broadest culture—a culture which cannot be obtained by any new professional experience, however varied and successful, but comes from the thoughtful study of what may be called comparative jurisprudence. In the Roman law is to be found an example of completed scientific methods and perfected scientific results. It would not be possible to borrow largely from its positive rules, but any legislator who would be fitted for the task of reshaping the jurisprudence of a state must be imbued with its spirit. For this reason, any attempt to awaken an interest in its study either as a part of professional or general education, and any opportunity given for that study either in law-schools or colleges, must be welcomed as an additional element of a high scientific culture.

The little work of Prof. Hadley affords such an opportunity, and may awaken such an interest. It consists of lectures regularly given for several years before his death to the senior class of Yale College, and is therefore primarily designed rather for general than for professional students. Assuming no previous knowledge of the law, hardly taking it for granted that the reader is acquainted with even the leading facts of Roman history or the leading features of the Roman polity, it gives an outline or sketch of the Roman juridical system in a manner remarkably clear and simple. The first lecture describes the *Corpus Juris*, its compilation under the direction of Justinian, its parts, contents, and external character. In the second, the position of the Roman law after Justinian and during the middle ages, and its influence upon modern nations, are briefly told. The third and fourth lectures contain a history of its growth from the Twelve Tables to the codifications of Justinian, with a somewhat minute explanation of the earlier procedure and the curious and arbitrary forms which prevailed in the ruder periods of the Republic. Passing then from this external and internal history, the author takes up the substantial rules of private rights, and assigns two lectures to each of the following subjects: Personal Status and the Family Relations, Property, Obligations, and Inheritance. In this statement of substantial rights, Prof. Hadley does not restrict himself to the law as it finally appeared in the *Corpus Juris*, but attempts rather to sketch each of these four divisions in its historical entirety extending through a space of a thousand years.

Admirable an introduction to the Roman law as these lectures are, it was inevitable from their plan that they should convey to the students who heard them or who may read them an exceedingly erroneous impression upon many important points, and that without any actual errors of statement. We say this was inevitable, for in such an outline covering so much ground the element of time is practically left out. The reader, unless he has knowledge from other sources, will not separate the period of the early Republic from the period of Adrian or of Alexander Severus, and will confound the rude and arbitrary doctrines and procedure of the one with the culture and equity of the other. If we were disposed to criticise the author's method, we should say that he has occupied himself too much with minute details, and has failed to seize and expose to the student great principles, and especially the great principles of a national legal development which are shown so clearly in the Roman law, and to draw the large comparisons between it and our own jurisprudence which would be so instructive to the educated American citizen. In thus occupying his time and space with details and somewhat minute rules, he has been forced to omit many of the most striking features which present the strongest analogies between the Roman system and our own. Thus not a word is said of equity or of the Pretor's extraordinary jurisdiction, in which, as in England, side by side with what we may call the common law, he built up an overshadowing structure of equitable doctrines, until finally both were united, and the law and the procedure became wholly equitable. We think also that he fails to assign to the Pretor throughout the whole history of the legal development his proper function and work of creating the law, and unduly subordinates him to the jurisconsults. But with all of these defects, or rather omissions, the book is most admirable, and we would gladly place it in the hands of every law student and college senior. If Prof. Hadley had lived, he would doubtless have referred to the authorities and contemporaneous writers, American and foreign, from whom he evidently took some of his views.

FORNEY'S 'ANECDOTES.'*

THE reader of this volume will probably lay it down with the opinion, first, that there is exceedingly little in it, and, secondly, that whatever else Mr. Forney is, he is an exceedingly good-natured person. Except some familiar and not very scorching indignation, which reads much like "copy" as old as 1863, against the most notorious and universally condemned of the secessionist leaders, Mr. Forney is highly civil to every distinguished gentleman and scholar in the whole book except the late Mr. Buchanan and the still living Mr. Simon Cameron; and to these two statesmen he is by no means immitigably severe. If Mr. Buchanan is false to his pledges and his party on one page, on another he is at all events a man of polished manners, and one who knows how to keep a secret. On page 183 he is weak and timid, and on page 182 he has a slight cast in his eye; but we need only turn to page 319 for an opportunity of contemplating him as an honest, an estimable man, "of exact business habits." Or we can go back, if we like, to page 62, and praise his excellent dinners and those anecdotes which he used to tell with such effect. Not very exciting anecdotes they were, we may remark, if we are to take for a sample of them the one with which Mr. Forney favors us. He last heard it, he says, at the Sunday-evening dinner-table of Mr. John T. Sullivan, "one of the most interesting and genial of gentlemen, known and beloved alike at the nation's capital and in Philadelphia." It is as follows: In 1834, Mr. Buchanan, then just home from his ministerial residence at St. Petersburg, called upon General Jackson for the purpose of introducing to him a fair English lady who wished to see the President. Arrived at the White House, Mr. Buchanan, not without wisdom in his generation, left the fair English lady in a downstairs reception-room, and cautiously slipped up to General Jackson's private room, where he found that gentleman sitting before the fire smoking a corn-cob pipe. Of all the courts in Europe, the Imperial Court of St. Petersburg is perhaps the stateliest; and Mr. Buchanan, fresh from that school of politeness, was no little alarmed at the unshaven, dirty-faced, and generally unkempt appearance of the chief magistrate. In his perturbation of mind, he ventured to ask the Old Warrior if he did not intend to change his attire before giving audience to the stranger. He was briefly informed that the President knew his own business, and that the lady could see him presently. Upon this hint, "the man who became President in 1856"—which certainly is one way of calling a man Buchanan—had the presence of mind to walk downstairs and rejoin his lovely charge. In a very few minutes President Jackson entered, cleanly shaved, his hair brushed, his coat, pantaloons, and waistcoat all of black cloth, and, "advancing to the beautiful Britisher, he saluted her with almost kingly grace." English as she was, she exclaimed to Mr. Buchanan, as she left the White House, "Your Republican President is the royal model of a gentleman," and, as Mr. Buchanan confessed, he never after forgot the lesson then taught him of the superiority of democratic dignity to the false dignity of European courts. Reading this history—and the book is filled with similar things, related with the same "foolish face of praise"—we see again the dinner-table of the late interesting and genial Mr. John T. Sullivan; we see the late Sullivan himself; the polished Buchanan tells us about the corn-cob pipe, and we all admire; we see Mr. Forney listening; perhaps we see Mr. Forney's friend, "the popular and witty Dr. W. P. Reyburn of New Orleans, his broad face aglow and his large mouth streaming with tobacco"; and next to him, "winning and magnetic Jack Ogle," with his song of "Jeannette and Jeannot," or Edwin Forrest, who is waiting to recite after dinner "The Idiot Boy" for the gratification of the company, and who generally leaves not a dry eye in the room. It is the social and political Washington of a quarter of a century ago—assuredly, of all the inhabited cities of men the dreariest, and assuredly losing nothing of its depressing capacity in a chronicle like this.

If "the man who became President in 1856" is certainly let off easily by Mr. Forney, Mr. Cameron fares still better, as, indeed, some ought to have expected. For there is rather more than a possibility that our author's curious paraphrastical way of mentioning Mr. Buchanan may not be merely a rhetorical adornment. It may refer dimly to a gentleman unnamed, who, seventeen years ago, by falsifying the vote of Pennsylvania in the October election, fraudulently secured the Presidency for a candidate who otherwise would have been defeated. Still, the politeness with which Mr. Cameron is treated is noticeable. We are not denied a glimpse of him as he

* 'Anecdotes of Public Men. By John W. Forney.' New York: Harper & Brothers. 1873.

appears when engaged in the subdolous practices in which common fame makes him an expert; but it is only a glimpse that we get, and a distant one. To appreciate fully the malleability and kindness of Mr. Forney's disposition, the reader of this portion of the 'Anecdotes' ought to have access to the files of the Philadelphia *Press* of thirteen or fourteen months ago, in the days when Mr. Forney had just been "crying halt," to use Mr. Greeley's description of his friend's conduct at that juncture, and was telling the Administration the true character of Mr. Cameron. In the book itself that gentleman is not precisely an Israelite in whom there is no guile; but in the newspaper the entire ten lost tribes were not more lost than the abandoned and corrupt Winnebago chief; and it comes on the reader with the effect of perplexed surprise to learn that Mr. Cameron is only a friend with whom, in the early summer of 1841, Mr. Forney took a delightful drive from Middletown to Reading, by way of Pottsville, and who afterwards in 1861 urged that the slaves of rebels should be enlisted as Federal soldiers. No one would suppose from the 'Anecdotes' that Mr. Forney knew any anecdotes about a gentleman who, on an occasion when Mr. Forney felt certain of going to the Senate, effected some little transactions which resulted in Mr. Cameron's going instead, and whose whole long political career is generally asserted to have had for its object, not power, nor reputation, nor pleasure in political activity, but for the most part money. Mr. Forney says in his dedicatory preface that Mr. Daniel Dougherty of Philadelphia knows the motive which led Mr. Forney to speak "generously and impartially" of all the public men of whom his volume was to speak, but it must be a puzzle to most people outside of the circle of Mr. Dougherty's intimate acquaintance. Or is it that a somewhat amiable, somewhat profligate easiness of disposition, unbraced by convictions of any kind, has allowed the whole being to sink into the pool of practical politics, and the practical politics of Pennsylvania and Washington at that, and to become subdued to what it works? The book seems to us to illustrate this condition of the American man. More of force, either of honesty or of ill-temper, would have made it highly readable. What the author's opportunities have been we all know. From the time of Franklin Pierce to the time of Hartranft and Yerkes, he has for many years been, if not a leader in the host, a door-keeper at least in the tents of Kedar, and has been allowed to know much of the secret history of parties. He has, however, preferred to make an almost utterly vapid register of nothings, and he has done it in such a way as to convince one that he has taken the correct measure of his abilities as an observer.

An Historical Account of the Expedition against Sandusky under Col. William Crawford, in 1782. By C. W. Butterfield. (Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. 1873.)—This expedition technically took place during the Revolution, but Cornwallis had surrendered more than seven months before it set out, the British Government had determined to abandon the struggle, and hostilities between the opposing regular armies were virtually at an end. On the western frontier, on the contrary, the Indian allies of the British were never more menacing, partly because they were studiously deceived as to the successes of the Americans, partly as the result of direct instigation. It suited the British calculations to maintain by terror a boundary which should limit as much as possible the territory whose independence would have to be acknowledged. The same policy prevailed at Detroit as on the Penobscot, and the same savage instruments were employed. Crawford's expedition was the latest of several whose object was to punish the Indians in their chief settlements under British protection, and so cause them to retire beyond easy striking distance of the scattered white settlements in Western Pennsylvania and Virginia, and here and there in Kentucky and Ohio. It lasted but twenty days (May 25–July 14). Its commander, who had the highest reputation for humanity and probity, as well as for skill in Indian warfare, was captured and tormented to death at the stake, and several of his associates either shared like torture or escaped miraculously the doom for which they were marked. The survivors retreated with difficulty, and their return not only brought widespread grief to all the border, but inspired the most dismal anticipations, which happily were not fulfilled, though many years were to elapse before the victory and treaty by which General Wayne removed from the Northwest of that day all dread of savage incursions. Mr. Butterfield's account is based upon one or two printed narratives of the survivors of Crawford's expedition, and upon the original papers of General William Irvine, the contemporary commander of the Western Department, whose aide, a Russian nobleman incognito, was detailed to accompany Crawford, and proved extremely useful on the retreat. It is demonstrated past doubt that the expedition was a legitimate piece of aggressive defence, duly organized and authorized as a part of the regular service, and having the approval of General Irvine and of Washington, who were in constant correspondence. Probably there never would have been any other character assigned to it but for the unfortunate circumstance that the second in command was Col. David Williamson, who had been concerned some months before in a massacre of Moravian Indians on the Muskingum (the Gnadenhütten affair); and as Crawford's line of march took him through the villages which an Indian raid from Sandusky and subsequently the Williamson massacre had made deserted, it was assumed by the missionaries that the chief if not the sole object of the expedition was to destroy the small remainder of Christian Indians who had been forcibly transplanted to the Sandusky. Not a shadow of any such motive appears in the official correspondence and orders pertaining to the expedition, and still less do they countenance the language which the Moravian historians employ in designating Crawford and his company as a "gang of murderers" and "banditti," identical with that which had perpetrated the previous massacre. Mr. Butterfield is extremely candid in combating this partisan view, quoting in full the passages in which the missionaries give their version of the design and providential fate of the expedition, and leaving the reader to form his own judgment with the help of the facts set forth on the other side. He succeeds perfectly in confuting the Moravian theory, and exposes errors of every degree of importance in the Moravian record of the incidents of the defeat and rout. The latest work which has adopted both the theory and (to some extent) the errors, is De Schweinitz's 'Life and Times of David Zeisberger,' a work which in general is only deserving of praise. As it is not necessary to paint our forefathers, in their dealings with the Indians, blacker than they were, the reading of Mr. Butterfield's account may be recommended to those who have received the Moravian view from De Schweinitz or from Heckewelder direct.

Mr. Butterfield's history is straightforward in manner, and apparently exhausts the subject, except for biography, into which, however, he goes largely and always entertainingly. We think he would have left a more distinct impression on the reader's mind if he had first given a graphic relation of the military movement, and then followed it with the illustrative matter which now appears as digressions rather injurious to the main effect. The book is handsomely printed, as Mr. Clarke's publications are sure to be, and has an excellent index.

Outlines of Men, Women, and Things. By Mary Clemmer Ames. (New York: Hurd and Houghton; Cambridge: The Riverside Press. 1873.)—The 'Men and Women' some of whose outlines are given by Mrs. Ames are Charles Sumner, the Grand Duke Alexis, Margaret Fuller, Fanny Fern, Horace Greeley, Edwin Forrest, Lola Montez, and Madame Guizot. The 'Things' are of all kinds, from Woman Suffrage and the Fallen Man to Indian Summer in Virginia and a Rainy Morning in the Country. The title of the book is an instance of what Mr. Browning, in his recent poem, 'Red Cotton Night-Cap Country,' calls "happy nomenclature." It is not a collection of serious labored essays. When Mrs. Ames outlines a man or a woman or a thing, she does it with a light touch, her mastery of which indicates, to be sure, that she can see if she chooses as far below the surface as any one; now and then, indeed, she takes us below the surface with her, as in the chapter called the "Fallen Man," but even after a descent into the depths of this disagreeable but nevertheless magnetic subject, we come up smiling, for though it seems that "Fallen Man" is a pretty low character, man himself is noble, Mrs. Ames declaring that "neither the history of polygamy or of monogamy, Campbell's 'Philosophy of Marriage' or Lecky's 'History of European Morals,' or the history of the whole life of man in every race and through every age from the beginning of the world till now, can make her believe that man created in the image of God, man immortal as his sire, man the head of all human intelligence, through all his earthly life is at best but little more than a bundle of blind instincts and of lawless appetites, at whose mercy he is, which he is as powerless to control as the beast at his feet." As Mrs. Ames is apparently a believer in woman suffrage, this is a concession for which the "unfair sex" ought to be grateful. Of her lighter style "Northern Vermont in August" is a good specimen. In Northern Vermont in August "it is heavenly to 'loaf,'" and though, as Mrs. Ames says, "it is not much to tell about," still "all the Aunt Jemimas in creation might croak around me about my waste of time, all the same I'd cultivate my bugs [*i.e.*, bugs and 'things']—pretty field bugs that live in the grass are such delightful society compared with tedious people." In this suggestion of the sensations produced by lying in the grass, and making the acquaintance of the field bugs and "things," Mrs. Ames has certainly struck a new vein, which, considering the great variety of sensations which it would be possible to produce, and the zest given to it by the extreme danger of the occupation in some latitudes, might be worked with great advantage as long as the essayist survived. On the whole, we may say that Mrs. Ames not merely disarms criticism, but defies perusal as well.

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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

SEPTEMBER 8.

THE week in Wall Street has been quite eventful, the principal features having been the collapse of the "gold corner"; the numerous rumors of trouble among speculators in the Gold-room; the activity in money; and, finally, the very unfavorable bank statement on Saturday.

The money market became active towards the close of the week. The rates kept down to 7 per cent. coin until Friday, when one-sixteenth and interest was paid in a few cases. The demand of the gold clique for money with which to carry their gold was the reason for the advance in the rate to a premium, and this demand continued for a time on Saturday. The increased demand for money in the form of loans upon stock collaterals had the effect of "stiffening" rates upon commercial paper, which we quote 9 to 12 per cent., having from sixty days to four months to run. On Saturday there was very little sale for paper, in consequence of the bad outlook for money, as reflected by the bank statement published early in the afternoon.

Cable advices report a decrease of £18,000 in bullion in the Bank of England for the week. The bank rate remains unchanged at 3 per cent. The Bank of France loses 1,000,000 francs in specie.

The bank statement for the week ending September 5 is very unfavorable. It is hard to account for the large loss of legal tenders, unless the greater part of them are "locked up." The shipments to the West "to move the crops" have undoubtedly been large, but not sufficiently so as to cause a loss of $6,049,400 legal tenders in one week. By the statement which we publish below, it will be seen that the total loss in reserve is $7,377,600, while the total liabilities have only decreased $7,544,000. The loss in surplus reserve to the banks is $5,491,600, and leaves it now standing $414,850, against $5,906,450 last week. The National banks, however, are stronger than the statement causes them to appear, as it is made up to include several large State banks. Separating the National from the State banks, we find that the former hold a surplus of $1,400,750, and that the latter are $989,900 short of the 25 per cent. reserve which the National banks are required to keep in legal tenders and specie against their liabilities.

The following are the statements for the past two weeks:

	August 30.	September 6.	Differences.
Loans	$288,883,000	$288 374,200	Dec. $508 800
Specie	23,095,200	21,767.000	Dec. 1,328 200
Circulation	27.281.900	27,355.500	Inc. 73 600
Deposits	220,390,300	212,772,700	Dec. 7.617.600
Legal Tenders	44,729,300	38,679,900	Dec. 6,049,400

The following shows the relation between the total reserve and the total liabilities:

	August 30.	September 6.	Differences.
Specie	$23,095,200	$21,767.000	Dec. $1,328,200
Legal tenders	44,729,300	38,679,900	Dec. 6,049,400
Total reserve	$67,824,500	$60,446,900	Dec $7,377.600
Circulation	27.281,900	27,355,500	Inc. 73.600
Deposits	220,390,300	212,772,700	Dec. 7,617,600
Total liabilities	$247,672,200	$240,128,200	Dec. $7,544,000
25 per cent. reserve	61,918,050	60,032 050	
Excess over legal reserve	5,906,450	414,850	Dec. 5,491,600

The following table separates the National from the State banks:

	National.	State.	Total.
Loans	$247,973,300	$40,400.900	$288.374,200
Specie	19,935,900	1,831.100	21.767,000
Legal tenders	33,993 600	4,686,300	38,679.900
Deposits	183,775.700	29,997.000	212.772,700
Circulation	27,323,300	32,200	27 355,500
Percentage of reserve to total liabilities	25 67-100 p.c.	21 70-100 p.c.	25 17-100 p.c.

The stock market early in the week gave signs of yielding, and a very unsettled feeling existed. The market fell off towards the close of the week, and on Saturday prices had settled down from 1 to 5 per cent. on the entire list of speculative stocks. The greatest decline took place in Wabash, which, after leading at a premium of one per cent. for its use, and selling at 70¼ on Wednesday, dropped to 65½ Saturday. The leading "bear" in the market is Mr. Jay Gould, who, when out of his troubles in the Gold-room, turned his attention to stock, and apparently with better effect than he has had in gold. He is said to be more deeply interested in, and his efforts have been chiefly directed in trying to depress, the price of Western Union Telegraph, which at the close of the week shows a falling off of nearly 3 per cent. from the highest quotations on Monday.

The following shows the highest and lowest sales of the leading stocks at the Stock Exchange for the week ending September 6, 1873:

	Monday.	Tuesday.	Wed'day.	Thursday	Friday.	Saturday.	Sales.
N. Y. C. & H. R.	104½ 105¼	104⅝ 105	104⅝ 105¼	104½ 104⅝	104¼ 104½	103⅜ 104⅜	33,700
Lake Shore	92¼ 93	92⅝ 92⅞	92½ 94	92 92⅝	91⅝ 92⅜	91 91⅜	85,400
Erie	59½ 59⅞	58⅝ 59¼	59¼ 59¾	58⅞ 59⅜	58⅜ 59⅜	58⅜ 58⅝	50,800
Do. pfd	 73	72½	73	.... 72⅞	.... 72⅜	....	....
Union Pacific	26½ 27½	26½ 26¾	26⅝ 26⅞	26½ 26⅜	25⅝ 26⅛	25⅝ 26⅛	36,700
Chi. & N. W.	64⅜ 64¾	64½	....	61½ 63	60⅝ 61½	59¼ 61¼	2,300
Do. pfd	81½ 82½	81¼	.... 82½	80	....	79 79¼	500
N. J. Central	102 103	102 102½	102 102¾	101¾ 102¼	.... 102½	....	300
Rock Island	108¼ 108¾	108¾	108¼ 108⅝	108¼ 108⅝	107⅞ 108¼	107 108	13,400
Mil. & St. Paul	50⅜ 50⅞	50⅜	51	49⅜ 50½	48 49⅜	45⅜ 48	21,700
Do. pfd	70½	70⅜ 70¾	70¼	70	68⅜ 69⅜	68¼ 69¾	1,500
Wabash	68½ 70	69 70	69 70¼	67¼ 69	66½ 67¼	65½ 67	49,200
D. L. & Western	100¼	100¼	100¼	100¼	99⅜ 100	....	1,500
B. H. & Erie	2⅜	2½ 2⅜	2½ 2⅜	2⅜ 2⅜	2¼	2⅜ 2⅜	700
O. & M.	38⅜ 39⅛	38⅛ 39⅛	38⅜ 39⅛	38¼ 38⅜	38 38⅛	37⅞ 38⅜	40 700
C. C. & I. C.	30⅜ 31½	31	30¼ 31	30¼ 30⅜	29⅜ 30½	29½ 30	7,000
W. U. Tel.	90⅜ 92⅛	91⅜ 91¼	91⅜ 92⅜	90⅜ 92	90½ 91¼	89½ 91¼	152,700
Pacific Mail	42¼ 44	43 43⅜	43½ 44¼	43¼ 44¼	42⅜ 43⅜	41⅜ 43½	102,400

The threatened gold corner has suddenly come to a termination, and the clique are understood to have sold out their gold and acknowledged themselves whipped. It was evident from the first that Gould was having uphill work in trying to advance the premium against the natural tendency towards a lower price, in consequence of the favorable state of our foreign exchanges and the prosperous outlook in trade generally for this country. The market opened on Monday at 115½, and advanced shortly afterwards to 116 and 116⅛. The price remained steady during Tuesday and Wednesday at 115¾ to 116⅛. The quotations of Thursday were lower, which was probably due to Gould's selling out. On Friday the realizing sales of the clique carried the premium down to 114½, and the market closed at 114⅝. On Saturday the price fell to 112⅞, and closed at 3 P.M. at 113⅛, with the market weak and drooping. There seems to be no doubt that the attempt to bull gold for the present is abandoned, that Gould has sold out, and that the losses of those engaged in the disreputable effort to ruin trade and cause disaster have been enormous.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 18, 1873.

The Week.

THE *Alabama* Claims were finally settled on Tuesday week, after twelve years of eventful controversy, by the payment to Mr. Fish by Sir Edward Thornton and Mr. Archibald of a certificate for $15,500,000 in gold, which was immediately converted into a United States bond of a similar amount, to await the action of Congress with regard to the distribution. On this point it is to be hoped something manly and straightforward will be done next session, under the influence of the purer breezes which seem to have begun to blow in politics. The transfer of the money has been effected very skilfully, and with little or no disturbance to the market.

The most singular delusion of the past year, and it has witnessed a good many, came to an end on Wednesday. The proprietors of the *Daily Graphic*, a new illustrated paper, partly comic and partly artistic, published in this city, have been for some months announcing the despatch of an enormous balloon, constructed at their own expense, across the Atlantic, on a "current" of air supposed by Professor Wise, the aeronaut, to flow constantly to the eastward at a certain altitude. The Professor himself was to command it, and it was to have a wonderful car, with a sailing-boat slung below it to provide for accidents in mid-ocean. That it was an advertising device, was patent from the beginning; that the balloon would never start, or, if it did, would descend at Nantucket or in New Jersey, was what the experience of mankind justified us all in believing. Nevertheless, the farce of preparation was kept up with great energy. Persons of distinction were invited in considerable numbers to cross the ocean in the car, but all declined, and, when the machine was ready, it was duly exhibited to paying visitors. It was then discovered that it had been improperly constructed; that the material was cheap and poor; that the aeronaut's advice had been disregarded in the manufacture; and that, in fact, there was no strong evidence whatever that it had ever been meant to quit the earth. It accordingly duly burst when it was about half full of gas, and after some thousands of dollars had been made by showing it. The whole performance was worthy of Barnum, and as the final collapse took place in the presence of a great crowd of spectators, it must rejoice Barnum to see how deep and strong the public gullibility continues to be. It is worth notice that a mock prospectus of a projected newspaper, published by *Punch* nearly twenty years ago, promised a weekly balloon ascent from the door of the office as one of the attractions of the new journal.

A meeting, rather thinly attended, of the merchants and others interested in the transportation problem, was held in this city on Wednesday week. A good many speeches were made, and a long string of resolutions passed. The speeches were mainly devoted to an exposition of the injury inflicted on the commerce of New York by the want of sufficient means of communication with the West, and by the bad management of the existing railroads and canals. There was a good deal of denunciation of "rings," "monopolists," and politicians of the kind now so common at the farmers' meetings in the West, but the most interesting feature in the proceedings of such a meeting was, of course, the remedy suggested for the evils so freely exposed. This, we regret to say, was not what one might have expected from a meeting of business-men. The resolutions are in the main composed of the well-known generalities of the political platform, and the sole suggestion having a practical air about it was an assertion that the production of the country requires the construction of double-track railways, exclusively for freight, across the continent. We now suggest that another meeting be held, at which the speakers be directed to answer the following questions fairly and squarely. Whence is the money to come to construct this railroad? If supplied by a joint-stock corporation, is it to own and manage the road? If so, will it be allowed to fix its own charges? If not, who will fix them? If fixed by Government, by what rule? Will they have to be such as always to enable the farmer to sell his products in New York at the market price, no matter how low that price may be? If the company loses by this, who will compensate the stockholders and assure them a fair interest on their capital? If the Government does so, will it not be by taxation for the benefit of a class? Why should we pay taxes to enable the Illinois farmer to get his corn cheaply to market any more than to enable him to buy crack ploughs or reapers, or cart it to the barn? In short, what *is* "the transportation problem" about which you talk so much? As you describe it thus far, does it not bear strong marks of being a branch of the ancient and larger problem, how to get money without working for it, or, in other words, how to live at other people's expense?

The *Tribune* has had another striking letter from its correspondent in the West, this time from St. Louis, expounding the farmers' grievances. In Missouri, he finds there is no complaint against the railroads at all; there, the cause of the farmers' woes, the reason why they have to work so hard and to mortgage their farms, is the existence of the national banks. In Iowa, on the other hand, it is not so much the railroads who trouble them as the middlemen, who buy up their produce, and into whose hands they say the railroads play. It begins to be very clear that if Congress protects the farmers against all their enemies—the railroads, the banks, the judges, the makers of agricultural implements, the carriage-makers and piano-makers, and the peddlers, who are now "devouring their substance"—the executive department of the Government will be kept pretty busy. Every farmer will have to have an official guardian to see that he sells his corn and pork dear, and buys his clothes and furniture and tools and justice cheap, and gets his money at low rates on poor security. It is a terrible pity that the cause of real and practical railroad reform should run the risk, which it now appears to run, of being smothered up and lost sight of in vague and visionary discontent. But we cannot help believing that after the first froth of the agitation has subsided, the limits of the practicable will become more clearly visible, and we shall have a rational attempt, not to carry people's goods at the public expense or the expense of their neighbors, but to reform the management of corporations.

It seems to be acknowledged on all hands that Boston and Philadelphia and Baltimore are drawing to them a larger and larger proportion of the Western produce, owing in part to cheaper or, what is the same thing, more rapid transportation, and in part to the want of better facilities for unloading and shipping at New York. In fact, the railroad men who have been examined by the Senatorial Committee ascribe the whole of the disadvantages of New York to this cause. It would seem, if all this be true, that competition between the Atlantic ports does something at least to solve the transportation problem, so far as the people of the West are concerned. In his recent speech at Dayton, Ohio, Senator Morton, in speaking of the cheap transportation question, made a statement of considerable importance. He says that he has in his possession a proposal submitted by Dutch capitalists to build a railroad with four tracks from the West to the seabord, without asking any aid, either State or national. All they ask is a charter. We trust this proposal will not be forgotten when Congress meets, for it will contrast very strangely with certain other propositions which will be submitted to the authorities.

Two years ago Congress created a reform government for the District of Columbia, consisting practically of a Board of Works, at the head of which was nominally the President of the Board and Governor of the District, but really the Vice-President, Mr. A. R. Shepherd. The Board, on assuming control, undertook a comprehensive scheme of public improvement, which resulted in the creation of a debt of some $17,000,000. This debt made the District bankrupt, and two months since the Board was reduced to paying its employees in small bonds of the denomination of $50, being unable to find any ready money. There has always been a good deal of doubt as to what had become of this $17,000,000, and the person chiefly suspected of knowing where it is is Mr. A. R. Shepherd, who is commonly spoken of as "Boss" Shepherd, and who is accused of having made large sums of money by what used to be called in New York, in the time of Tweed, "speculations in real estate." The Governor of the District and President of the Board, Mr. H. D. Cooke, has resigned, on account of the conflicting claims upon his time and attention of his public and private duties, and General Grant, in accepting his resignation, has written him a letter congratulating him on his able and zealous performance of his duties, which has caused the national capital to advance towards what it should be "with a rapidity that astonishes and pleases every one who has been away from it for a few years and returns," and saying that if Governor Cooke's successors give the property-holders of the District the same satisfaction that he has, the people of the whole country "will have reason to congratulate themselves on the new form of government given them." The President has appointed as Governor Cooke's successor Mr. A. R. Shepherd.

The practice of levying assessments for political purposes on the employees of the Post-office has hitherto been generally supposed to be confined to the period just preceding important elections. From this, however, to the practice of creating a party treasury, with a permanent fund, there is but one step, and that step seems to have been taken by Postmaster Filley of St. Louis. Mr. Filley lately sent round among the St. Louis Post-office clerks a circular calling attention to the "necessity which frequently arises for the disbursement of money in securing political ends," and the consequent propriety of contributions from those who hold places of profit dependent upon the supremacy of the party, and respectfully advising the clerk addressed that a donation of so many dollars would be gratefully received, and at the same time handsomely acknowledging the receipt of the money. Persons who have not studied the subject may suppose this to be a violation of the civil-service rules, but it is not; for these donations are voluntary, and the clerks who contributed have since been engaged in signing a blank form, as follows:

"We, the undersigned, clerks in the St. Louis Post-office, signed the assessment of five per cent. of our salaries upon us without fear of discharge or other consequences in case of refusal to do so, and of our own free will; and we commend the Hon. Chauncey I. Filley for the silence he has observed in view of the comments made by newspapers and citizens in regard to such assessment."

General Butler was not nominated for the governorship of Massachusetts at the Worcester Convention, a result which was generally anticipated. The Washburn men proved to be in a majority—a small one, but still a majority—and accordingly, after some preliminary sparring and grimacing, the General withdrew his name, a step which apparently took his followers by surprise, and led them to expect and hope for something in the nature of a compromise. There was hardly a trace of this, however, in the platform, in which Butler's enemies had it all their own way. The resolutions condemned the "salary grab" in the strongest terms; rebuked the interference of Federal office-holders, *as such*, in local politics, and called on the President to dismiss those of them who had been guilty of "working" for Butler; affirmed the right of Congress to regulate railroad traffic, and called for the exercise of it; took credit to the Republican party for all the more important reformatory legislation of the present generation, and protested against "cheating and bullying" at caucuses and conventions; demanded the ten-hour system for women and minors employed in Massachusetts factories; approved of laws for the suppression of crime, intemperance, and disorder, and declared that "the character and details" of such laws must be fixed by the legislature, and that the laws ought to be obeyed until repealed; and, finally, approved of Governor Washburn.

Butler and his followers declined to bolt, and he took the castigation bestowed on him in the first resolution with his accustomed cheerful impudence. In fact, those who understand his character are of opinion that he extracted a great deal of comfort from the proceedings. He had a large and enthusiastic following among the delegates, to whom the badness of his reputation seemed to afford great delight and amusement, and he was the most conspicuous figure at the Convention by far, and thus had his love of notoriety fed to the full. It must be admitted, too, that on the question of bolting he got the better of his opponents. Mr. Dawes's avowal, previous to the Convention, that even if Butler were nominated he would vote for him, and the shrinking of the anti-Butler men, with the honorable exception of Dr. Freeman Clarke, at the Convention, from the avowal that they would not vote for him under any circumstances, were to him triumphs of considerable value, because the game he is playing in Massachusetts rests wholly on the presumption that whoever can get possession of the Convention can make sure of the obedience of the party. As long as this stands, Butler has only to do his peculiar and hidden work at the caucuses and primary meetings to increase his chances next year. A frank declaration at Worcester that his nomination would not be submitted to would have brought his enterprise to a termination and caused the desertion of a large proportion of his followers. As matters are, he has every inducement to begin over again next year; and this we have little doubt he will do. The Convention produced two speeches of an order rarely heard in such bodies—Mr. Bullock's and Dr. Freeman Clarke's. If they made the impression they ought to have made, Butlerism would rapidly disappear from the State.

The Virginia campaign seems already to be decided in favor of the Conservative candidate for Governor, who stands on a "white man's platform," a state of things to be regretted, but apparently the inevitable result of Federal interference and carpet-bagging. In New York, five State conventions are to be held this fall. The Republicans meet at Utica on the 24th of this month; the Democrats at the same place on the 1st of October; the Liberal Republicans at Elmira one week later; and the regular and irregular Prohibitionists will also hold conventions. There are two Supreme Court, two Superior Court, and two Marine Court judges to be nominated, as well as the usual political vacancies to be filled. Whoever should pretend at this moment that he knew anything about the chances of the next candidates would be guilty of a gross attempt at imposition; but there are one or two considerations that ought not to be overlooked by the managers. The Republicans and Democrats are pretty nearly evenly balanced, if not in actual strength, certainly in voting power; the popular interest in politics is at a low ebb; and the citizens of this city will not turn out in any force unless something turns up of an exceptionally interesting kind. Under these circumstances, the election can either be determined by bargaining or by the character of the nominations, and if one of the two chief parties should take "politics" for their cue and put up a poor ticket, and the other should nominate a strong ticket of unexceptionable names, the latter would stand a very good chance of bringing out a heavy vote, whether they happened to be in the Republican or Democratic fold. In Brooklyn, the chief event of the week has been the arrest of Sprague, City Treasurer, and Rodman's principal, for embezzlement.

Intelligence from the *Tigress* has been received during the week. The search for Buddington and his company had been rewarded by finding their winter camp on the mainland near Littleton's Island, which Captain Tyson is supposed to have mistaken for Northumber-

land Island, thus transferring the scene of the separation some sixty miles to the north. In the camp were six Esquimaux, with whom communication proved difficult, owing to their dialect; but from them and the manuscript journals left behind, it was ascertained that the white men had passed a comfortable winter under shelter, and having constructed two whaleboats from the badly-damaged *Polaris*, embarked in them for the south about the middle of June. A month later, and only three weeks before the arrival of the *Tigress*, the vessel went down. As no trace of human beings was discovered in the voyage to and from Disco, it is inferred that the Buddington party purposely made for the west coast of Baffin's Bay, and are now safe on board some one of the whalers which frequent it. The *Tigress* has crossed over to ascertain if this be the fact. The recovery of the papers of the unfortunate expedition is no inconsiderable result of the *Tigress's* mission.

The Tichborne trial begins to have a very strange look. Dr. Kenealy complains of the non-interference of the Court on an occasion when he says Mr. Hawkins "called him" a liar in "open court." The Court explained this non-interference by hinting that the abuse of Hawkins by Kenealy quite equalled that of Kenealy by Hawkins. There is some hard swearing going on for the defence; but if it were not for the squabbles between the lawyers and the Bench, the trial would begin to grow uninteresting. The conviction of the American bill-forgers, and their sentence to penal servitude for life, has attracted a good deal of attention, one correspondent observing that there is a belief among certain classes in London —the same classes, by the way, who are in the habit of cheering the Claimant whenever he appears in public—that the severity of the sentence comes from the fact that the convicts are Americans, the recent payment of the *Alabama* money having irritated the minds of the British aristocracy. While in Newgate, it is said, the prisoners nearly effected an escape by bribing three of the warders—giving them £100 apiece. There is a story, also, that a plan was concocted for a rescue from the dock while the trial was proceeding. These facts were probably taken into account by the Court in imposing sentence.

The Internationals have held their annual meeting, and it seems from their proceedings that communistic societies, like ordinary individuals, as they grow older become more conservative. The first question which came before the convention was the admission of an Italian delegate, sent by the Spanish Intransigentes. Notwithstanding all that has been said of the sympathy between the Spanish revolutionists and the followers of Karl Marx, the deputy was unanimously refused admission, partly because of his not being in good and regular standing, but partly on account of the bad reputation of his Spanish principals.

The visit of the Comte de Paris to the Comte de Chambord is now generally taken to be an abandonment on his part of all claim to the throne through Louis Philippe, and an acknowledgment of the principle of hereditary monarchy in the person of the latter. This has so far cleared the ground for the Monarchists that they are apparently of opinion that there is now nothing to be done but bring the Comte de Chambord to reason on the subject of the white flag. On this point he has always been obdurate, but he is now said to show some signs of willingness to compromise by confining the display of the flag to his residences as a sort of family ensign, and leaving the tricolor for the army and the nation. Things have gone so far that M. John Lemoinne, who occupies a position in the press somewhat similar to that of the late Prévost-Paradol, and is now acting as the monarchical fugleman, has come out openly for the monarchy in the *Débats*, on the condition, of course, that the Comte de Chambord makes a fair bargain with the nation and gives up divine right. There is little doubt that the majority in the Assembly is all ready for a decisive move in this direction, and only hesitates through doubts about MacMahon. Whether he would allow anything new to be set up is still questioned.

All this is frightening the Italians badly. If there is anything on which Henri V. is obstinate and unrelenting, it is his devotion to the Church, and his more ardent adherents make no secret of his belief that he would think it due to himself and to France, but especially to himself, to set the Pope up again in the enjoyment of his temporal rights; and that an interference in Italy to please the army would be set on foot, in imitation of the interference in Spain undertaken by the Restoration in 1822. There is, so far as known, no class of French politicians, except the despised Reds, who would object to a crusade of this sort. Even the liberal Thiers could hardly oppose it; and to thousands of infidels it would have the sovereign advantage of restoring the self-respect of the army. When one thinks of these things, one likes to look back to Gravelotte and Sedan. The Italians are, however, growing crusty, and may have an opportunity of showing in the controversy what the last ten years have done for them.

In order to get any reliable news from Spain, it is generally necessary to go back about a month and make a comparison of the various contradictory telegrams which have been published. Last month's defeat of the Carlists at Estella turns out to have been instead the capture of the citadel by the Carlists, who took 600 prisoners. A special correspondent of the *Times* confirms this version. Don Carlos gave the garrison their liberty and an escort to Pampeluna. The Carlist officers seem to be mainly occupied in disciplining their raw levies in the North for a descent in force upon Madrid. Castelar, on his election as President of the Cortes, made one of his usual speeches, in which he extolled the ideal, made very disheartening allusions to the actual, and assured his hearers that the only hope for republicanism in Spain was the immediate establishment of a dictatorship.

A correspondent of the *Tribune* has succeeded in getting into Cartagena, and writes a very entertaining description of his adventures. He walked round the walls, "interviewing" the sentries, until he was arrested, and was then taken first before Citizen Gutierrez, the cobbler, President of the Junta, and then before Contreras, who received him in half-naked state, but with great politeness, which the correspondent repaid with interest, assuring the General that though his canton and its institutions were still young, they would no doubt improve with time. Just before the arrival of the correspondent, the *Vittoria* and *Almanza* had been captured by the English and Prussians, and the Spanish Admiral, Lobo, had arrived off Cartagena with three wooden sloops, and demanded the surrender of those iron-clads. It was suggested to him that without extra hands he could not man them—an argument which struck the Admiral so forcibly that he immediately determined to put to sea, giving at the same time official notice that he established the blockade of the harbor from that day. As soon as Lobo had begun to make his preparations for departure, the insurgent vessels, *Mendez Nuñez* and *Numancia*, began to make things ready for a terrific naval fight, and the English Admiral sent word to Lobo that his enemies were getting up steam. Lobo replied, "Then I know my duty, and will do it," and got up steam and went off as fast as possible to Algeciras. He returned no more by daylight, but frequently came in under cover of the night, and sent messages to the English Admiral; but at dawn of day he was off. There are in Cartagena some 1,500 mutinied soldiers and some 4,000 volunteers. The soldiers are unpaid, but provisions are plenty. The besiegers under General Campos are half a mile out of range, but Contreras keeps up a continual cannonade, and the correspondent, illustrating the desperate character of the conflict, mentions the fact that on going outside the walls a day or two before to see what was going on, the Castle of Atalaya opened such a fire upon him that he barely escaped with his life; and he intimates the opinion that unless the war is brought to a speedy termination, there will not be a vine-field left intact in the range of the guns.

THE LOST OPPORTUNITY.

THE Massachusetts Convention last week contained all needful elements for a great and decisive and peculiarly useful victory. The canvass had been prolonged and animated; the enemy had brought up all of his forces, swelled by irregular and illegal artifices, and was believed to be stronger than he could ever be again. Notwithstanding his extraordinary combinations of personal resources with Executive patronage and influence, there was a powerful majority against him, unquestionably representing, both in sentiment and the manner of choosing the delegates, the best part of the Republican party of Massachusetts; and there was a presiding officer whose impartiality and ability could be relied upon, and whose inaugural address had done all that such an address could do to raise the Convention out of the stratum of political intrigue, and bring a really intelligent body of American citizens face to face with the greater dangers and evils of the political hour. The day before the Convention assembled, General Butler was morally defeated, occupying the position of a man who, without mishap, had done his utmost and failed, and was about to receive the decisive blow that would effectually dispose of him. But when the Convention closed its sittings, General Butler was really the only person to be seen—patronizing the resolutions, claiming this, that, and the other as embodying *his* principles, for which *he* had long labored, and, by a clever piece of effrontery, turning the back-pay resolution, which was intended to crush himself, into a shaft against his opponent, and hoping, with illustrative political fidelity, that, if the resolution were adopted, nobody would vote against Governor Washburn because of it. Whatever may be wished, no one can say that an enemy has been very badly routed when he is allowed to retain his position as long as he pleases, and to fire at his ease unanswered the very last guns of the battle.

The issue that has been tried (or attempted to be tried) in Massachusetts during the canvass, is whether our political conventions shall be the expression of the opinions of those citizens who make up a party, or whether they shall continue to be a piece of party machinery, handled by professed politicians and controlled by the interference of the executive officers of the General Government. It is a vital issue, and nowhere could it have been fought out better than in Massachusetts; or rather, on no other battle-ground and at no other time could there have been so little to excuse a retreat. For it is an "off-year" in politics; no other vital question was to be sacrificed for this, or required this to be sacrificed for it. Massachusetts is the strongest Republican State in the Union, with the best-informed population, and with the largest proportion of trained intelligence, and she is one of the few States where the educated and wealthy classes continue to take an active part in political affairs. On what other field could a battle so well have been fought which would teach our political adventurers that the American people are reaching a condition of mind in which they will no longer be trifled with?

"Dividing the party" was apparently the bugbear which frightened the leaders of the Convention into the policy of assuring General Butler a safe and orderly retreat. Dividing the party with a tolerable certainty of dividing its obnoxious elements out of it, is precisely what Massachusetts needs to have done, and what the large and respectable majority of her citizens really desired to do. Dividing the party is precisely what General Butler and politicians of his kind dare not do. Their political trade consists in capturing conventions, and relying upon party obligations to compel men to accept their nominations. Now, it would have been difficult, and perhaps improper, for the leaders at Worcester to have gone directly out of their way to eject from the party General Butler and the Federal office-holders who have been conspiring to use their official positions to thwart the views and wishes of the people of Massachusetts, but General Butler himself brought in and laid before the Convention the golden opportunity. The address of Governor Bullock had for the moment raised the Convention upon plane where it could do something for the regeneration of American politics. The resolution of Butler was nothing less than a proposition to bring the Convention down to the usual low level of a contest between two office-seekers, with the usual blind fidelity to the nomination, whether it be good or infamous. Considered by the light of its subsequent success, it must be acknowledged that the proposition seems a shrewd forecast, on General Butler's part, of the timidity of the men who were opposing him; estimated by the use to which it might have been put, it seems one of the most patent blunders into which any politician ever fell. It was the very last gage of battle that General Butler would have been willing to throw down, if there had been courage and earnestness enough among his opponents to take it up. He virtually snapped his fingers at the majority, and dared them to drive him out of the party. If they had dared, and struck the blow which he for the moment invited, and boldly said, "Mr. Green was right; we approve of what he said and agree with him in holding you a dishonorable aspirant, who shall never under any pretext receive our support," Butler would have been routed and compelled to leave the Convention, with the responsibility on his own shoulders of dividing the party, and with no excuse for doing so except the party's openly expressed contempt for himself; and it would have been written down on the party record in very plain characters, that neither this year nor next can General Butler be the representative of the Republican citizens of Massachusetts. Instead of trying to smother the resolution in a committee, and timidly meeting it with subterfuges and evasions, Mr. Hoar and his friends should have thanked Butler from their inmost souls for an opportunity which could hardly be hoped for in a lifetime spent in conventions. As it was, they allowed Butler to throw himself into the attitude of a courageous, straightforward, honest man, who alone dared to speak out truthfully against the quibbles and evasions of those who were in an underhand way trying to put him down. Indeed, the majority of the Convention who had come up honestly prepared to do battle for the right, were made to appear like men who, having climbed up into a better position, are then afraid either to go up higher or to come down, but stand meekly on the defensive, dodging as well as they can the missiles which their bolder and more active enemy audaciously chooses to fling at them. It cannot be said that they were defeated, but it must be acknowledged that they declined to fight a decisive battle, and thereby threw away the certainty of winning a great victory. The battle which they condescended to engage in was that of an ordinary contest between two candidates, with nothing of record against the one except his lack of votes, and with the certainty behind it that he will again come up to vex and harass Massachusetts, and renew the struggle to debauch and buy up the requisite number of political committees as unblushingly as before.

The person to whom Massachusetts and General Butler are most indebted for this unexpected turn of affairs is Mr. Dawes. At the beginning of the campaign, Mr. Dawes took care to announce that he would only be a private in this war, which now seems to mean that he would not be responsible for any battles beyond those of words, and that when it came to blows he would put himself as completely as possible out of General Butler's and harm's way. When the contest was growing serious, and delegates were openly avowing their intention to bolt or divide rather than support Gen. Butler, and not one of the leaders had intimated that he would prefer party discipline to the integrity of the party and the welfare of the State, Mr. Dawes, apparently thinking that it was time for him to interfere, stepped out of his retirement in the ranks to make to his constituents the most fatally important speech of the campaign. In this speech, after describing Butler as a man without a merit or a virtue—whose unprincipled conduct is now costing the General Government $20,000,000 a year in salaries alone, and who is the most dangerous man who could be selected for any responsible office—he suddenly read his own self-condemnation by saying that he would nevertheless support him if he should be successful in the Convention. The speech meant more than it said, for it was an

intimation to the Congressional following in his own district, and in others which were opposing Butler, that they were in no event to proceed to extremities; and it was still more fatal in disclosing to Butler what the policy of the leaders would be—in effect patting him on the back and telling him that he might play as bold a game in the Convention as he pleased.

There are, as we have hitherto had occasion to say in the columns of the *Nation*, two theories of what a political party is: the one holds that it consists simply of a number of citizens who co-operate to accomplish some definite thing which they believe will be for the public good; the other, that a party is a kind of army in which men enlist, and in which they are to be kept marching without question as to where they may be going, though (according to General Butler) with the privilege of deserting and going over to the enemy if they please; and that it is to be managed primarily for its own ends, and to be kept agoing, so long as "the people" can stand it, for the sake of its leaders and its followers and its traditions and the good it has done. It is this latter doctrine which depends upon "discipline" and "fealty," and regards a nomination to a high office as a prize for which two or more men play and one wins, and accounts the loser's "support" as something akin to a gambler's debt of honor. Mr. Dawes came into politics in 1848, and he was elected to Congress as long ago as 1856, and uninterrupted political life has evidently brought him into the strict party school. So far as we can perceive, the recent contest in Massachusetts is now chiefly remarkable for enabling him and General Butler to place themselves side by side on precisely the same platform.

THE CATHOLIC REVIVAL.

THERE have not been within the present century so many signs of activity in the Catholic Church as are to be witnessed this year. A movement having for its object, as our own revivals have, the outward display of intense religious feeling, and embodying itself in ostentatious excursions by large bodies of persons to the shrine of some saint or the scene of some miracle, has begun in France and spread to England, and is beginning to show itself in this country, in which an American "pilgrimage," on a scale and with accompaniments that will throw the European pilgrimages into the shade, is already talked of. The *Catholic Review*, in discussing it, makes suggestions which show indeed that the American Catholics will bring to the work of pilgrimage that practical, labor-saving, and inventive spirit which has already achieved so many wonders in the field of material progress. It points out that the American pilgrim, while promoting his soul's health and fostering in his breast the flame of holy zeal, by visiting spots which church history has made famous, or visible interpositions of the Unseen Power have sanctified, will at the same time, and by the same outlay of money, gratify that longing for European travel by which every right-minded American is more or less possessed. We doubt very much whether any such economy of time and cost has been held out to any of the devout Europeans who are hastening from England and various parts of France to Lourdes and Paray-le-Monial.

But then it must be admitted that the European pilgrim has reasons for seriousness and singleness of purpose which do not press on his American brother. The Catholic revival in France, and in a minor degree in England, is not altogether the result of a quickening of religious zeal simply. One occasionally sees the religious demonstrations in France ascribed to the fanatical promptings of the reactionary majority in the Assembly. That this majority is intensely ecclesiastical in its taste and temper there is no denying, and in fact it takes no pains to disguise it. More striking proofs of its leanings and of its indifference to the traditions of French liberalism it could not have afforded than its passage of a law, before its late adjournment, restoring mortmain for the benefit of the Archbishop of Paris, and of a resolution declaring the construction of a Catholic cathedral on the heights of Montmartre a work of public utility. But then this disposition on the part of the class which makes up the majority of the Assembly was exhibited in the same strength when it was last in power, after the Restoration of 1815. One of the first things the dukes and marquises and counts have always done when they got a chance, ever since the Revolution, is to try to restore the Catholic Church to its ante-Revolutionary power and splendor, and this not more because it is the true church, through whose gates only people go to heaven, than because it is the only church to which a gentleman can belong, and the only one that gives gentlemen their due. The little corps of "Pontifical Zouaves" who did so much splendid fighting during the Franco-Prussian war, is not by any means composed of pious youths, in the ordinary sense of the word, but of men who felt that in defending the church and its visible head, they were defending their own order, and the ideas which made the order worth belonging to.

But all these phenomena were witnessed in as great perfection between 1815 and 1830 as now. What distinguishes the present revival of ecclesiastical influence in France from that which took place when the reactionary party last had the upper hand, is that it is shared by the *bourgeoisie*, and that the religious sensibilities of a large class, which, after the Restoration, could not be said to have any religious sensibilities at all, are now touched; and the French *épicier*, after fifty years of complacent infidelity, begins to say his prayers, take the communion, and visit distant shrines, and finds himself once more coming into sympathetic relations with the Catholics of other countries. The explanation of this change—and something corresponding to it to be witnessed in other countries—is not so much that defeat and invasion have softened his heart and loosened his hold on the things of this life, as that he feels, as the middle and upper classes throughout Europe, except perhaps in Italy, feel, that the very foundations of society are being shaken by the discontents, aims, and aspirations of the working-classes. These discontents are too fierce and bitter, and too completely separated from the facts of life, to be capable, as far as appears at present, of being allayed by any process of discussion, or any redistribution of political power. The watchword of the Socialistic party on the Continent is everywhere, "Your money or your life," and their accession to power has everywhere thus far been marked by confiscation and slaughter. The result is therefore an unmistakable loss of respect on the part of the middle classes for the machinery of constitutional government, and an unmistakable growth of respect for the soldier and the priest as the two great defenders of the existing social order. The disposition to seek religious consolation in the present crisis is strengthened by the fierce hostility of the Radical party not to the Church only, but to all forms of belief in an unseen world. God is now generally denounced by the Radical leaders as a middle-class fetish, set up partly to feed their own selfishness and partly to keep the poor quiet; and even the most materialistic owners of property are thus driven into refurbishing their early faith and placing their fortunes under the divine care. God, they reason, would hardly be so fiercely assailed by the enemies of order if the worship of men were not closely connected with its maintenance. There is a passage in the recent work of one of the frankest of contemporary Positivists, Mr. John Morley, on Voltaire, which well expresses the feeling which, in a coarser form, fills the breasts of the Irreconcilables of the European continent: that the Christian religion, even in its most theistic form, is essentially the religion of the happy and comfortable, that only those with whom, on the whole, the world goes well can feel that trust in the rightfulness of the decrees of Providence, that confidence that even adversity is parental chastisement and that come what will all things are ordered for the best, which lie at the basis of all real piety.

The attacks which are occasionally made on the pilgrims in the French towns, and the hissing and singing of the *Marseillaise* with which the hymns are greeted by the bystanders, are so many illustrations of the depth of the gulf which now separates the church and the world in many parts of Christendom. It is not a gulf of opinion about doctrines, but a gulf of feeling on the whole cluster of rights and duties of which social life is made up. The German barbarian who watched a Christian procession in a Gaulish city in the third or fourth century was not a sympathetic spectator, and may

have been a hostile one, but there was a good deal of awe and curiosity in his hostility at worst, and he was by no means inaccessible to sacerdotal persuasion. The modern barbarian feels neither awe nor curiosity, and is apparently past conversion. To him the clergy and faithful are a band of impostors, whose goods he would like to spoil, and whose throats he would not mind cutting. When we consider these things, we understand the comfort which, according to all the best accounts, was diffused through property-holding France when the news came that the Conservatives had thrown the Parliamentarians overboard, and put the reins of authority in the hands of a soldier. The game of debate, said the shopkeeper to himself, is pretty, and government carried on in that way may be a pleasing sight for doctrinaires and Englishmen and Americans, but I am more anxious to live and enjoy my gains, and leave them to my children, than to afford those gentlemen the spectacle of the successful working of constitutional government. It might turn out all well if I kept on marching in that direction, but when the Radicals tell me, as one of them did during the Commune, that the proper thing to do with me, and the like of me, was to take us out on a fine May day, when the air was clear, and the sun shone bright, and life seemed sweet, to the nearest square, "and plant twelve rifle-balls apiece in our bellies," I prefer to stay as I am. The Radicals and I cannot work together in comfort on this globe. I may have to kill them in order to prevent them from killing me, and I therefore wish to keep the means of doing it in my hands.

It must be added, too, that the ferocity of the Conservatives is by no means defensive simply. They hate the Radicals as the Radicals hate them, are not sorry to get a chance of killing them, and, when there is no other way of demonstrating against them, enjoy building churches and making pilgrimages under their noses, and doing everything else which liberal France is known to despise or to abhor. The situation is not one which either the religious man or the politician can contemplate with much pleasure, but it would be a mistake to suppose that an increase of faith in the Catholic Church on purely religious grounds forms an important feature in it; on the contrary, it is three-fourths political.

THE WORCESTER CONVENTION.

BOSTON, September 13, 1873.

IN spite of the enormous uproar made by the Butler men, and in spite of the aggrandizing of General Butler's chances of success done by persons outside of Massachusetts, it appears to be true that Governor Washburn's friends were right enough in their original estimate of the number of delegates that Butler would be able to secure. From the beginning they conceded to him about four hundred out of the eleven hundred members who were to make up the Convention; and, although the Convention adjourned without having by a definite vote determined exactly how many delegates were for Washburn and how many for his opponent, and although such votes as were taken were vitiated by cheating, and were at the best ill counted, it is reasonably clear that not very far from four hundred is the mark at which to set the fulness of the Butler strength. How they secured so much strength as that it would be an old story to tell you. Such persons as can get any comfort from it may have the assurance of the best-informed political observers on the Washburn side, that what success the Butler men obtained they obtained at the cost of a small fortune expended by their leader. For example, a thousand dollars is put down as the amount that went into the little town of Greenfield, Governor Washburn's home, for the purpose of showing the State at large how unpopular the Governor was among his neighbors. I may add that, in this instance, it was money lost. In another town, an Irish Democrat turns over to the Washburn managers a five-dollar bill, sent to him enclosed in a package of Butler ballots, which he was to use in the impending caucus. Dozens of similar stories—scores of them, rather—are everywhere to be heard. Indeed, the facts are so well known that only a bill of items, giving a list of the towns in which caucuses were bought, and the names of the men employed as disbursing agents, could command any interest in this community. It is no more news here than the shining of the sun that Butler's canvass has been marked by the purchase of some caucuses, the packing of others with Democratic voters, and the active management of others by the Federal officials of the eastern end of the State. To-day one would hear of Supervisor Simmons—a young man of the Davenport order, to judge him by his looks and his reputation—as being busy at Taunton say "fixing things"; to-morrow he might be heard of in Worcester County; next week he might, as committeeman, be calling ward caucuses in Boston at a moment's notice, so that not even special trains could bring up Washburn men from the seaside, or down from the mountains. Collector Russell, too, was another of whom one was always hearing; now, as advising with the Eighth Ward negroes in the interest of General Butler—whom, by the way, this class of voters almost to a man ignorantly worship, as the Scripture says—and again, when General Butler's defeat had become a thing certain, one heard of the Collector as treating the Washburn managers in his ward with the greatest courtesy, conceding everything, agreeing that So-and-so, their nominee, would be a fit person for chairman of the caucus, and consenting even to "the use of the check-list."

The check-list, by the way, has been the subject of much bitter dispute in all this struggle. The demand of the Butler men has everywhere been that it should be discarded, and this demand, said their opponents, was on its face proof positive of a deliberate intention to commit fraud. Why, they asked, object to the use of a document which was no more than an authentic register of those citizens who at the last election were legal voters in the ward where the caucus was now to be held? To this question the reply of the others was that, although the rich seldom change their places of residence from ward to ward, the poor are compelled to do so often, and that to insist on a man's name being on the check-list before letting him vote in caucus was in many cases to disfranchise him for poverty. To this the rejoinder was, that more likely it was to withhold from a Charlestown Navy Yard hand the right to come over, at the order of his boss, and vote in a Boston Republican ward meeting; or it was to deprive Democrats of the right to come in and elect delegates to a Republican convention. Whatever the arguments were, in most places where the Butler men had their way the check-lists were, as a matter of fact, dispensed with. But the Convention, I observe, directed on Wednesday that hereafter they should be used, and stated that, if they were not, all delegates elected at primary meetings which should disregard the order would be refused admission to the nominating convention. No doubt this is fair, and inflicts no hardship on anybody. Lazarus no more than Dives need find difficulty in going to the ward-room of the ward into which he has just moved and having himself registered. In fact, the outcry on this subject was but one illustration of the rascality and the astonishing, patent, undisguised impudence of Butler and the Butler men. I know of no way of describing it. Perhaps as good a measure of this impudence as any is the utter hatred of Butler with which it inspires spectators. I myself believe that it would be not an easy task to apportion with precision the amount of General Butler's ill-luck in Massachusetts which is due to the disgust and contempt which his pachydermatous cynical impudence creates, and the amount which is due to the reasonable disapproval of his works and ways. To a dim perception of this cause of his failure he owes, I imagine, the sympathy given him by many well-meaning, if not very wise, men of whom, now that his character is well known, better things might be expected.

On the morning of the 10th, when the Convention was to meet, it was perfectly well known to both sides that Butler was beaten, and that no effort of his could prevent the nomination of Washburn. Beyond that fixed fact, there was room for conjecture, and the guesses were as to whether Butler would find or make a pretext for bolting; whether the Washburn men would dare to put into the platform a resolution condemning the "back-pay grab"; whether they would dare to leave that measure unmentioned; whether if they denounced that, and then permitted interference of Federal officials in local politics, Butler would make a long fight and a fight with a successful result—for who could tell how many Washburn men there might be who would feel hesitancy in making an attack on the Administration? Six or seven hours decided that what was to happen was an exhibition of himself by General Butler; an acknowledgment at the end of it that he had known from the beginning that he was beaten; and, finally, on the part of the Washburn leaders, although they very handsomely thrashed him before the people, and took very good care of him in the Convention itself, a failure to read their enemy out of the party. This many hoped for, but perhaps unreasonably.

From the opening of the Convention—indeed, from the opening of the doors of the hall—General Butler made it evident that he had determined to be the chief performer of the day. Dressed in a suit of black, and holding in his hand a portentous felt hat, he rolled his bulk about for a few minutes at the right hand of the Chairman's platform, speaking to but few persons, for he was on the Washburn side of the house, and not much noticed by anybody. By-and-by, however, he stepped forward a yard or two, and became visible to a friend of his, a Mr. Meehan of Boston, who, although a Democrat, I believe, roared out from his seat in the galleries as soon as he caught sight of the General, "Three cheers for

old Ben Butler." They were given with a will, the galleries being evidently for Butler on the whole, and were listened to by the Washburn captains with a sort of smile, which they interchanged, and which smile might be interpreted as saying, "If that does you any good, you are entirely welcome to it." General Butler was not at all bashful or coy, but at once mounted the platform amid a renewal of the stamping and cheering, and made his bow to the audience upstairs and to the Butler delegates seated on the left hand of the platform, who joined in the applause. From that time on he was constantly conspicuous. He must have been on his feet and talking rather more than half of the whole time during which the Convention was in session, and talked at least six times as much as any other man in it. Apparently, his object was to impress his followers with a sense of his abilities as a tactician, and of his general importance; and this he must, I should think, have succeeded in doing.

For what other reason he made his first motion, which he made while the Convention was as yet only temporarily organized and was doing the regular routine business incident to that stage of its existence, no one seemed then at least to know, though afterwards a possible reason appeared. Mr. W. W. Rice, of Worcester, who, with Mr. G. F. Hoar, was the anti-Butler manager on the floor, moved that all resolutions offered in the Convention should be referred, without debate, to the committee on resolutions. At once the raucous voice of the gentleman from Gloucester, thickened and muffled, as it were, by the flesh of his cheeks, was heard moving an amendment. All resolutions, he suggested, should be referred without debate, except resolutions "concerning the ordinary organization and business of the Convention." Mr. Rice thought he had offered the usual resolution; the Convention organized itself by votes, not by resolutions; of course he did not intend that it should be organized by the committee on resolutions. After some more words from Mr. Butler, and some more again by Mr. Rice, who from time to time gave ear to a hint from Mr. W. S. Robinson, or some other parliamentarian, Mr. Rice accepted the amendment of the gentleman from Gloucester. Just at this moment, however, the gentleman from Gloucester had a paper passed to him from some gentleman behind him, who had taken the pains to write down what in his view should be the exact words of the amendment proposed, and this document Mr. Butler sent up to the chair, with the remark that it had been handed to him by a friend. The seemingly casual character of this transaction had an effect the reverse of soporific on the Washburn men near where I was sitting, and when the amendment was read by the chair, a word or two passed between the leaders of the right side of the house, and Mr. Rice promptly said that the amendment as read he did *not* accept. At last the matter was arranged, and everybody wondered why so many words had been spent on so small a matter, and why there was need of reducing to writing a resolution which was so much a resolution of course. In the afternoon, the reason of the solicitude seemed to appear; for when the Convention assembled after dinner Butler was on his feet—he was the last man up before dinner, too, moving a recess—reading the resolution, which, from that time out, occupied the time of the Convention, on which the whole battle was fought, and which Butler described as a resolution "concerning the ordinary organization and business of the Convention." It was, in brief, a resolution declaring that whereas a Mr. Green of Franklin, a delegate, had been heard to say that, whatever the Convention might do, he himself would in no case vote for General Butler, it was therefore resolved that the said Mr. Green be debarred from acting as a delegate in that Convention. This resolution General Butler buttressed by an affidavit, and word went round among the dismayed members that his private secretary had some forty or fifty, more or less, similar affidavits, and that each was to be brought up singly and supported by a speech until such time as numerous Washburn delegates had gone home tired, and then Butler was to be nominated.

I may say here that, unless I am misinformed, the truth of the matter, as regards Mr. Green, is that when his fellow-citizens, assembled in caucus, wished to send him to Worcester, he informed them that if they sent him they must do so with the full knowledge that he would in no case vote for Butler, whether the Convention nominated him or not. You may judge from this that had Butler succeeded in getting the nomination, the "bolt" from him would not have been composed of delegates merely. In some instances, at least, it would have been composed of the large majority of the rank and file. And so Mr. James Freeman Clarke indicated when it came his turn to speak on Mr. Green's case. Mr. Clarke's story of the gentleman who did not believe Gen. Butler to be an "honest man" made a decided sensation in the Convention, and the face of the gentleman from Gloucester himself was not proof against this sort of comment, but changed visibly; and a few minutes afterwards, in his reply to his antagonist, Mr. Clarke figured equally with Mr. George Hoar in the witticisms and sarcasms lavished on Mr. Green's friends. While speaking on this subject of the inveteracy of the opposition to Butler, I may say that when General Butler's speech-makers were insisting on the cowardice of men like Mr. Green, in not openly avowing to the Convention their determination to bolt should General Butler be nominated, one of the anti-Butler leaders, and perhaps the most prominent and influential of them all, said in my hearing, "I wish he had asked me when I was up if I intended to bolt." His tone left no doubt of what would have been his answer; and it is my opinion that the bolt, had one been necessary, would have been a bolt indeed. Many Republicans, while asserting their ability "to take care of Butler every time," more than half wish that there had been a bolt, even if made by their own friends; and as for a bolt by Butler, they were fervently praying for it "so as to finish him once for all." But the prudent man foreseeth evil and hideth himself, and General Butler, although, as Mr. Wendell Phillips says, he is the iron man of New Orleans, had no notion of going of his own accord out of the party. On the contrary, with characteristic adroitness and with characteristic profligacy and indecency—a spectacle to gods and men—he no sooner saw that he was to be beaten in the Convention, and rebuked and abused in the resolutions, than he was ready for prompt submission.

A recess for tea followed the final vote (586 to 406) referring the resolution concerning Mr. Green to the committee. On the reassembling of the delegates, General Butler made his last speech but one, announcing that he was no longer a candidate. Whispers now went round that, in payment for this surrender, there was to be a compromise in regard to the resolutions, and prominent Butler men asseverated this, even with oaths, with the effect of frightening a good many Washburn men, who turned anxious eyes on the door of the ante-room where the committee on resolutions was in session, and into which, every now and then, some absent member would be sent by the chairman of the Convention. There is no doubt that a large majority of Governor Washburn's supporters were disposed to sanction extreme measures against his adversary, and the tidings, circulated the night before, that the platform, as then agreed upon, would censure specifically the Massachusetts representatives who voted for the salary swindle, and generally be "up to the *Advertiser* mark," had been received with universal satisfaction. It did not seem to occur, however, even to those who most bitterly deprecated a compromise, that any appeal from the committee would be possible, however inadequate an expression their report might prove of the true feeling of the Convention. In the scene which followed the committee's appearance upon the platform, the dramatic interest of the occas on reached its culmination. As the voice of the reader, incisive and emphatic in the profound silence that prevailed, pronounced the verdict of the party upon the measure in defence of which all Butler's sophistry had for weeks been expended, all eyes were fixed upon the defeated candidate, who still occupied his elevated position on the platform; and, from the signs of agitation which he could not wholly suppress, it was plain to see that the shafts directed against him had taken effect. And certainly, whoever else may find the resolutions too mild or too platitudinarian, General Butler will not. Clearly, Massachusetts is not ready for him yet. Next year, perhaps, she may be; but I imagine if she gets him it will not be at the hands of the Republican party, but, if at all, at the hands of the "independent organization" with which he had the grace to threaten the Convention, and which the Convention, in its satisfaction at having baffled him, was vouchsafed the grace to receive without resentment.

THE CATHOLIC DISSENSIONS IN SWITZERLAND.

LUCERNE, August 22, 1873.

GENEVA has always been one of the great religious centres of Europe. It has in this respect become lately very prominent since Father Hyacinthe established himself in it as an apostle of the so-called Old Catholics, and since the Government of Geneva began war against Monsignor Mermillod, a native of the Canton of Vaud, whom the Papal Government suddenly proclaimed Bishop of Geneva. I have been collecting information on the spot concerning these various movements, and the position of the Old Catholics and of the Roman Catholics. The question increases in magnitude, if you reflect that all sorts of hidden forces are working round it and under it—the rival influences of France, of Germany, and of Italy, since Switzerland lies as it were like a knot between three nationalities.

The relations of the Church of Rome and of the Government of Geneva were officially settled by the treaties of Vienna made after the downfall of the first Bonaparte. The *République helvétique* had been cut up into departments by the great conqueror, and proud Geneva had merely become the capital of the Department of the Leman. When the Empire fell, Geneva recovered her independence, and Savoy was given back to the King of Piedmont; but it was agreed that twenty-two townships of Savoy, form-

ing a circle round Geneva, should belong to her territory. As these communes were Catholic, the treaty specified that the Catholics should enjoy in them for ever the same privileges which then belonged to their brethren in Savoy. The last protocol was only signed in 1819, and, curiously enough, there was no liberty of conscience in Savoy for Protestants at that time. Piedmont, in fact, was then a very reactionary government, and freedom of worship for Protestants was only established in the kingdom of Piedmont by the *Statuto* of Charles Albert. Before that time, it was impossible to build a Protestant chapel in the territory of Geneva, outside of the town, in places which Rousseau and probably Calvin had often visited.

We come now to the question of the government of the church. This government was determined by a treaty of the confederacy with Rome, by a concordat under which the Pope had the right to name a bishop for Lausanne, who served at the same time as the spiritual guide for the Catholics of the Canton of Geneva. There was also a bishop in Soleure, in Coire, etc. The relations of the bishops with their own clergy followed the old customs: some curés were elected by the communes directly; some others by chapters; some by individuals, heirs of a founder; many by the bishops; but there was no absolute rule giving the government of the church completely over to the episcopacy. Some years ago, Monsignor Mermillod became very influential in Geneva. A very active man, he made himself the ally of the Radicals, gave the Catholic vote to the enemies of the old Conservative party, built chapels, and succeeded in procuring for his flock all the advantages of many rich foundations, originally founded for the exclusive use of the Protestants. But this was not enough; the Court of Rome thought that the time had come to strike a blow at Geneva, and saw a fit instrument in Mermillod. Had Rome opened negotiations with Geneva, my friends assure me that courteous approaches would have been met in a courteous spirit, and that even the objection to the establishment of a Catholic bishopric in Geneva might have been waived. But the Government of Geneva was never consulted; Mermillod was first named apostolic vicar of the Bishop of Lausanne in Geneva, and afterwards raised to the dignity of bishop, and the see of Geneva was created without any negotiation, as if the see of Rome simply exercised an uncontested right.

You may well imagine what agitation these proceedings produced. The Catholics themselves divided. There is in Geneva a large colony of Catholic foreigners, attracted by the beauty of the scenery, by the neutrality of Switzerland. This party is very ultramontane—some of its chiefs belong to exiled princely families; but the Swiss Catholics, who, however religious they may be, are very patriotic, did not eagerly take up the cause of Rome against their own country. Some curés fought on one side, some on the other; and Father Hyacinthe understood at once that here was a favorable field for his own views. His great eloquence attracted large crowds, already prepared for a schism, and there is now in Geneva a congregation of about two thousand Catholics who have adopted the doctrines of Father Hyacinthe. You probably know what these doctrines are. Father Hyacinthe protests that he is not a Protestant; he will, till he dies, so he says, belong to the Catholic Church, but to the church such as it was established and understood by the great fathers of old, and by the first Councils. He allows the marriage of priests; he does not consider auricular confession a necessity, though he recommends it; he rejects wholly the dogmas of the Immaculate Conception and of the personal infallibility of the Pope.

The war became so intense between Mermillod and the Council of Geneva that finally Mermillod was exiled from the Canton. His friends made an appeal to the Federal Council, the discussion before which was very interesting, and quite worthy of a great parliament. M. Segesser, the mouthpiece of the Catholics, strongly protested against any foreign intervention in this question; it was for the Swiss themselves to decide it. He should no more go for help to France than the Protestants of Switzerland should go to Bismarck. Putting then aside these foreign considerations, the deputies must ask themselves if the Council of Geneva had any right to exile a Genevan citizen for an act which fell under no law, which was not even foreseen by the law, which could not be called a crime, a felony, or a misdemeanor. The Genevese councillors were guilty of persecution, and were sowing the seed of future discords. The President of the Republic, Cérésole, answered M. Segesser in the Upper House. He is a man of forty, of great intelligence. He protested in very strong terms against the accusation of being the tool of Germany and of Bismarck, and offered to lay his whole diplomatic correspondence before the Chamber. Some gentlemen, to be sure, had gone to the French Government and maintained that France, as representing in Savoy the old rights of Piedmont, since the war in Italy, had a right to remonstrate against the conduct of the Government of Geneva. But neither M. Thiers nor the Duc de Broglie had been willing to lend an ear to these advisers. As for Prince Bismarck, he had always maintained the most reserved attitude in the whole matter. The President said little more, and did not attempt to defend in itself the expulsion of Bishop Mermillod. The vote was taken after an animated discussion, and 26 votes against 13 rejected the appeal in the Council of the States. For the present, the question is settled, but the Mermillod affair is only an incident. The relations of the curés with the bishop have been completely altered. As the Genevese will not give to Mermillod the right to appoint curés, they have voted a law which gives the choice of the curés to the members of the congregation. The parishioners in some towns of the Canton of Soleure are claiming the same right; and there is, at the present moment, complete anarchy in the Catholic Church of Switzerland.

M. Cérésole may technically be right in saying that Germany and Bismarck have nothing to do with this result. M. Segesser said with truth: "I think that nobody has a right to speak of Prince Bismarck's diplomatic interference in this affair. I believe that he has laughed at it. But if in a great country a certain political tendency becomes predominant, when this tendency is personified in an eminent representative of the state, call him prince or call him emperor, this intellectual current will be felt in other countries. You cannot stop at the political frontier of a country a storm which comes from the east or from the west, and it would be folly to maintain that we do not feel this storm because it arose outside of our country." These remarks are very profound. Many people have wondered how Prince Bismarck has been bold enough to raise, without any apparent necessity, the storm against Rome; but he is probably convinced of the necessity of giving a constant nourishment to the combativeness of the German mind, of hindering it from feeding upon itself. The invisible power of Rome can only be met with invisible arms; and thus it is that Father Hyacinthe is an unconscious ally of Germany, in the same manner that Italy is an ally of Germany, though there is probably no offensive or defensive treaty actually signed between them.

The Catholic forces of Europe are now perforce drawing round France, and France is again becoming the eldest daughter of the church. If the most advanced Republicans were in power to-morrow, they probably could not stop this natural attraction and aggregation of forces. A painful and sad necessity must for a long time sunder the intellects of modern Europe; Renan and Strauss can no longer be friends. The difficult problem of the relations of the church and the state is rendered even more complex by the introduction of the political and national elements. Even in this happy Switzerland, protected by neutrality, passions run so high that Geneva has found no better method than the brutal method of exile. Mermillod is now a martyr, and as such he is praised and extolled throughout the whole world. What is there in the air of the Leman that is an incentive to intolerance? Switzerland is always lying like a golden fruit between France, Germany, and Italy. It is perhaps the sentiment of a perpetual danger on the side of France which has always made Geneva so jealous of her rights; but France has at present no desire for annexation; she knows now what annexation means, and how many sufferings are concealed under this Napoleonic word. It would be well for Switzerland if she forgot, or at least if her statesmen forgot for a while, both France and Germany, and settled the relations of church and state in a generous and liberal spirit.

Correspondence.

THE STUDY OF ROMAN LAW.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: In your article on the "Study of Roman Law" in the *Nation* of September 11, you are in error in stating that at none of the law Schools in the United States "is the Roman law taught as a part of the regular and required course." It has been taught as such at the Law School of Yale College since the reorganization of the department in 1870, and questions upon it form part of the annual examination papers for the Senior class.

It was also a subject of instruction at the academical department at Yale thirty years ago, under the late Joseph G. E. Larned, Esq., and at the Law School of Harvard University, a few years later, under the late Luther S. Cushing, Esq., well known as the author of a manual, and also of a larger treatise, on Parliamentary Law. The lectures delivered by Mr. Cushing were published by him in 1854 in a volume of about 250 pages, under the title of an 'Introduction to the Study of Roman Law,' so that to Mr. Cushing, rather than to Professor Hadley, belongs the credit of first introducing this subject to the attention of American law-students.

Yale College, Sept. 15, 1873.

Notes.

IN Petermann's *Mittheilungen* for July 29 will be found a learned summary of the results of the *Polaris* expedition, accompanied by a map showing the routes of this and of former American expeditions by the way of Smith Sound, north of 76°. It comes in good time, just as we hear from the *Tigress* of the discovery of Buddington's winter camp near Littleton's Island (in the vicinity of Cape Olsen, Prudhoe Land), and of the total loss of the *Polaris*.——The historical review of the progress of African discovery, furnished by H. Kiepert in the last number of the Berlin Geographical Society's *Journal*, has been printed separately, together with the valuable maps which accompanied the article, already described in the *Nation*. We learn from the preface that this is but the first of a series by the same competent writer, and that the second number will consider the part which the several nations have taken in the exploration of Africa during the past hundred years.

—The fall list of J. R. Osgood & Co. points to the improvement in the book trade this season of which other signs are not wanting. We cannot undertake to give it in full. Among native productions, Mr. Longfellow's 'Aftermath' takes the lead, finding companions in W. D. Howells's and E. C. Stedman's collected poems, Chas. Warren Stoddard's 'South Sea Idyls,' and, we suppose, 'Sounds from Secret Chambers,' by Laura C. Redden ("Howard Glyndon"). Col. Higginson's 'Oldport Days,' and S. A. Drake's 'Historical Fields and Mansions of Middlesex' (illustrated with heliotypes and woodcuts), may be classed together in the category of history, but are otherwise different enough. Dr. James Freeman Clarke's 'Common-Sense in Religion' stands well recommended by the common-sense in politics which he was not afraid to manifest at Worcester. 'The Voice, and How to Use It,' by an anonymous author; 'Marjorie Daw, and Other People,' by T. B. Aldrich; 'Child-Life in Prose,' by John G. Whittier; 'Trotty's Wedding-Tour and Story-Book,' by Elizabeth Stuart Phelps; and 'Doing His Best,' by J. T. Trowbridge, complete our enumeration of American works to be issued by this house. Foreign authors laid under contribution by them are Geo. Henry Lewes ('The Story of Goethe's Life' and 'Problems of Life and Character'); W. R. Greg ('Literary and Social Judgments'); Henry Blackburn ('Picturesque Normandy' and 'Artists and Arabs,' both illustrated); and Walter Savage Landor ('Cameos'—selections from his poetical works by T. B. Aldrich and E. C. Stedman).——G. P. Putnam's Sons, among other announcements, make the following: 'The Homes of Ober-Ammergau,' by Mrs. Eliza Greatorex; 'The Girlhood of Shakespeare's Heroines,' by Mary Cowden Clarke; and Bastiat's 'Essays on Political Economy.'——John Wiley & Son, continuing their uniform edition of Ruskin's works, will publish his 'Lectures on the Greek and English Birds,' in the first of which the robin and the swallow respectively receive attention.——Mrs. Lydia Maria Child's 'Progress of Religious Ideas,' after having become extremely scarce, is to reappear with the imprint of De Witt C. Lent & Co. ——A new edition of 'Peter Schlemihl,' Bowring's translation and Cruikshank's illustrations, will be issued by A. Denham & Co.——A book which is likely to commend itself to many mothers besides those who are accustomed to read the *Christian Union*, is 'Bec's Bed-Time, and Other Stories,' by Mrs. S. C. Hallowell, announced by Porter & Coates, Philadelphia. Something, too, might be expected for the nursery from 'New Songs for Little People,' by Mrs. Mary C. Anderson, illustrated by Miss L. B. Humphrey (Lee & Shepard).——Hurd & Houghton have in press 'Bianca Cappello,' a five-act tragedy in verse, by Mrs. Elizabeth C. Kinney; and 'The Egyptian Sketch-Book,' by Charles G. Leland.——Scribner, Armstrong & Co. announce 'An Outline Study of Man,' by Dr. Mark Hopkins; the second volume of Ueberweg's 'History of Philosophy'; the fourth volume, comprising Books VI. and VII., of Curtius's 'History of Greece'; 'The Preternatural Origin of the Bible Argued from its Own Characteristics,' by Henry Rogers, author of 'The Eclipse of Faith'; Saxe Holm's 'Stories'; and Jules Verne's 'Journey to the Centre of the Earth.'

—The *Athenæum* having said, apropos of Joaquin Miller's last volume, that "his old gifts, though still remarkable, have rather run to seed, while his faults of imitation and incompleteness have been confirmed," has received from the irate poet of the Sierras a remarkable note, which it has the cruelty to print. Or rather, it gives an extract, in which the editor is desired to tell the reviewer "to his teeth that he is a liar, a *coward*, and a cur." Mr. Miller informs the *Athenæum* that he wrote without consultation with his publisher. Neither, it is clear, did he consult the dictionary, nor any work on good manners. It should be said for him, however, that his view of the critic's nature and office is not by any means peculiar to himself.

—A correspondent in Baltimore writes us as follows: "The efforts that are now made in our large cities to give the children of the poor the benefit of excursions to the country and to the seaside, suggest the thought whether the money might not be laid out in a way to produce much more permanent advantages. Dr. Toner's plan (lately described in the *Nation*) for the establishment of "free sanitariums" throughout the country, is objected to on the ground of the enormous expense that it involves, but may we not have Maritime Hospitals, such as are common in Italy? These buildings are erected at convenient places on the sea-shore, and during the hot months are filled with the weak and sickly children from the large towns. The little ones are kept for a week or two, fed on wholesome food, made to bathe regularly and to romp and play on the beach, and are then sent home to make room for another detachment. I watched the working of one of these institutions in the summer of 1871, and it was most interesting to see the groups of children arrive from the cities, pale and languid, to return again a few days later ruddy, bright, and vigorous. These buildings are more properly temporary asylums than hospitals, for they are not intended for the bedridden or for those afflicted with any infectious disease. Designed only for summer use, they may be light, inexpensive frame buildings; and most of our large cities are so near the coast that suitable sites can be found within easy reach. Where these institutions have been tried, they are found to work admirably, and were a few of them scattered along our Atlantic coast, thousands of young lives would be annually saved to the country. It is a subject well worth the attention of the philanthropist." Our correspondent sends also an extract from the *Journal de Genève*, giving the statistics of these beneficent establishments, from which it appears that the first one was founded as long ago as 1856. They now number fifteen in all, and during the three months of bathing entertain from 2,500 to 3,000 children. The railroads charge less than half rates for this class of travellers, and from thirty to fifty cents per day is found to be the cost of the charity for each child.

—A modern pilgrimage at low rates by special train has in it something irresistibly grotesque, and furnishes scoffers with grounds for doubting whether piety or the pleasure of an excursion is the prime motive with the majority of those who engage in it. Father Hennepin embraced the mission to the Iroquois, as he himself tells us, on account of "a passion for travel and a burning desire to visit strange lands"; and even John Woolman's spiritual yearning towards the West Indies coincided with a bodily condition in which balmy gales and tepid waters must have been extremely pleasant to contemplate. With the pilgrims of the present hour in France we cannot conceive it to be wholly otherwise. An act of faith must be doubly sweet when it involves a change of air and of scene, and a return ticket at half-price. Of one of these pilgrimages to La Salette we read that, when it arrived at Melun,

"The Director of the Pilgrimage there appeared at the carriage door, and handed to each of us a small printed paper, containing the regulations for the five days over which the Pilgrimage extends. These regulations set forth the times of departure and arrival, the places where we were to obtain refreshments, the times, and the prices. In addition, the paper set forth the various hymns which were to be chanted each hour, and also some further practical information connected with the journey. It requested us to give our names at Montereau, to dine at Tonnerre, and it concluded with this order, 'Silence during the night.'"

At the Dijon station there was a delay of an hour and a quarter:

"We had been sent out through a door, in passing through which we were counted like so many sheep, and we were let in through another door, where the counting process was repeated. The official who performed this last task was in despair. He could not make the numbers tally, and he called out, 'I want nine more.' I remarked to him that the officials had omitted to label us. He looked at me askance, and went on with his counting. At last he found the lost sheep, and his mind was at rest."

Previously, at Joigny, when the train had stopped,

"Religious songs were to be heard from many carriages, and the refrain of the Sacred Heart, '*Dieu et Clémence, Dieu Protecteur, sauve Rome et la France, au nom du Sacré Cœur.*' All at once loud hisses burst forth, and cries of '*La Marseillaise!*' '*A Paray!*' As the Pilgrims had been forbidden to sing while at the railway station, they immediately became silent, the hisses also ceased, and the train again started."

—The suggestion that the explanation of these queer proceedings is that there is no way of testifying one's faith so sure as making one's self ridiculous, appears, after all, to be more ingenious than sound. A recent proposal of the *Catholic Review*, at least, on the subject of an American pilgrimage, seems to be too shrewd to admit of such an explanation. The *Review* says that as soon as the popular interest in the subject has reached a proper pitch, it will be found that the greater difficulties in the way have been removed, and that an American pilgrimage is not only practicable, but will also prove "the means of uniting a highly spiritual work with the ordinary relaxation which our people claim during their vacations." It is clear that any suggestions as to unboiled peas would

be thrown away on such pilgrims as these. There is a story, which we believe has never got into print, of an American gentleman being hospitably entertained in mediæval fashion in a retired cave in Switzerland, by a hermit. In the course of conversation, the host showed much interest in the guest's country, and, towards the end of the evening, enquired if the latter would recommend him to emigrate to the United States. The American, somewhat embarrassed, enquired in what capacity, and the holy man gave him to understand that he wished to know what sort of an opening America afforded for hermits. The story was originally told as a joke, but the time seems to be coming, or even now at hand, when all humor of this kind will have to be revised. There are probably in the United States a great many hundreds of thousands of persons of both sexes who would find nothing more funny in the notion of an American hermit than in that of an American pilgrim.

—Few people probably know much about the history of the kingdom of Araucania; a smaller number still anything of the founder, King Aurelius Antonius I. There is indeed a certain French barrister named Aurèle Antoine de Tonneus (or Tounens) who knows all there is to know on the subject, but it is only very lately that he has seen fit to make any of his knowledge public. There are some few facts with regard to him, however, which seem to be well established. That some fifteen years since he made a visit to Araucania; that there he acquired great influence with the natives, and was made by them king of the country under the title above given; that his assumption of royal dignity furnished at first a great deal of food for amusement among the neighboring Chilians, and afterwards food for reflection; that the result of this reflection was the sending some police into Araucania early in 1862, with orders to kidnap the king; that the king was carried off and imprisoned in Chili—all this appears to be established. The subsequent history of M. de Tonnens is said to be this: After being held as a prisoner some time, he was tried as a usurper and sentenced to death. The Araucanians appealed to the French consul, who immediately demanded the release of the king on the ground that he was a French subject; and to this demand the Chilian Government acceded, on condition that he should be taken back to France and never allowed to return to his kingdom. Nevertheless, M. de Tonnens contrived to find means of getting away, and, on his return to his Araucanian subjects, found that they were relapsing into the barbarism out of which, during his short reign, he had done his best to lift them. He determined to go back to Europe, get his position recognized, and obtain what assistance he could in his project of establishing an enlightened government in Araucania. He hoped for assistance from Napoleon, but almost at the time of his arrival the battle of Sedan took place, and the Emperor was driven from power; the succeeding governments have been too much occupied with domestic affairs to give much attention to colonization; but Aurelius Antonius has not been idle, and is trying to interest European capitalists in the development of the country. He wishes to promote emigration, and is willing to make land and mining grants, and to build up a trade in copper, silver, wheat, and hides, wool and hemp, in exchange for English manufactured goods. He is said to be simple in his habits, has a great objection to display, is a very early riser, never makes use of a carriage if he can accomplish a journey by walking, is amiable and brave. This experiment is more interesting than that of Dr. Francia in Paraguay. The Paraguayans, with all their bravery, are very low in the scale of humanity, while the Araucanians are, for Indians, very high. For three centuries they have maintained their independence, first of Spain, then of the Spanish republics which succeeded Spain. They have cultivated oratory and poetry and the arts of peace, and have obtained not only from the Spaniards, who failed to subdue them, but from other observers also, the reputation of being generous, humane, courteous, hospitable, benevolent, and grateful. A South American kingdom of noble savages governed by a philanthropic French lawyer with a Roman title, would indeed be a political curiosity.

—The committee for the celebration in Florence of the fourth centenary of Michael Angelo (born March 6, 1474) have made public those portions of their programme which relate to the literary and artistic features of the celebration. They have decided to print in a luxurious edition Michael Angelo's complete correspondence, as well as his biography, and all the documents, both published and unpublished, that relate either to his life or to his works. Artists everywhere are to be invited to send in designs illustrating remarkable events in his life, and these are first to be photographed for publication and then collected in an album for preservation in some public library or museum. It is also proposed to reproduce, by photography, all the works of Michael Angelo in sculpture and painting, as well as the most important of his drawings. It would seem as if little remained to be done in this direction. The works of Michael Angelo that have not been photographed, either by Braun or by Philpot & Jackson, or by other well-known art-publishers in Europe, must be of slight importance. Other projects of the committee are the striking of a commemorative medal; the affixing of memorial tablets to the house at Caprese, in the Casentino, where Michael Angelo was born, and to the house at Settignano, where he was put to nurse; finally, and this the most important of all, the placing of his statue of "David" (recently removed, July 30, from the Piazza della Signoria to the Belle Arti) in the "Tribune" of the Uffizii, where it is proposed to surround it with casts of all his principal works in sculpture. This last proposition has, it seems to us, little to recommend it. The floor of the Tribune—not a large room at the best—is already crowded with its five marble statues (the Venus de Medicis, the "Venus of the Tribune," alone deserves the honors of the place); but, even if there were room enough, it is no place for statues much larger than life, as nearly all Michael Angelo's are. The "David," for instance, is nearly fifteen feet high. Besides, as all the principal works of the great sculptor, except the "Moses" and the "Pietà" at Rome, and the "Prisoners" or "Slaves" in the Louvre, are in Florence, what need of encumbering the beautiful Tribune with disproportioned and useless casts?

—'Ein Tag aus dem Leben des Königs Darius,' by Prof. Ferdinand Justi, in the collection of popular scientific essays by Virchow and Holtzendorff (Berlin: Carl Habel; New York: L. W. Schmidt), attempts a picture of the court of Darius I. The essay gives numerous details of the retinue of the court, their dress and food; some account of their way of passing the day of a festival, and of the architecture of Persepolis. We miss a reference to the Persian religion, the more as the day chosen for the picture celebrated the god Mithra. The tiara, besides the usual definition, is described by late writers as a covering for the head enveloping the temples and mouth; the mosaic of the Battle of Issus represents the Persian king with such a tiara drawn over his head-dress and covering his chin. The same form occurs on Parthian monuments. Another number of the same series gives a lively biography of Wallenstein, by Prof. Bernhard Kugler. Wallenstein resembles Maurice of Saxony in deserting his early evangelical companions to gain authority with the King, and in turning against his benefactor after accomplishing this object. Maurice, however, could reckon upon the loyalty of his country in carrying out his plans; the army would not follow Wallenstein. Wallenstein's character is still, owing to his obscure ways of speech, in some points uncertain; but his negotiations with Sweden are held to have been really treasonable. The delay before Nuremberg was strategy.

—The rather ostentatious friendship a few years ago between the United States and Russia, which to the English seemed very unnatural, as between a republic and a pure despotism, but which we were fond of explaining by the policy of Russia in regard to our civil war, no doubt had some connection with the similarity of situation as regards emancipation. The emancipation of the American slaves and of the Russian serfs came at very nearly the same time, and with good reason served to draw the two nations nearer together. The connection ought not to end here with a sentimental sympathy, but each nation should learn from the other's failures and successes how to deal with its own problems. The elements are nearly the same in both cases—an immense body of poor and ignorant freedmen suddenly invested with citizenship in the face of a small, cultivated, and haughty aristocracy. By direct enactment in the one case, by the irresistible force of circumstances in the other, these emancipated classes have become landowners, with results not far from the same in the two cases. A pamphlet by Herr von Wurstemberger, entitled 'Die gegenwärtigen Agrarverhältnisse Russlands,' discusses the state of things in Russia from the point of view of a German landed proprietor. He is, as might be expected, opposed to peasant proprietorship, and shows great ignorance as to the historical character of the Russian communities, considering, for example, the periodical redistribution of land as a novel and artificial feature. From whatever point of view, however, the discussion is interesting and timely; the unfavorable effects of the change upon agriculture are described in terms which would apply fairly enough to parts of the South, and which will remind readers of Turgenef's novels of some of his descriptions. On the whole, the view here presented of the prospects of Russian agriculture is more gloomy than we fancy would be appropriate to the South. The remedy proposed is perhaps too elaborate for application to American society, but seems every way adapted to Europe. In lack of the organized agricultural groups which are characteristic of European countries, he urges a systematic division of great estates, or portions of them, into moderate farms, to be leased for long terms to the most thrifty peasants, in such a way that the proprietor shall still retain a certain control over the system of cultivation, and that these farms shall serve as model farms to the mass of the peasants. A leading object is the development of a middle class, in which Slavonic countries are on the whole deficient.

—According to the Calcutta correspondence of the London *Times*, there is a gratifying increase in the production of native literature in India. An act passed some years ago furnished the means of estimating this productiveness by requiring the registration of every book and pamphlet, as well as of every press and printer. Moreover, "three copies of each book must be sold to the Government," in noticeable contrast with the English and American practice, under the copyright law, of appropriating without pay from two to five copies. And, finally, "a catalogue of the works is published quarterly in each local gazette, and every year the whole are, or ought to be, reviewed by the Director of Public Instruction." The writer selects for special comment the statistics of the Punjab and of Bengal. The former province is much the more backward of the two, its native publications averaging about 300 a year, against 900 in Bengal. Here, out of 1,937 Oriental works published in the four years closing with 1871, 1,600 were in the ordinary Bengalee—proof that "there is no need in this, as in other provinces, to offer state rewards for the encouragement of vernacular literature." Indeed, "the copyright of a good school-book is a fortune," as such have been known to reach an edition of 100,000. For the right to publish a geography, not less than £500 has been offered and refused. It is no wonder, therefore, that many a learned Pundit "finds the compilation of school-books pay him better than books which would permanently enrich the language and benefit the country." In the period alluded to, there appeared 118 elementary readers, 55 of a higher grade, 73 classical tales of ancient India, 56 books of verse for school use, 10 dictionaries, 44 grammars, 43 political and 3 physical geographies, 28 school histories, 45 arithmetics, 11 books on metaphysics, 9 on physics, and 11 on physiology and hygiene. In Bengal, as in the Punjab, religious works exceed those of fiction, though outnumbered by "poetry." They are, of course, largely controversial. Out of 253, 91 are Christian, 5 Mussulman, 77 Hindu, 38 of the Baistal sect, and 44 Brahmo.

BAGEHOT'S ENGLISH CONSTITUTION.*

MR. BAGEHOT has written a new and interesting introduction to his well-known work, giving his impressions as to the visible and probable results of the changes wrought in the English Constitution by the legislation which has taken place since 1867, the year in which the first edition appeared. As regards the most important piece of this legislation—the last extension of the suffrage—he says its effects are not yet fully revealed; indeed, it is as yet hardly possible to anticipate them with any approach to accuracy. What he calls the "deferential" element in English politics—that is, the willingness of voters to leave the management of affairs in the hands of the rich and educated class, and to confine themselves to choosing between issues selected and presented by "their betters"—was not seriously weakened by the Reform Bill of 1832, so that that bill really did not produce any striking or palpable change in the machinery of English politics. It altered the mode in which the House of Commons was filled, but did not change the men who filled it. Mr. Bagehot thinks the class which the Act of 1867 admitted to the franchise decidedly an ignorant and politically incompetent class, which has as yet made no impression on politics, because it does not know its own power. "We have not," he says, "enfranchised a class less needing to be guided by their betters than the old class; on the contrary, the new class needs it more than the old. The real question is, Will they submit to it; will they defer in the same way to wealth and rank, and to the higher qualities of which these are the rough symbols and the common accompaniments?"

He thinks the answer to this must depend largely on the tact and discretion displayed by the higher class of English politicians in preparing issues and soliciting votes. Should the upper classes in the two great parties throw aside all scruple in making promises, for the sake of winning popular support, or should they raise questions of a social character which are calculated either to excite extravagant expectations as to what may be done for the poor by legislation, or to array the poor as a body in hostility to the rich among such constituencies as now hold the ballot in England, he thinks the Act will prove "a great calamity to the whole nation."

The effect of the Reform Bill of 1832 on the composition of the House of Commons was retarded by the prolonged survival and influence of the leading statesmen of the "pre-32" period—Palmerston, Russell, and Derby, for instance. These statesmen having died or disappeared from the political arena, the Act of 1867 has completed the change which that of 1832 only began. The spirit of the House of Commons is no longer aristocratic but plutocratic; its most prominent statesmen are not men of ancient descent or great hereditary estate, but of substantial means, and connected more or less with the new trading wealth. But the plutocrats are, nevertheless, very fond of the aristocrats, imitate them, and desire to be of them. Mr. Bagehot thinks it would be very unwise for the latter to repulse this humble worship. They ought, on the contrary, to receive the new-comers cordially, and make common cause with them. It would be a terrible misfortune if the two classes should ever be found bidding against each other for the votes of the workingmen. Moreover, this union is necessary if the House of Lords is to be preserved. That House will not, he thinks, be overturned except in a storm, but it is folly to suppose that the same storm would leave the present settlement of landed property untouched. He thinks the *Alabama* case has demonstrated the desirableness of such a change in the mode of making treaties as will compel their submission to the legislature before ratification. The acrimonious criticism which is now bestowed on treaties in the House of Commons after they are made, and which often has so irritating an effect on the powers with which they have been made, would not be heard if there was a possibility that a change of ministry on it would throw the job into the hands of the Opposition. The fear of responsibility would sober it.

Turning to the foreign illustrations of the views propounded in the first edition, Mr. Bagehot cites the French Republic under Thiers as a proof of the feasibility of the nomination of the chief executive officer by the vote of the National Assembly in a non-monarchical state, something of which he had much difficulty in persuading people when he wrote his book. But he observes, and, as events have shown, truly, that the experiment was tried in France under very unfavorable conditions, partly owing to the want of "rationality" among French politicians—*i.e.*, "not reasoning power, but the power of hearing the reasons of others, comparing them quietly with one's own reasons, and being guided by the result"—which makes debating in French parliamentary bodies almost impossible; and partly owing to the small amount of check imposed on the French Assembly by the French nation. M. Thiers, he predicted, would stay in office as long as his office lasted, and that his dismissal would "be a change of polity, and might bring in a monarchy or empire"—a very accurate description of what has actually happened since Mr. Bagehot wrote.

Turning to America, he makes some observations which we commend to the attention of Mr. Gamaliel Bradford. He points out that, while the weak point of parliamentary government is instability in policy, the weak point of presidential government is that under it you cannot secure thorough or fruitful discussion of any subject in the legislature. If members of the legislature were philosophers you might. But they are not philosophers; they are commonplace men, with but an indifferent interest in questions, and a very strong one in their personal fortunes. If, therefore, a debate was a real attack on the Government, and might end in an adverse vote and a consequent change of ministry, the legislators would throw their whole faculties into it, and the country would listen to them eagerly. But when it can produce no effect whatever on the fortunes of the men in power, nobody cares much about it; the speeches are poor, and the public never thinks of reading them, and legislation is not influenced by them. All this he illustrates by the history of the financial legislation of the United States since 1861, and, one must admit, with great force.

* 'The English Constitution. By Walter Bagehot.' New and Revised Edition. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1873.

RECENT NOVELS.*

WE took great pleasure the other day in reading and praising a new novel by a new writer, 'Under the Greenwood Tree,' namely, by Mr. Thomas Hardy, and it was with considerable curiosity that we took up 'A Pair of Blue Eyes,' a later and rather more ambitious story by the same author. The first-named was so different from the familiar novels which crowd the shelves of the circulating library, it was so fresh and natural, and so amusing, that it serves as a high standard by which the author's subsequent productions have to be judged. But in any such comparison, full allowance should be made for the difference in the styles of composition, for the first story is hardly more than a sketch, drawn to be sure with great care, but without the laboriousness of effort which a novel requires, while 'A Pair of Blue Eyes' has all the machinery of a full-grown romance—the

* 'A Pair of Blue Eyes. A Novel. By Thomas Hardy, author of 'Under the Greenwood Tree,' etc.' New York: Holt & Williams. 1873.

'Ingo. The first Novel of a Series entitled Our Forefathers. By Gustav Freytag, author of 'Debit and Credit,' 'The Lost Manuscript,' etc. Translated from the German by Mrs. Malcolm.' New York: Holt & Williams. 1873.

'"He Cometh not," She Said. A Novel. By Annie Thomas (Mrs. Pender Cudlip).' New York: Harper & Bros. 1873.

'My Little Girl. A Novel. By the authors of 'Ready-Money Mortiboy.'' Boston: James R. Osgood & Co. 1873.

'The Wicked Woods of Tobereevil. By Miss Mulholland, author of 'Hester's History,' etc.' Boston: James R. Osgood & Co. 1873.

'Driven from the Path. A Novel. Edited by Dr. Charles Smart.' New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1873.

'Old Kensington. By Miss Thackeray.' New York: Harper & Bros. 1873.

'Innocent. By Mrs. Oliphant.' New York: Harper & Bros. 1873.

young heroine, the rival lovers, plenty of side-characters to fill the background of the stage, and a problem of human nature to be set clearly before the reader with all its far-reaching complications. In this case, the heroine is a girl with a somewhat intricate character—intricate, however, from its shallowness rather than from its depth. She is loving and attractive, and, it must be said, by no means backward in claiming admiration. Her main fault is timidity, the timidity of youth and inexperience. She has no mother to advise her, she has had no training to strengthen her, and the consequence is that where a craftier woman would have acted more wisely and have made herself out better than she really was, she hesitates, is fearful of the truth, and is crushed by the sternness of the man who takes her silence for shame and her piecemeal disclosures for detected guilt. Her story is as follows: At an early age she falls headlong in love with a young man who is of humble birth, and to whom her father objects on that account, and takes steps towards a secret marriage with him, but at the last moment her courage fails her, she sees how serious a matter it is, and she goes back home, promising to love him during his long absence in India. While he is away, his best friend appears and falls in love with her and she with him. She conceals from him the previous incidents of her life from fear of displeasing him, and certainly the way in which she has treated her earlier lover is one which she might very naturally wish forgotten. She is faithless to her first lover and cowardly to the second, who may well be excused for his hardness when we consider how much she tried to blind him, and how natural it is to exaggerate the badness of a fault that is not confessed with candor. He breaks with her, and the novel ends in a very peculiar, original, and heart-breaking way, which we will not here reveal.

In several ways the story is a clever one; it is often injured, however, by certain faults. Many of the talks are amusing, especially those in which the country-people are introduced, but the characters of higher birth are less entertaining. The plot is not over-well managed, and, to our thinking, the heroine might without harm have been made a little coyer. Her step-mother is well-drawn, but the two men stand in a rather improbable relation to one another, and their talk together about the girl they both love is neither very dignified nor very natural. Still, in spite of these blemishes, the novel is very well worth reading, and it is one that will tempt discussion about the quantity of moral guilt to be ascribed to the different characters; though fully to enjoy it one must be willing to overlook the slips of taste, which occasionally give an unintentional bad flavor to the book. The humorous parts, although they hardly belong to the story, are almost without exception very readable. We await a third novel of this author, which we see announced, with considerable interest.

Another volume of the 'Leisure Hours Series' is Gustav Freytag's 'Ingo,' in an English translation. It is the beginning of a series which shall sugar German history with a coating of fiction; and what the result is when a German novel-writer—and even so clever a man as Freytag—announces beforehand that he is going to be instructive as well as entertaining, any one on whom German novels have palled can judge for himself. In the present instance, our author had the heavy task of making the fourth century of the Christian era interesting. That the historical parts are accurate one can be tolerably sure from what he knows of Freytag, but students of early German history will prefer other books for investigation, and the effeminate novel-reader would, we fear, so far forget the necessity of culture as to read the advertisements in the daily papers in preference to such pages as the following:

"'We are at peace with Romans and Alemanni,' he said at last, cautiously; 'and we Thuringians do not fear the might of Cæsar. But thou thyself, as I perceive, wast in the neighborhood when the battle was fought, and thou hast since then avoided the villages of the Kattens, who, as thou sayest, are inclined towards the Romans. I do not ask thee to whom thou hast wished the victory.'

"'I give information without questions,' exclaimed the stranger, proudly. 'I have not taken Roman pay.'

"A ray of kindliness shot from the eyes of the chief. 'Thou art not an Alemann,' he said; 'from thy speech thou art one of the children of our gods, who dwell far in the east.'

"'A Vandal from the Oder,' replied the stranger, hastily," etc., etc., etc.

'"He Cometh Not," She Said,' is the touching and suggestive title of a poor novel by Mrs. Pender Cudlip, who is better known under her maiden name of Annie Thomas. The plot is absurdly impossible. There are two Philip Fletchers—one good, the other bad and fascinating, whom all the women find irresistible; and the novel tells the story of the bad one pretending to be the good one, and the complications to which this gives rise. There is, however, nothing worse in the novel than its utter silliness; and perhaps it may be recommended to people who are recovering from a severe illness, and who are still too weak to enjoy anything really good.

As disagreeable a book as one often finds is 'My Little Girl,' a novel manufactured by the authors of 'Ready-Money Mortiboy.' It is a story reeking in its most innocent passages with brandy-and-soda, and with accounts of black mistresses, mock marriages, illegitimacy, gambling, horse-racing, and every form of evil-doing, which cannot fail to have a bad effect upon readers who may mistake its vulgarity for profound knowledge of the world, and its offensive description of human degradation for a valuable picture of human nature and civilized society. It is, in fact, a shocking book; and it is not rendered more tolerable by the mock jocoseness and artificial sentiment with which it is filled.

'The Wicked Woods of Tobereevil,' in spite of its more ominous title, is an inoffensive work. It is even better than that—it is a story with a plot on which considerable pains have apparently been spent; it is well written, and, although the people are something like old acquaintances, there is a certain ingenuity in the way they are handled which makes this book quite readable. It will never be known as an English classic, but it holds a very fair place among decidedly second or third rate novels.

How much the writing of one novel aids the writing of another, by introducing a conventional type of human beings and an imaginary style of emotions, both of which are readily imitated by different writers, may be seen in numberless instances. For an example, we need not go further than to the novel just mentioned and to 'Driven from the Path.' The last-named seems to have been written with a good deal of care, but with very little else that goes to the composition of a readable story. It is an account of the life of a young Scotchman who leaves his unhappy home to go to sea. In time he reaches this country, and sees a great deal of life in the far West. He enlists in our army, has adventures with the Indians and Mexicans, serves against the South, and finally marries a very flippant young lady of New York, who bears a strong likeness to the bewitching heroine of 'Never Again.' Not always, however, is he busy in right-doing. In the course of his checkered life he has a good deal of experience with its dark corners, although, happily, this part is never dwelt on. There is, too, a villain in the story, who smokes, drinks, disbelieves in a revealed religion, and generally misconducts himself. Perhaps the best thing in it is the account of the hardships of our soldiers on the frontier, which bears the mark of having been written by one who knows his ground well. The poorest part is the love-making and the occasional side-talk of the author to an imaginary friend. It is not every writer who is as interesting as Fielding when he lays the story down for a few minutes and chats with the reader.

We hope that we are not too dilatory in our mention of Miss Thackeray's 'Old Kensington,' which needs no words of ours to commend it to a host of readers. It is a more ambitious story than any she has yet written; and if it is inferior to her 'Story of Elizabeth,' which reads like truth itself, it may yet be deserving of praise. The story is long and quiet; the plot is ingenious, though perhaps a trifle artificial; but the characters are all well-drawn, and the whole novel is marked by a repose which is never dulness. Miss Thackeray always draws young girls and children well, and here, with the honest, frank girl in contrast with her crafty friend, her usual skill does not desert her. Dorothea's earnest and affectionate nature is admirably described. Especially good is the way in which is told the gradual decay of her love for Robert Henley, as she sees him grow up, and she gets a clearer view of his vanity and selfishness. The story abounds, too, in clever, but not too clever, remarks about the different characters, and of delicate descriptions of scenes and places.

Mrs. Oliphant's 'Innocent,' on the other hand, we cannot commend. The heroine who gives her name to the novel is not, to our thinking, a successfully drawn character. There is little to attract in her mysterious ignorance of the ways of the world, and the weak and bad Frederick's mysterious knowledge of those ways. The plot is, in fact, rather disagreeable, not to mention the vulgar people who figure in it. In everything Mrs. Oliphant writes there is a great probability that there will be something very good, as her humor and observation seldom wholly desert her, and in this book the relations to one another of the Eastwood family is well, though not amusingly told. Probably the reason of Mrs. Oliphant's unevenness in her stories is the speed with which she composes them. Mr. Anthony Trollope seems to be almost the only living writer who can write all the time, and keep very near the same level; but of course it is the height of the level which determines the difficulty of the task.

Saggio delle opere di Leonardo da Vinci. (New York: B. Westermann & Co.)—Under this modest title Signor Carlo Belgiojoso has edited for the Royal Academy of Fine Arts in Milan, of which he is the president, twenty-four specimen sheets from the volume of autographs and drawings by Leonardo—

the famous 'Codex Atlanticus'—one of the chief treasures of the Ambrosian Library. The present publication is intended to commemorate the meeting of the Art Congress held at Milan in 1872. The meeting of the previous year had been held at Parma, and the honors of the occasion had been specially paid to the memory of Correggio. In proposing to hold the next meeting at Milan, that city was declared to be selected because it was for so many years the chosen home of Leonardo; and the Minister of Public Instruction, Signor Cesare Correnti, advised the Academy that, since Raffaelle and Michael Angelo, Rome and Florence, had yielded place to Leonardo, Milan ought to see to it that something was done to justify this preference. Signor Correnti had suggested to the Academy as the greatest honor they could pay to the memory of Da Vinci, the publication of an *editio princeps* of his works, but the difficultics in the way of such an undertaking seeming insuperable for the present, it was decided to publish a selection from the Ambrosian volume, accompanied by dissertations on the life and genius of the artist. The present volume is the result of the labors of those distinguished members of the Academy who were named as commissioners by Signor Correnti to take charge of the publication. After a preface by Signor Carlo Belgiojoso, giving a history of the undertaking, there follow a "Biographical Sketch of Leonardo," by Signor G. Mongeri; "Leonardo as Man-of-Letters and Man-of-Science," by Signor Gilberto Govi, the most succinct, methodical, yet exhaustive account of Leonardo's performances in these fields that we are acquainted with; "Leonardo as Sculptor and Painter," by Signor Camillo Boito, another excellent essay, written with soberness and impartial accuracy. The author shows a critical acquaintance with everything that has been written on the subject of Leonardo from Vasari down to the latest French or German essayist. Then follow the plates, printed in photolithography, by the process of Angelo Della Croce, of Milan, adopted by the commission after a careful examination of all the methods by which a fac-simile reproduction could be hoped for.

It would be impossible in a brief notice to give a particular account of these plates. They are introduced by a fac-simile of the famous letter written by Leonardo to the Duke of Milan (Lodovico il Moro) offering his services, and detailing his accomplishments as mechanician and engineer as well as architect, sculptor, and painter and worker in bronze. It may be noted, in passing, that of all the many specimens of Leonardo's handwriting contained in this volume, this is almost the only one which is not written backward, and which is comparatively free from abbreviations and traces of cryptography. This would seem to be an argument against the theory of those who, like Paciolo, explain this singular handwriting by the alleged fact that Leonardo was left-handed. It would seem that he could write like the rest of the world when he would, and he probably adopted this Oriental way of writing, with the additional inconveniences of abbreviations, omissions, and alterations, deliberately, for the purpose of concealment. The drawings that follow the letter to the Duke relate, with but few exceptions, to mechanical inventions. They are all accompanied with explanations in Leonardo's hand, written against each portion of the drawing that needs interpreting, exactly as in a Japanese picture. Here are the canal-lock, and the machine for digging a canal and making the banks at the same time, both of which, we believe, are ascribed as inventions to Leonardo. Then come machines for raising water, among them one in which the Archimedean screw is curiously employed; a drawing showing how mouths may be made for the extraction of water from a canal for irrigation, when the water is at different heights (the "inch of water" of California and Italy?); a curious speculation, with an accompanying sketch-map, as to the means to be employed to bring the Mediterranean Sea, the Red Sea, and the ocean to the same level; and on the same sheet an admirably clear drawing of a machine for cutting files, concerning which Professor G. Colombo, after saying that the conception of this machine is very remarkable when we consider the condition of machinery at that day, goes on to observe that, until within a few years, the operation of file-cutting was always a manual operation, performed with a hammer and a chisel, but that when machines were first introduced the method of working employed was not by percussion, but by abrasion, as if with a graver. The motive-power of Leonardo's machine is a weight regulated by a crank; this moves two cog-wheels, one of which pushes along, with a regular motion by means of a screw, the block to which the piece of iron that is to be a file is fastened, while the other works up and down, like a trip-hammer, the cutter fastened to a long handle. Here, as in almost all Leonardo's mechanical contrivances, and, as Signor Colombo acutely remarks, in almost all first attempts to substitute machinery for the human hand, the actual implement employed and the movements of the hand are imitated, whereas, as every such machine is brought to perfection, the natural processes, to call them so, are one by one eliminated, and purely artificial, mechanical movements are substituted. Further on, we find a flying-bridge to be built before a pursuing or after a retreating enemy, with several ways of tieing the tree-trunks of which it is composed so as not to waste cord; and a remarkable drawing of a *balista*, a sort of machine which seems to have interested Leonardo greatly, since there are several designs here for making them. The reader will do well to compare this drawing with one of a similar machine (with a different motive-power, however), given by Viollet-le-Duc ('Dictionnaire de l'Architecture,' article "Engin"), and drawn by him from sketches found in the album of Villard de Honnecourt. The resemblance is singularly striking. A more remarkable *balista* is given in Plate XI., where we find the principle of the "revolver" oddly enough applied. In this plate we have not only Leonardo's completed drawing of the machine, with the figures of the men that move it cleverly drawn, but also his rough sketch of the thing, where we seem to see him scratching about on the paper with his pen as he works out the crude idea. The operators of this machine are protected by just such a screen working on a pivot as is shown in Viollet-le-Duc (vol. v., p. 256). In Plate XII. is a design, rather amusing than feasible, for shoving off the ladders of the besiegers from a city wall, and on the same sheet a derrick, such as any Irish laborer would hail as an old acquaintance if he were to see it. Next in importance is a machine for shearing the nap of cloth, though we ought not to pass unnoticed a plate showing several methods of communicating motion in different directions by cogged wheels. One of the best drawings in the book is that of a machine for sawing marble; it is very complete, and abundant drawings are given for all the details. Two pages are nearly filled with notes and drawings to illustrate the means of flying, a matter that at one time greatly occupied Leonardo's thoughts. He wrote a treatise on the subject of the flight of birds, which still exists in a private library in Italy. In the corner of one of these sheets is a notion which curiously enough has occurred to some one in our century. It is a rough sketch of a lamp—for all the world like a carcel-lamp—the globe of which being filled with water "a great light will be produced," says Leonardo. A shop-window in Broadway has lately been lighted by horizontal fish-tail burners placed over hemispherical bowls of glass filled with water, by which means a light at once brilliant and diffused is thrown upon the goods below.

These hints of its contents will give the reader a notion of the work. The mode of publication is not very satisfactory. Three hundred copies only have been printed, of which the Italian Government has taken two hundred, thus leaving but one hundred to be distributed among the public of Europe and America. Only one copy has thus far reached this country, and we understand that not more than six copies can be placed at the disposal of the importers. Under these circumstances the price, $27 in currency, cannot be considered high, but it is to be regretted that the genius of Da Vinci, constantly occupied in schemes for the material improvement of society, could not have been honored by a more popular edition of this selection from his sketches.

The Young Lady's Friend. Edited and Revised by the Authoress of 'Unsettled Points of Etiquette.' With preface and introduction by the editress. (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1873.)—This book was better known a generation ago than it is likely to be again, though for many reasons the loss of popularity is to be regretted. It was written by a lady of Cambridge, Mass., whose incognito the present editress, as she chooses to call herself, still preserves, and was published in Boston in 1837. The motive for republishing the 'Young Lady's Friend' at this time is stated in the new introduction to be, among other reasons, the belief that it will prove "a most valuable auxiliary to mothers" in education, treating, as it does, of topics that belong to a daughter's education, such as preservation of health, improvement of time, dress, behavior to parents, relatives, gentlemen, teachers, friends, and to domestics, conduct at public places, female companionship; dinner and evening parties; ceremonious and friendly visits; conversation and mental culture. Napoleon once said to Madame Campan: "The old systems of education are good for nothing; what is wanted in order to train up young people properly in France?" "Mothers," said Madame Campan. This word struck the Emperor. "Right," said the great codifier and educator; "therein lies a complete system of education, and it must be your endeavor, Madame, to form mothers who know how to educate their children." Through mothers also the editress of the present volume would work upon the generations to come.

If we divide theories and treatises on the education of young ladies into two kinds, one of them being founded on the opinion that what is good in a girl must be put into her by her parents, guardians, godfathers, or godmothers; and the other, founded on the opinion that only harmonious development of all the faculties through the agencies of love and sympathy is needed, the 'Young Lady's Friend' would belong decidedly to both classes. It cannot be

said to push the first theory to the extent to which it was pushed by the great mistress of the school, Miss Edgeworth, whose books are apt nowadays to convey to an intelligent child the impression that good education means a combination of duress and fraud; indeed, this book, being intended for young ladies and young ladies' mothers, is necessarily conceived in a different spirit from the 'Early Lessons' and 'Rosamond.' The author of the 'Young Lady's Friend,' too, was apparently of a more humane, not to say human, and sympathetic disposition, than her English predecessor. Still, with all their differences, the book is partly cast in the Edgeworthian mould. If the mould is to be judged by what it has moulded, it might fairly be considered a new feather in Miss Edgeworth's cap that her writings should have been the efficient cause of a good part of the contents of this little hand-book. There is a good deal in it that is laughable, but most of it is laughable rather because the ideas of the world on the subject of education have become less serious than they were a generation ago; because the relation of parent and child has so greatly altered its character; and because most young ladies "between the age of fifteen and twenty" among the richer and more cultivated classes—to use the words of the author—as soon as they are old enough "to reflect upon their own characters, to consider in what respects they are weak, in what they are strong; to perceive their own deficiencies, and to wish to supply them," instead of applying themselves to the study of manuals for the conduct of life or being brought into habits of intimate communion with and taught to seek frequent counsel from "well-educated, judicious, and experienced mothers," begin usually to give themselves over to reflections of a very different kind, which tend to leave them, when they are at length married, with far more defined and precise notions about the relative merits of rival dressmakers, party-givers, noted german-leaders, and music-masters, than they have about the management of a household, and a much deeper interest in having dainty, elevated, and refined and poetic spirits, than in becoming good wives and mothers. Or else they begin as soon as possible to qualify themselves for admission to the sisterhood founded, we believe, by Miss Carolina Wilhelmina Amelia Skeggs, and brought to perfection in these latter days of French Imperialistic training-schools, American shoddy, and English loudness.

To be sure, this is an old song. There are, no doubt, a few select households left which keep alive the traditions of the elder time, in which no countenance is given either to the shocking thought, apparently well fixed in the mind of the "Authoress of 'Unsettled Points of Etiquette,'" that it is the "mission of America to vulgarize the world," or to the fancy that all that is needed to make the world go round is a well-filled library and pretty tastes. In such households as these the 'Young Lady's Friend' will be a "valuable auxiliary" to good mothers.

We are obliged to confess, however, that the general effect of the book is a little marred by the occasional introduction of illustrations and suggestions which are really amusing from their exaggerated gravity, or grave exaggeration, whichever it is. On page 182, for instance, is the heart-rending tale of a neglected aunt, told for the purpose of inculcating the necessity of respectful and affectionate treatment of relatives. The author says that she knows a family of very good people who err through thinking that they have a right to treat their relatives with great familiarity; the young ladies have aunts not much older than themselves—single ladies, and often invited to their sister's house; but, through the careless behavior of mother and daughters, these visits are "anything but agreeable." One of the aunts is invited to spend the day, pressed to come early, and spoken to as if her nieces expected to find real pleasure in her society. "She goes accordingly on the appointed day; both nieces are out, and so is their mother." Full of engagements, they do not return till time to dress for dinner; she amuses herself as she can "in the empty drawing-rooms, and perhaps wishes herself at home again." At dinner the assembling of the family is pleasant, the greetings affectionate, and now the aunt hopes to have a sociable time (the nieces would perhaps say a "good time") for the rest of the visit; but the ladies have scarcely retired to the drawing-room before one niece pleads an engagement; the other, who always lies down after dinner, retires to her room; and the mother, who is left, has so many notes to write and accounts to settle, that she is no company for her sister, "and again the unhappy guest wishes herself at home." At tea-time all assemble, except one niece, "who never takes tea, and always reads history at that hour." After tea, "all are going to a concert, and have provided no ticket for the aunt, as they thought she would prefer going home early." "The blank surprise in the face of the aunt" causes several offers of tickets, and the mother says one of the girls will be happy to stay at home and give up her ticket to her aunt, but such offers are not to be accepted; and this slighted relative returns home alienated from her family by their want of common politeness, and resolving that it shall be long before she will again leave her pleasant home to be so treated. This tale of the alienated aunt the editress would do well to strike out from any future editions of this really sensible book; *ne quid nimis* is a good rule, even in the instruction of so reckless a class as nieces.

A History of Greek and Roman Classical Literature. By Rev. A. Louage, Professor of Ancient Classical Literature at Notre Dame University, Indiana. (New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1873.)—Professor Louage's manual has many merits, and is as good as could be expected in a book which professes to be nothing more than a compilation from very second-rate authorities. The sketches of the several authors are for the most part very well done, with good judgment and in an interesting manner, and the book will undoubtedly do good service as a text-book. It is, however, rather a series of such sketches than a consecutive history of literature; the several authors are well and sufficiently delineated, but the history of the literature proper—its development at successive periods—is meagre and inadequate. No doubt, the matter given is that which is most needful to the class of students for whom the book is designed; the other, however, ought not to be neglected.

We find a few errors and a few misprints. *Choephori* (p. 53) is printed *Chœphori;* Aemilius Paulus (p. 138) is called *Aemilianus;* for Lex Sempronia (p. 139) we find *Semproniana;* on the same page the great orator M. Antonius receives the cognomen *Crassus;* Glabrio is printed *Glubrio* (p. 134); the prænomen Decimus is twice written *Decius.*

Whoever at the present day touches the great Pelasgian controversy does so at his peril, and here, as might be expected, Professor Louage has come to grief. Indeed, his ethnology is throughout astonishing. The Pelasgi "were allied to the Iranian tribes in the North of India, and consequently that element in the Greek language which exhibits an affinity for the Sanscrit is the Pelasgian"; while of the Hellenes, "this element of the Greek language is said to have had an affinity to the Persian" (p. 13). Still more wonderful is this (p. 109): "The old Roman language was a compound of Oscan and Pelasgian, the languages of the two peoples who first occupied Italy. The first is of German origin; the Oscans came from Lithuania. The second is of Asiatic origin, as we know." Hardly better is what is said of the Etruscans (p. 115): "Most of the poets [of the Romans] came from Etruria, . . . it is clear that in everything mental and spiritual their neighbors, the Etruscans, were their teachers. . . . To this pure culture the old Roman character owed its vigor, its honesty, and its incorruptible sternness." The queer combination, "honesty and incorruptible sternness," is probably a slip of the pen, for the style is generally correct. In one expression of the preface, and hardly anywhere else, do we find traces of the author's being of foreign birth: "Too extensive, and not systematic enough, *in order* to be given as a text-book." We think that the author hardly does justice to the character of Socrates, while that of Cicero he rates too high: "Antiquity may be challenged to produce an individual so virtuous and so perfectly amiable as Cicero" (p. 172). The illustrations—portrait busts—are disgracefully bad; we should be loth to believe that the great writers of antiquity were such fearful-looking objects.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*	
Bartholomew (G. K.), A Latin Gradual	(Wilson, Hinkle & Co.)	
Beadle (J. H.), The Undeveloped West	(National Pub. Co.)	
Belot (A.), Article 47: a Tale	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)	
Biographie des Musiciens Célèbres	(Schoenhof & Moeller)	
Burton (J. H.), History of Scotland, 2d ed., Vol. V	(Scribner, Welford & Armstrong)	$3 75
Castelar (E.), Old Rome and New Italy	(Harper & Bros.)	
Cooper (T.), New Biographical Dictionary	(Macmillan & Co.)	5 00
Connelly (Emma M.), Under the Surface: a Tale	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)	
Donnelly (Eleanor C.), Out of Sweet Solitude: Poetry	" "	
Daniel (Mrs. M.), The Heiress in the Family	(T. B. Peterson & Bros.)	1 75
Flammarion (C.), The Atmosphere	(Harper & Bros.)	
Garretson (Dr. J. E.), Thinkers and Thinking	(Macmillan & Co.)	
Glover (J. W.), St. Patrick at Tara: Cantata, swd	(Dublin)	
Holland (J. G.), Arthur Bonnicastle: an American Novel	(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.)	1 75
Jebb (R. C.) and Mather (R. H.), Electra of Sophocles	(John Allyn)	1 50
Longfellow (H. W.), Aftermath	(J. R. Osgood & Co.)	1 50
Macleane (Rev. A. J.) and Hart (Rev. S.), Thirteen Satires of Juvenal	(John Allyn)	1 50
Milligan (Rev. W.) and Roberts (Rev. A.), The Words of the New Testament	(Scribner, Welford & Armstrong)	2 25
Northrop (B. G.), Education Abroad, and Other Papers	(A. S. Barnes & Co.)	
Old Merry's Travels on the Continent	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)	
Practical Magazine, No. 8, swd	(J. R. Osgood & Co.)	1 00
Rawlinson (Rev. G.), Historical Illustrations of the Old Testament	(Henry A. Young & Co.)	
Reade (C.), A Simpleton	(Harper & Bros.)	
Reynolds (G. W. M.), Kenneth: a Tale, swd	(T. B. Peterson & Bros.)	1 00
Robinson (W. S.), The Salary Grab, swd	(Lee & Shepard)	
Stillé (Dr. A.), Epidemic or Malignant Cholera, swd	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)	
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Trench (Rev. R. C.), Plutarch: his Life, Lives, and Morals	(Macmillan & Co.)	1 00
Venable (W. H.), The School Stage	(Wilson, Hinkle & Co.)	
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During the last years of his life, Mr. Prescott devoted much time to the revision of his works, making numerous corrections and additions, some of which were inserted in the later English editions published in his lifetime, while a larger number have hitherto remained in manuscript. The whole, in accordance with his intention, are incorporated in the present edition, which the editor has endeavored to render still more valuable and complete by verifying doubtful references, adding occasional notes where statements in the text, based on insufficient authority, or called in question by recent investigators, needed to be substantiated or corrected, and aiding, by a careful supervision of the press, in securing that high degree of typographical accuracy which is especially desirable in standard works.

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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

SEPTEMBER 15.

LAST week was what might be truly termed a lively one in Wall Street. On Monday, the 8th, the announcement was made that the New York Warehouse and Security Co. was in trouble, which soon proved to be true; it was ascertained that their troubles were brought about by making large advances on railroad paper endorsed by certain individuals, among them Messrs. Francis Skiddy and Sheppard Gandy. These gentlemen were forced to suspend, and the Company is left completely in the lurch for the time being, with its own paper soon to mature, which it will be unable to meet. The above failures were followed by another and more important one on Saturday—Messrs. Kenyon Cox & Co., of which firm Mr. Daniel Drew is a general partner, and therefore liable for its debts. The suspension of Kenyon Cox & Co. was caused by their endorsing the paper of the Chicago & Canada Southern R. R. Co.—a road now in process of building, and in which Messrs. Drew, Tracy, and other capitalists are largely interested. These different failures have had a bad effect upon the Street, and quite an unsettled feeling and want of confidence has existed ever since. The suspension of Kenyon Cox & Co., it is thought, will be but temporary. The firm stood very high among Stock Exchange houses, and was almost thought to be beyond the reach of disaster, owing to the connection of Mr. Drew with the house and his great wealth.

The weekly statement of the city banks is again unfavorable. The surplus reserve is entirely lost in both State and National banks. The loss in reserve is $3,287,400, of which $1,962,700 was in legal tenders, which have probably been sent West.

The following are the statements for the past two weeks:

	September 6.	September 13.	Differences.
Loans	$288 374,200	$284,536,200	Dec. $3,838,000
Specie	21.767 000	20,442,300	Dec. 1,324.700
Circulation	27,355.500	27 383.400	Inc. 27,900
Deposits	212,772,700	207,317,500	Dec. 5 455.200
Legal Tenders	38,679,900	36 717 200	Dec. 1.962 700

The following shows the relation between the total reserve and the total liabilities:

	September 6.	September 13.	Differences.
Specie	$21,767 000	$20,442,300	Dec. $1,324,700
Legal tenders	38,679,900	36,717,200	Dec. 1,962,700
Total reserve	$60.446,900	$57,159,500	Dec $3,287.400
Circulation	27,355,500	27,383,400	Inc. 27,900
Deposits	212,772,700	207,317,500	Dec. 5,455,200
Total liabilities	$240,128,200	$234,700,900	Dec. $5,427,300
25 per cent. reserve	60,032 050	58,675,225	
Excess over legal reserve	414,850		
Deficiency in 25 per cent. reserve		1,515,725	Dec. 1,930,575

The annexed table separates the National from the State banks:

	National.	State.	Total.
Loans	$245,117,000	$39,419,200	$284.536,200
Specie	17,655,500	2,786.800	20,442,300
Legal tenders	32,500,800	4,216,400	36,717,200
Deposits	177,850.500	29,467.000	207 317,500
Circulation	27,351,200	32,200	27 383,400
Percentage of reserve to total liabilities	24 44-100 p.c.	23 74-100 p.c.	24 35-100 p.c.

The stock market exhibited more signs of activity, as naturally might have been expected, in view of the number of failures which have taken place. Prices on the entire list, with the exception of Wabash, have been well maintained, while Pacific Mail has taken another jump, which carried the price up to 41⅜ from about 41. Wabash declined 6½ per cent. from the highest quotation of the week (from 65¾ Monday to 59¼ Saturday), owing to the trouble in which Mr. Drew has found himself involved in Canada Southern matters, a large amount of stock being thrown upon the market Saturday. Western Union Telegraph has been very active through out the week, and the party controlling it seems disposed to advance the price to the neighborhood of par as fast as opportunity offers.

The following shows the highest and lowest sales of the leading stocks at the Stock Exchange for the week ending September 13, 1873:

	Monday.		Tuesday.		Wed'day.		Thursday		Friday.		Saturday.		Sales.
N. Y. C. & H. R.	103⅞	104¼	103¾	104¼	103¼	104	103¾	103½	103½	104⅜	103⅜	104⅛	65.700
Lake Shore	90½	91⅝	90¾	91⅝	90¾	91¼	90½	91¾	91¼	92	90½	92	118,700
Erie	58¼	58⅞	58⅜	58⅝	58⅝	58⅜	58⅜	59¼	59	59⅜	59⅜	59¼	27,300
Do. pfd	....	71⅛	70	72	....	....	....	71½	64¼	71⅜	....	....	....
Union Pacific	24⅜	26	25¾	26¼	25½	25⅞	24¾	25½	25⅝	25¼	23⅝	25	56,000
Chi. & N. W.	59½	61	60⅞	61½	60	60⅜	59	59½	59¼	61	58¾	60	9,900
Do. pfd	77⅞	79	79¼	....	78	....	78	78¾	78	78½	77	78	1,800
N. J. Central	101	....	101	....	101	....	101	....	101½	....	....	....	800
Rock Island	105½	107⅜	106¾	107½	106½	107¼	105¾	106¾	106⅝	107½	105	107	29,200
Mil. & St. Paul	46¼	48	46½	48	46¼	47	45½	46½	46⅜	47⅛	45	47¼	22,300
Do. pfd	69	....	69¼	69¾	69	70	68¾	69½	70	....	....	....	700
Wabash	64¼	65⅜	6	66	62⅝	65½	61	63½	62	63¾	59¼	63½	59,500
D. L. & Western	98¼	99½	99⅜	99½	99	99½	98¾	....	98½	99	....	....	2,000
B. H. & Erie	2½	....	2½	2⅝	2½	....	2⅜	2¼	2⅜	....	2	2¼	5 600
O. & M.	37¼	38⅜	38	38½	37⅜	38¼	37	37⅜	37⅝	38⅜	37½	38½	69 300
C. C. & I. C.	28½	29	2-⅜	29¼	28½	29½	28¾	28⅜	29¼	....	28½	28⅞	7,300
W. U. Tel.	88⅛	90⅜	89⅜	90¼	88½	89⅜	87⅜	89¼	89½	90⅜	88⅜	91	279,-00
Pacific Mail	40⅜	43	41⅞	43½	41	42⅜	41	41½	42½	44⅜	42⅜	44¼	163 500

Government bonds have been quite active, owing to the call recently made by the Comptroller of the Currency on new National banks to deposit bonds in Washington in order to obtain their notes, within a limited time, or forfeit their right to have them. The German Government have recently purchased $5,000,000 more new United States five per cent. bonds, making in all $17,000,000 purchased thus far.

OFFICE OF FISK & HATCH,
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Net Assets, December 31, 1872,	Eleven Millions.
Total Income for 1872,	$3,364,282
Losses paid in 1872,	806,000
Surplus fund returned policy-holders, 1872,	480,000

Expenses of management, 10 per cent. of income.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 25, 1873.

The Week.

THE week has been literally filled, as far as news is concerned, by the panic in Wall Street. The mind of "the Street" was disturbed in the summer by the failure of the Brooklyn Trust Company, and the discovery that it had been involved by advances on bonds of a new and badly managed railroad—the New Haven and Willimantic—and had been literally plundered by its own managers. This was followed by that of the Mercantile Warehouse and Security Company, owing to advances on bonds of the Missouri, Kansas, and Texas Railroad, and by the failure of the firm of Kenyon Cox & Co. on the 13th inst., of which Daniel Drew is a member, owing to advances to the Canada Southern Railroad. All this produced a high degree of nervousness and distrust, which was aggravated by the increasing reluctance of English investors to purchase American railroad securities, and which was converted into a panic on the morning of Thursday last by the failure of Jay Cooke & Co., owing to their connection with the Northern Pacific. A wild sacrifice of stocks at the Exchange followed, with some failures of minor houses. On Friday morning the situation was aggravated by the failure of another important house, Messrs. Fisk & Hatch, and then began a run on the Union Trust Company, which was supposed to be connected with or managed in the interest of the railroad interest known as the "Vanderbilt clique," and a run on the Fourth National Bank, which had large dealings with brokers. The Trust Company bore the pressure for a while very well, but the difficulty of raising money on its securities increased as the crisis lasted. On Friday evening, too, a defalcation was discovered on the part of the Secretary, and on Saturday morning it suspended. The Bank of the Commonwealth, which has long been considered unsound, closed its doors as a measure of precaution. The result was that the Stock Exchange, to use a boating phrase, went all to pieces. The excitement became so great that business could hardly have been transacted, even if the banks had not begun to refuse each other's certified checks. Under these circumstances, it was resolved to close the Stock Exchange, to allow the brokers to cool off—a tolerably high-handed measure, which has, however, met with general approval. In judging it, it has to be borne in mind that speculation did not cease when the crash began. There was still buying "on margin"; and stocks continuing to fall, the calling in of the margins aggravated the prevailing terror and confusion.

On Sunday, the President and Secretary Richardson arrived from Washington, and held a long consultation with a large number of financial magnates at the Fifth Avenue Hotel, as to the part the Government should play in restoring order. The financial magnates, as might have been expected, tried hard to extract an issue of a part or the whole of the $44,000,000 of greenbacks, which, as we have several times tried to show, ought legally to have been destroyed long ago, but which Mr. Boutwell kept and persisted in calling a "reserve," and $5,000,000 of which Mr. Richardson took upon himself to issue without any authority of law last fall. He has since, however, it would appear, come to take a better view of his position, and on Tuesday both he and the President, to their great credit, firmly refused to make any issue of "the reserve," frankly admitting that it would be contrary to law to do so, even if it would serve any good purpose. What they did agree to do was to purchase bonds with greenbacks, and thus to some extent relieve the money market. The action of the banks was, however, more important than the action of the Government, because if they refused to stand by each other, it is probable that Monday would have driven them all into suspension, and the result would have been a general and prolonged crash. They, however, agreed to "pool their greenbacks" by taking certificates based on securities, 75 per cent. on ordinary ones and par on Government, at the Clearing-House, instead of money. They were thus on Monday morning able to present an unbroken front to the enemy; there was no run, and the crisis seemed over, but late in the afternoon of Tuesday it was renewed by the failure of Henry Clews & Co.

The economical objections to the use of "the reserve" are of course obvious. It would be an increase of an irredeemable currency, which would unsettle the value of all property, inflate prices, and stimulate instead of allaying speculation, and which it would be impossible to withdraw without causing a renewed stringency, to be followed by a renewed panic. The effect of Mr. Boutwell's performance last fall, even on a small scale, was warning enough, even if the experience of other countries did not supply it in abundance. There are plenty of schemes before the public for enabling the banks to prevent panics. Some say specie payments would do it, others free banking, and others the issue of additional currency by the Treasury under proper restrictions, at certain times. But it is safe to say that panics will occur under all systems until human nature is changed. Great houses will overtrade and will make imprudent advances; and, when they get into difficulties, bankers will be restrained by fears of one sort or another from coming to their rescue in time; and when they fail, people will get frightened, no matter how voluminous the currency may be or on what it rests. The utmost we can ever hope is, that bank managers may so grow in wisdom and understanding that they may be able to stop panics before they spread. This can always be done; but then, before a panic is stopped, a bank has to be sure that it *is* a panic, and not a "scare" got up to draw money from them.

The panic, like all panics, has a ludicrous side, of course. The main cause of it has undoubtedly been the overissue of railroad paper, due to the falling off in the sales of railroad bonds in this country under the stringency of the money markets through last fall and winter, and partly to the closing of the English market to American railroad securities under the influence of repeated cases of American rascality—such as the Emma Mine, fathered by the American Minister, and General Fremont's swindling Texas enterprise, and the default made by several new roads in the payment of their coupons. This has, of course, rendered even good bonds of new roads unsalable abroad, and has thus embarrassed the promoters of the roads and their creditors here. In the fever of excitement, however, the newspapers, while wailing in one column over the want of "national highways" and the high rates of freight, and the difficulty of access to the markets of the world, were in another treating railroad-building as a disreputable undertaking, calling new roads "wild-cat roads," and people who put their money into them "gamblers" and other hard names, and making the advances to the Missouri, Kansas, and Texas, and the Canada Southern, and the Midland the text of all sorts of solemn sermons. The firm of George Opdyke & Co. being connected with the Midland, they settled that as other railroad firms had failed, it ought to fail too; and the reporters called two or three times a day on Mr. Opdyke, to know if he had failed, and if not, when he would fail. In vain he assured them he had not, and would not. They would take no denial, but compromised with him finally by announcing that he had "temporarily suspended," which he promptly denied. The *Commercial and Financial Chronicle* has done good service in calling attention to the fact that all the railroads which have brought about the leading failures, except the Northern Pacific, have been completed to through connections, are ample security for their bonds, and are doing, or are certain to do before long, a prosperous business. Holders of their bonds, therefore, ought to think twice before sacrificing them in the present excitement.

It is not yet settled which of the morning papers is under the control of Jay Gould. The *Times* has been accused of helping him to "bear" Erie, the *Tribune* of helping him to "bull" gold, the *World* of aiding him generally in all sorts of odd jobs. It is surprising that he has not been made to figure more prominently in the present panic. Indeed, he seems to have gained reputation by it, as he made an appearance as a supporter of falling stocks.

Mr. William Windom, Chairman of the Senate Cheap Transportation Committee, has probably learnt within the past week more about cheap transportation than he ever before knew, through the failure of the house of Jay Cooke & Co.; or, in other words, of the Northern Pacific Railroad. Mr. Windom is one of the directors of this road, of which the authorized share capital is $100,000,000. Of this sum, two millions were required to be subscribed and 10 per cent. paid in before the organization of the Company. This ten per cent., or $200,000, was paid in, and the gentlemen who paid it in thus obtained control of a line two thousand miles long, running from Lake Superior to Puget Sound, and a land grant of 47,000,000 acres, or 74,423 square miles, with full power to issue bonds, which they at once proceeded to do at the rate of $50,000 a mile, creating a mortgage payable in thirty years at $7\frac{3}{10}$ per cent. in gold. The secrecy with which the operations of the road have been conducted makes it impossible to say how much it has cost per mile; but it is extremely unlikely, when commissions and profits to construction companies are taken into account, that it will fall below $50,000. At this rate, the six hundred miles constructed have cost some $30,000,000, on which the interest would be over two millions. This amount the road cannot earn, and its inability to make good the advance of Jay Cooke & Co. for $15,000,000 is not unnatural.

A very competent observer, writing from San Francisco to the *Railroad Gazette* on the eve of the late election, compares the prevailing fierce denunciation of the Central Pacific Road with the extravagant demonstrations five years ago over its completion. In seeking for the cause of this wonderful change of sentiment, he finds, first, that the railroad, through no fault of its own, has disappointed popular expectation, particularly in regard to the enhancement of the price of land. It had on all interests a levelling effect, and "the real-estate market suffered an immediate and great collapse." In the next place, there was the road's interference in politics; "among the few real grievances of the people against the Railroad Company, this is perhaps the greatest and most obnoxious." Third, the refusal to pay assessed taxes. On this head the correspondent remarks that in Placer County the Company insisted repeatedly, through its attorneys, "that the road ought to be taxed for no more than the ties and rails are worth as old wood and iron—say, $6,000 a mile"; whereas a few years ago the Company's documents persuaded the people that "the taxable property of their county would be increased some $13,000,000, or thereabouts, the taxes on which would more than compensate them for the subsidy asked." Finally, the road has been guilty of favoritism in rates, especially directed against the troublesome inhabitants of Placer County. As for the accusation of extortionate freight charges, Mr. Powers meets it by presenting a table in which Central Pacific rates per distance of equal miles are compared with Illinois Central rates according to the latest enactments in that State. It will interest the Grange orators to learn that the rates established by their influence as equitable are nearly or quite double those which the California monopoly adheres to; and they will perhaps take to heart this summing up of the grievances of their California brethren: "The farmers are very far from the great grain markets of Europe, the tariff oppresses them, the San Francisco middlemen gnaw their profits, the men who charter ships devour their hard-earned gains, while the railroad refuses to pay its share of taxes. Among all these evils and inflictions, the railroad is close before their doors; they can see that, and they strike at it for all the others which are unseen."

The organs of Governor Shepherd, of the District of Columbia "Ring," are making a great outcry because no specifications of the charges made against him are brought forward. They say that if every man who is accused of malversation in office by a newspaper is to be disqualified from office-holding, the President might as well abandon all idea of filling any vacancies. This is very true, but the appointment is nevertheless scandalous. In the first place, the charges, as a matter of fact, are as precise as the nature of the case admits. The new Governor is charged with having, through the Board of Works, involved the District in enterprises which have made him rich and the District bankrupt, and with having done this in flagrant violation of law. The President is charged with having appointed him to the office of Governor while laboring under this grave suspicion, without any examination into the truth of the charges. When such a staunch Republican paper as the Boston *Advertiser* calls this proceeding "another instance of a weakness of the President, which the people find it hard to reconcile with a faithful performance of his duty or a careful regard for the public welfare," and says that "it would be well for him to bear in mind that he is responsible for every member of the Washington Board of Public Works, and that for all their delinquencies, when they are ascertained, the Republican party, whose official head he is, will suffer harm," it is absurd for the Administration to try to bolster itself up with editorials in petty local sheets, proving the popularity of the new Governor by the production of resolutions passed by the Republicans "of all the twenty-two election districts." We have heard a great deal of the credulity of the President, but if he is imposed upon by party resolutions and platforms of this sort, he must indeed be a simple-minded man.

Mr. Filley, the St. Louis postmaster, has made a statement with reference to the assessments in his office, which clears up the whole matter. It seems that being unaware of any provision in the civil-service rules making it illegal to assess clerks, and having gathered from common report that taxation of this kind was an old-established custom in the service, he collected $1,648, not for any political purpose, but to provide for emergencies. Having obtained lately a copy of the rules, he sees that he is in the wrong, and therefore returns the money to the clerks. This nefarious proceeding, which in an ordinary business would not merely cost an official his place, but make it very difficult for him ever to get another, has given Mr. Filley only the trouble of returning his stolen money. Theft—or at least obtaining money under false pretenses—we take to be the proper term for a process which consists virtually in getting money by a fraudulent representation by one subordinate to another that unless he contributes to a fund (the fund being illegal), he will be removed by the head of the concern.

It seems from the recent convention of the Spiritualists at Chicago that the regular Spiritualists were some time ago "captured" by the Free-lovers under Victoria Woodhull, who have since been "running" the organization. The Woodhull faction having in this convention secured the passage by a large vote of resolutions pledging the body to a very disgusting statement of doctrine, the minority bolted. Judge Holbrook made a formal protest on their behalf, stating that their reasons for withdrawing from the convention were that Woodhull, as soon as she was elected president of the convention, treated the election as an endorsement of her "aspirations to the Presidential chair of the United States," and conducted herself accordingly; that having failed in her satanic ambition, and being abandoned by her associates in the woman-suffrage movement, she became the most unscrupulous advocate of "free-love in its worst features." This the signers of the protest hold to be an element foreign to true Spiritualism, and abhorrent to the views, sentiments, and sensibilities of cultivated and refined society. The speeches at this meeting have been so indecent that any newspaper publishing them probably makes itself liable to penalties provided by the statutes relating to obscene literature.

Mr. Joseph Arch and Mr. Charles Bradlaugh have both reached America. While the former is pursuing his investigations in Canada as to the opening afforded to agricultural laborers in this country, the latter is pursuing his enquiries, which relate to the feasibility of establishing a republic in England, at the Fifth Avenue Hotel in this city. Everything is being done to assist Mr. Arch, who has made a plain and evidently honest statement of his object in coming here. It is rather a curious commentary upon Bradlaugh's terrible denunciation of the tyranny of the English aristocracy that the first dinner-party made for Mr. Arch on his arrival in Canada should have been given by the Governor-General, Lord Dufferin. It is probably only among the noble families of Boston that he will find himself absolutely cut off from all human intercourse.

The Court of Queen's Bench has at last tried the American prisoners captured in the Gordon-Gordon raid, and let them off with a twenty-four hours' imprisonment. The trial seems to have been conducted in a very amicable and decent manner, Governor Austin, of the invading State of Minnesota, being invited to take a seat on the Bench with the Canadian judges representing the violated territory of Manitoba. The investigation into the Pacific Railroad scandal still continues at Ottawa. From Sir Hugh Allan's and Sir John Macdonald's testimony, it is clear that large sums of money were contributed for election expenses by the former, in consideration of the support of the Pacific Railroad scheme by the Government. So far as this part of the case goes, the following letter seems to be enough:

"MONTREAL, 30th July, 1872.

"DEAR SIR HUGH: The friends of the Government will expect to be assisted with funds in the pending elections, and any amount which you or your Company shall advance for that purpose shall be recouped to you. A memorandum of immediate requirements is below:

"Very truly yours, (Signed) G. E. CARTIER.

"Now wanted—Sir John A. Macdonald, $25,000; Hon. Mr. Langevin, $15,000; Sir G. E. Cartier, $20,000; Sir John A. additional, $10,000; Hon. Mr. Langevin, $10,000; Sir Geo. E. Cartier, $30,000."

These sums were paid, Sir Hugh says, though he did not see how the money was to be "recouped," and it never has been. In all, his expenses were $350,000, the sum originally mentioned in Mr. Huntington's charges having been $360,000. Of course, all the witnesses swear that their motives were pure. Sir Hugh wished to support the Government because he approved of its general policy, and thought it really deserving of support by all who really cared for the development of the resources of the country. A Canadian correspondent writes to complain of our calling the witnesses in this case "Government" witnesses, and says the names were taken from a list published by the prosecution. There is no prosecution, however, and no cross-examination, and if we do not call them "Government" witnesses, we do not well know what to call them.

Captain Buddington and the greater part of his company from the *Polaris* have arrived at Dundee, Scotland, and are now on their way to this country. As was anticipated, they fell in with whaling vessels, which picked them up while yet far from being in an exhausted condition, and they have not the loss of a man to report. Their experience and that of the ice-floe party certainly form one of the most romantic chapters in the history of Arctic adventure.

The war between church and state still continues in Germany, and thus far certainly the arm of flesh has had the better of it. Archbishop Ledochowski's seminary in Posen has been closed, and will remain closed until he and the regent of the seminary shall have submitted themselves to the law. At Speyer, Bishop Haneberg has been fined for libel for having spoken of somebody's mixed marriage as "concubinage," but has appealed from the sentence; and another bishop (of Fulda) is awaiting trial for a similar offence. Bishop Martin of Paderborn is, however, avenging the church by praying bitterly—if we may use the phrase—for her persecutors. Those who have listened to the petitions of our Congressional chaplains know what use a passionate ecclesiastic may make of this weapon. In Switzerland, a considerable body of the native Catholics, both lay and clerical, are strongly and openly supporting the state against the recent Papal pretensions in the matter of the appointment of bishops. At Zurich, which is nothing if not Catholic, the cantonal government has just expelled a priest from his parish for going into France to make ultramontane speeches.

In Spain, things look somewhat better. The Government troops have occupied Malaga, and Cartagena seems to be on the point of surrendering. On the other hand, the insurgent fleet is wandering up and down the coast levying contributions, and at the last accounts was on the point of bombarding Alicante, and was only delayed by the remonstrances of the British Admiral. But it must be admitted that the courage of the friends of the Government at Madrid is kept up by amusingly small crumbs of comfort. For instance, one of them announced the other day, as a great thing, that the extraordinary loan asked for by Castelar had been voted by the Cortes. Of course, all that this means is that he may raise the money if he can. That he cannot borrow anywhere at present appears one of the most notorious facts of the day; and that he will not be able to borrow until affairs look better, and until the revenue is put on a much better footing, is almost equally certain, although a rumor is afloat that the Bank of France has agreed to advance $20,000,000. The winter will help the regular Government against the Carlists; but those who look for the speedy subsidence of the trouble in that quarter need to be reminded that old Don Carlos kept the field for seven years against the old Spanish army in its best condition, aided for a portion of the time by a British Legion.

One of the most significant events of the day in Europe is the visit of Victor Emanuel to Vienna and Berlin. The Ultramontane journals are beside themselves at the thought of it, and the comments of the French press betray the usual amount of misinformation, jealousy, and meddlesome disposition towards foreign nations. While all parties in Italy, except the clerical (which studiously affects indifference), are singularly unanimous in approval of the royal journey, even a journal like the *Débats* represents public sentiment there as divided between a party favorable to a French alliance and another favorable to a German alliance—a bit of imagination, not to say invention out of the whole cloth, which breaks down the patience of Italian journals of decidedly French proclivities, and impels them to ask if it is really possible to argue with Frenchmen. Anything more exasperating, indeed, than some of these articles, or more imprudent as affecting the relations of France to the rest of Europe, it would be hard to conceive of. But the writers think nothing of resenting the king's movements as a conspiracy against the free action of France, and of menacing Italy with the consequences of "placing herself with respect to France on the same footing as Germany"—language which, as in the case of the South after reconstruction, makes one almost regret that the German occupation has come to an end. For the rest, the French instinct, like the clerical, is probably not at fault in this matter, and Victor Emanuel's cordial reception by a late enemy, and a former ally whose friendship he will not lightly forfeit, certainly bodes no good to schemes which have their origin in French arrogance and restlessness, or in Papal ambition. He takes with him his minister of foreign affairs, and perhaps his new premier, Minghetti. They will hardly seek to conceal the settled conviction of their countrymen that any change in French politics which threatens to revive the question of the temporal power, and to incite the clerical faction to fresh deeds of disloyalty and obstructiveness, will have one inevitable effect—to unite Italy and Germany in a common policy and a common defence.

THE WALL-STREET CRASH.

DURING such a crisis as that which has taken place in Wall Street during the past week, the newspapers and the "prominent financiers" whom the reporters "interview" at their offices and on the sidewalks form a kind of Greek chorus, which looks on as the tragedy unrolls itself, and explains the various incidents to the spectator, and draws the appropriate moral. According to this authority, the whole trouble comes from "railroad bonds," which is to a certain extent true. The unsuccessful attempt of two or three houses to help on the construction of great lines of railroad, pending the sale of bonds, has resulted disastrously. It was a mistake on the part of these houses to engage in enterprises of this kind to an extent that put them in jeopardy in case of miscarriage; it was especially a mistake on the part of a house filling a position towards the Government which Messrs. Jay Cooke & Co. did. But then it does not follow from this, as so many commentators would have us believe, that there is anything nefarious about railroad-building, or that it is improper under all circumstances for bankers or moneyed institutions to lend to railroad builders, or that the issue of railroad bonds for purposes of construction is an unworthy act. It is the business of banks and bankers to advance money for all sorts of enterprises which are likely to pay, railroad-building as well as other things. Had bankers always refused to do so, it is safe to say that one-half the railroads in the country would not now be in existence. The practice is not peculiar to the United States. As Mr. Bagehot says, in his work on Lombard Street: "If any nation wants even to make a railway, it is sure to come to this country, the country of banks [England], for the money. It is true that English bankers are not themselves very great lenders to foreign states, but they are great lenders to those who lend. They advance on foreign stocks, as the phrase is, with a margin; that is, they find eighty per cent. of the money, and the nominal lender finds the rest. And it is in this way that vast works are achieved with English aid which, but for that aid, would never have been planned." The question of a money-lender's duty in this matter, as in so many others, is one of degree; or, in other words, a question of how much. It might have been quite right for Jay Cooke & Co. to advance $100,000 to aid in the construction of the Northern Pacific, and yet quite wrong for them to advance $500,000. The enterprise was clearly too large for any one house to shoulder. The line was of enormous length, for the most part through a howling wilderness, and led out into a wilderness, and the sale of bonds to small investors was a source of supply which, if not essentially precarious, could only have been prevented from being precarious by making unwarrantable representations to simple-minded people as to the prospects of the road. We have no hesitation in saying, as we have often said before in these columns, that the construction of new lines of railroad by what are called "popular loans"—that is, the retailing of bonds to small investors—constitutes what has been really scandalous and disreputable in recent railroad-building. Some of these bonds, of course, have turned out very good; but a large number, if they have not turned out worthless, have proved incapable of paying interest from the outset to the unfortunate purchasers. The making of a new railroad is essentially a hazardous and uncertain enterprise; it ought, therefore, to be left to the capitalist class—that is, the class which can afford to wait long for the returns on its investments, or can afford to lose its money altogether. The business of enlisting the poor in it by the contribution of their small savings is a business on its very face tainted with fraud, and one of the worst signs of the times is the extent to which railroad projectors have been able to induce the religious papers to engage in it. In fact, the puffing and sale of railroad bonds, advertised in their columns, has been made for some years back a prominent feature of the conduct of several of these periodicals. If the late explosion in Wall Street puts a stop to this nefarious practice, it will have done a good deal for the purification of public morals. We have again and again been solicited to recommend bonds to investors as a condition of having them advertised in our columns, and we have invariably declined, for the simple reason that, however high our opinion of the security, we had no right to back it with other people's money. A rich capitalist would not be influenced by it, and a poor widow, or minister, or farmer ought not to be.

But is it right to construct railroads by the sale of bonds—that is, by borrowing money at all? Some of the objections which have been made to this system are on their face absurd. There is no moral objection to borrowing money from a shrewd and well-informed investor upon any security with which he is satisfied. If capitalists are willing to supply money to construct a road, and take mortgage bonds on it, it is folly to say that they ought not to be allowed to do so. Whether this is a good way, from a business point of view, to have roads constructed, and whether any road can, from a business point of view, be properly constructed for which the capital has not been supplied by subscriptions to stock, is another matter, on which there is a variety of opinion. The first argument in favor of construction by loans is, however, a very powerful one, viz., that the great bulk of the railroads built in this country within the last fifteen years could not have been built in any other way. Those who think that they ought to have been built by the stockholders are under the influence of the traditions of the days of small things, when railroading first began, and the funds for a new fifty or seventy-five mile line were supplied by a small knot of men in the immediate neighborhood, who could themselves supervise its working, look after the accounts, and attend the elections. Nowadays, when the cost of a road amounts to millions, and the money has to be raised in England and Germany, and Boston and New York, for investment in Texas and Minnesota, investors will not become stockholders unless they know personally the projectors of the road, and have confidence in their character. Stockholding means exposure within certain limits to all the risks of the enterprise, including total loss, and men will not subject themselves to this in any remote business likely to be managed by unknown hands. They say they will become creditors in a security they understand, but partners they will not become. Consequently, they have to be made creditors, if the money is to be got at all. This not unnatural caution has naturally forced railroad projectors to become borrowers; but it has had another effect, which has proved in the eyes of many people a justification as well as an effect. It has made railroad managers reckless, unscrupulous, and arbitrary in their dealings with the stock. The mortgagees, who are the real owners of the road, feeling sure about their dues, give themselves little or no concern about the management, and the directors are consequently exempted from all healthy supervision, and, having once got the control of a majority of the stock, amuse themselves by the formation of "rings" and combinations, by which the interests of the minority are totally disregarded, and the stock is used as an instrument of gambling on the exchange.

Now, what is wanted above all things in the way of railroad reform is some assimilation of the rights of stockholders to those of mortgagees. The individual mortgagee does not care what tricks the majority may play or who holds the majority of the mortgages, because he knows that his rights are strictly defined by law, and that, come what may, he will come in for his share of the property. If the stockholder had similar security against the action of the majority—that is, if he knew that no combination could destroy or lower the value of his property without his knowledge or consent, and that the majority of the shareholders could not hold him at their mercy—roads owned and controlled by stockholders would be more common. Under the present system, they must become rarer and rarer, and roads built by bonds more and more the rule, and the frauds and recklessness of railroad management must continue.

Denunciations of bonds are in the meantime idle and somewhat foolish. They are a commercial device, adapted to the existing financial and moral conditions of American society. They are indeed the natural mode of obtaining capital from distant strangers for use in a new country. If anybody makes larger advances on them, or depends on selling more of them, than prudence justifies, he

ought to suffer the ordinary penalty of imprudence. But let us not add to the numerous follies inseparable from a panic the new folly of abusing and decrying the construction of railroads by private enterprise in the same breath in which we pronounce them the public highways of the United States. If they are public highways, they are something of which it is difficult for a civilized and growing country to have too many, and the men who run the risk of making them are public benefactors. If they are not public highways, what is the meaning of all the declamation about cheap freights and the necessity for easier access to the markets of the world? Is it not time either to leave off crowing over our prodigious development and enormous increase of population, or refrain just now from denouncing railroads as if they were public nuisances? The lessons of the hour seem to be plain enough. Do not undertake enterprises beyond your capital; do not believe all that you read in advertisements and in "the publisher's department" of religious newspapers about the bonds of new railroads; but do not, on the other hand, fancy that there are no good railroad bonds, and that all new railroad projectors are a sort of lottery-dealers; and if three or four bankers have broken down through imprudence, do not flatter yourself that new light has been let in on the world, and go rushing about wildly as if the secret of honest and successful trade had now for the first time been revealed.

THE PRESIDENTIAL INFLUENCE ON POLITICS.

THE appointment of the great Washington jobber, Mr. Shepherd, to the position of Governor of the District of Columbia while fresh from a series of "improvements" closely resembling in character and results those bestowed by Tweed and Sweeny on this city, is raising once more all over the country the question whether reform within the party be possible, and if so, how it is to be brought about. The arguments that were used in favor of leaving the work in the hands of the present party managers during the last Presidential campaign have been rendered useless by the Crédit Mobilier exposure. That proved to the satisfaction of most people, that even if the work was to be done "inside the party lines," Providence had not yet provided the machinery by which it was to be effected. It must be admitted, too, that the hopelessness caused by the history of the last session of Congress has not been relieved or diminished by the influences emanating from the White House. The "salary grab" was an incident of the same nature as the Crédit Mobilier scandal. It was marked by the same eagerness for money, and indifference to public opinion in the pursuit of money, and the same inclination to make identity of pecuniary interest take the place, as a bond of union in public life, of identity of feeling or opinion on great questions of public policy. We presume, therefore, that while few were surprised that Butler should have "engineered" it, a great many were surprised and grieved that it should, while putting a handsome sum into the President's pocket, have called forth no word of criticism or remonstrance from him. We do not pretend that his salary is now too large, or that he is not fairly entitled on general grounds to what he has got, but we think the country was not prepared to see him accept the increase in silence and under conditions so repulsive. If, however, he felt perplexed, as he well might, as to the proper mode of dealing with such extraordinary legislation, there was little ground for hesitation as to what his attitude and that of the Administration should be towards its promoters and their kind. The cause of decency as well as of civil-service reform certainly required that the support of the Government should not be extended to Butler in Massachusetts; and people were asking themselves how the President could be betrayed into such indiscretions, when the appointment of Shepherd, backed by a testimonial letter, set them to asking still further whether there is really a certain liking at the White House for the class of men to which Butler, Shepherd, Murphy, Cameron, and others belong—that is, the pushing, audacious, unscrupulous, energetic class which make politics and money-getting go hand in hand, and work for governorships, and senatorships, and collectorships under the influence of the same motives, and with almost the same language, with which they engage in a real-estate or railroad speculation. What is quite certain is that this class, the class of not over-nice but thoroughly successful money-getters, have apparently more weight in Washington than any other class in the community, and get from the Executive marks of esteem and even of affection which the men whom the best part of the American community really honors look for in vain. We doubt if there has ever been a time when signs of intellectual superiority in any field were of less use or of more disadvantage to a man in the highest political circles than they are in Washington to-day, and when the possession of a comfortable "pile" of money, acquired no matter how, counted for more. This is a hard thing to say, and a harder thing to believe; but it is what the most intelligent and public-spirited observers are saying and believing in private. The worst thing that can happen from blurting it out is that it may "divide the party," or, in other words, produce the calamity that would have resulted from telling Butler at Worcester that under no circumstances would the Republican party support him; but then people are beginning to look on a division of the party as by no means the worst thing that can happen them.

The importance of these considerations is well shown by the discussion now going on about a third term, under the somewhat silly name of "Cæsarism." Everybody knows that all talk of the establishment of anything resembling Cæsarism, whether that of Rome or that of Paris, is simply an amusing way of filling newspaper columns during the dull season. There never was, and never can be, Cæsarism of any sort without a large standing army, and in the absence of a large standing army no number of re-elections would do much to change the character of the Presidential office. What one has to ask himself in considering the re-election of General Grant or any one else to a third term is not, do we run the risk of establishing a despotism? but, are the influences which the present holder of the office fosters, either by his favor or society, and which, taken altogether, constitute what is called a "régime," such as it is desirable to strengthen and prolong? For the influence of the White House on the political class is a very powerful thing. It makes or mars men's political fortunes; it keeps them before the public eye or consigns them to obscurity; it often gives them a chance of showing of what stuff they are made, or condemns them to grumbling inactivity. In other words, it has the power very largely of creating a political atmosphere, and directing political ambition. It is safe to say, for instance, that General Grant, by his mode of filling the Treasury Department during the last five years, might have created a totally different ideal of a finance minister and financial policy from that with which the public mind is now filled. We might multiply these illustrations indefinitely.

Now, when we are considering the desirableness of prolonging a régime, we have to take into account its relations to the evils of the day. If it seems such as to foster in any way what is bad or dangerous in existing tendencies, we shall have little difficulty in deciding that a change of some kind is necessary. The worst and most dangerous thing in existing tendencies, both in political and social life, is the tendency to throw successful "operators" to the surface of American society, and give them the control, covert or open, of the national affairs. When one comes to consider who the men are who have pushed to the front during the last ten years, and are now sufficiently conspicuous to be talked of as candidates for the Presidential chair or for any of the higher honors of the state, they are, with two or three exceptions, either audacious and wealthy operators or men who work under their control, if not in their pay. Those fields of activity in which success is won by eloquence, or knowledge, or disinterested application to public affairs—the bar, the press, the pulpit, the legitimate walks of commerce and industry—hardly send a single noteworthy candidate into the political arena.

The bearing of all this on the events of the day in the commercial and financial world we need not point out. We will mention one fact in illustration of this relation, however, and that is, that one of the prominent causes of the panic by which this great commercial city is at this moment convulsed is admitted to be the refusal of English investors to take our railroad and other bonds, though London is teeming with unemployed capital, and though, after all, there is no such security not governmental now offered anywhere as the great mass of American railroad bonds undoubtedly are. Now, the thing which has perhaps more than anything else helped to create this distrust, is the fact that the American Minister in London has, apparently without a word of rebuke from his Government, helped to carry out the most outrageous swindle perpetrated there for many years, in allowing himself to be made a director of the Emma Mine long enough to enable the fraud to be completed.

PANICS.

IT is impossible to see, much less experience, a financial panic without an almost appalling consciousness that a new and terrible form of danger and distress has been added in comparatively recent times to the list of those by which human life is menaced or perplexed. Any one who stood on Wall Street, or in the gallery of the Stock Exchange last Thursday, and Friday, and Saturday, and saw the mad terror, we might almost say the brute terror (like that by which a horse is devoured who has a pair of broken shafts hanging to his heels, or a dog flying from a tin saucepan attached to his tail) with which great crowds of men rushed to and fro, trying to get rid of their property, almost begging people to take it from them at any price, could hardly avoid feeling that a new plague had been sent among men, that there was an impalpable, invisible force in the air, robbing them of their wits, of which philosophy had not as yet dreamt. No dog was ever so much alarmed by the clatter of the saucepan as hundreds seemed to be by the possession of really valuable and dividend-paying securities; and no horse was ever more reckless in extricating himself from the *débris* of a broken carriage than these swarms of acute and shrewd traders in divesting themselves of their possessions. Hundreds must really, to judge by their conduct, have been so confused by terror and anxiety as to be unable to decide whether they desired to have or not have, to be poor or rich. If a Roman or a man of the Middle Ages had been suddenly brought into view of the scene, he would have concluded without hesitation that a ruthless invader was coming down the island; that his advanced guard was momentarily expected; and that anybody found by his forces in possession of Western Union, or Harlem, or Lake Shore, or any other paying stock or bond, would be subjected to cruel tortures, if not put to death. For neither the Roman nor the Mediæval could understand a rich man's being terrified by anything but armed violence. Seneca enumerates as the three great sources of anxiety in life the fear of want, of disease, and of oppression by the powerful, and he pronounces the last the greatest. If he had seen Wall Street brokers and bankers last week trying to get rid of stocks and bonds, he could not of course have supposed that they were poor or feared poverty; he would have judged from their physical activity that they were in perfect health, so that he would have been driven to the conclusion that some barbarian host commanded by Sitting Bull or Red Cloud was entering the city, and was breathing out threatenings and slaughter against the owners of personal property. If you had tried to explain to him that there was no conqueror at the gates, that the fear of violence was almost unknown in our lives, that each man in that struggling crowd enjoyed an amount of security against force in all its forms which no Roman Senator could ever count upon, and that the terror he witnessed was caused by precisely the same agency as the flight of an army before it has been beaten, or, in other words, by "panic," he would have gazed at you in incredulous amazement. He would have said that panic in an army was caused by the sudden dissolution of the bonds of discipline, by each soldier's losing his confidence that his comrades and his officers would stand their ground; but these traders, he would have added, are not subject to discipline; they do not belong to an organization of any kind; each buys and sells for himself; he has his property there in that tin box, and if nobody is going to rob him, what is frightening him? Why is he pale and trembling? Why does he run and shout and weep, and ask people to give him a trifle, only a trifle, for all he possesses and let him go?

If you were then to set about explaining to Seneca that the way the god Pan worked confusion in our day in the commercial world was by destroying "credit," you would find yourself brought suddenly face to face with one of the most striking differences between ancient and modern, or, even as we have said, mediæval society. The most prominent and necessary accompaniment or incident of property in the ancient world was possession. What a man owned, he held. His wealth was in his farm, or his house, or his granary, or his ships. He could hardly separate the idea of property from that of possession, and the state of society strengthened the association. The frugal man hoarded, and when he was terrified, he buried his money, a practice to which we owe the preservation of the greater portion of the old coins now in our collections. The influence of this sense of insecurity, of the constant fear of invasion or violence, lasted long enough in all Continental countries, as Mr. Bagehot has recently pointed out, to prevent the establishment of banks of issue until very lately. The prospect of war was so constantly in men's minds that no bank could make arrangements for the run which would surely follow the outbreak of hostilities, and, in view of this contingency, nobody would be willing to hold paper promises to pay in lieu of gold and silver. It is therefore in England and America, the two countries possessing not only most commercial enterprise, but most security against invasion, that the paper money has come into earliest and widest use. To the paper of the banks have been added the checks and bills of exchange of private individuals, until money proper plays a greatly diminishing part in the operations of commerce. Goods are exchanged and debts paid by a system of balancing claims against claims, which really has almost ceased to rest on money at all. So that a man may be a very rich man in our day, and have really nothing to show for his wealth whatever. You go to his house, and you find nothing but a lot of shabby furniture. The only thing there which Seneca would have called wealth is perhaps his wife's jewels, which would not bring a few thousand dollars. You think his money must be in the bank, but you go there with him and find that all he has there is a page on the ledger bearing his name, with a few figures on it. The bank bills which you see lying about, and which look a little like money, are not only not money in the sense Seneca understood the term, but they do not represent over a third of what the bank owes to various people. You go to some safe-deposit vaults, thinking that it is perhaps there he keeps his valuables, but all you find is a mass of papers, signed by Thomas Smith or John Jones, declaring that he is entitled to so many shares of some far-off bank, or that some railroad will pay him a certain sum some thirty years hence. In fact, looked at with Roman eyes, our millionaire seems to be possessed of little or nothing, and likely to be puzzled about his daily bread.

Now, this wonderful change in the character and incidents of property may be said to be the work of the last century, and it may be said to consist in the substitution of an agency wholly moral for an agency wholly material in the work of exchange and distribution. For the giving and receiving of gold and silver, we have substituted neither more nor less than faith in the honesty, and industry, and capacity of our fellow-men. There is hardly one of us who does not literally live by faith. We lay up fortunes, marry, eat, drink, travel, and bequeath, almost without ever handling a cent; and the best reason which ninety-nine out of every hundred of us can give for feeling secure against want, or having the means of enjoyment or of charity, is not the possession of anything of real value, but his confidence that certain thousands of his fellow-creatures, whom he has never seen, and never expects to see, scattered, it may be, over the civilized world, will keep their promises, and do their daily work with fidelity and efficiency. This faith is every year being made to carry a greater and greater load. The transactions which rest on it increase every year in magnitude and complexity. It has to extend itself every year over a larger portion of the earth's surface, and to include a greater variety of race, and creed, and custom. London, and Paris, and Berlin, and Vienna now tremble when New York is alarmed. We have, in short, to believe every year in a greater and greater number of people, and to depend for our daily bread on the successful working of vast combinations, in which human character is after all the main element.

The consequence is that, when for any reason a shade of doubt comes over men's minds that the combination is not working, that the machine is at some point going to give way, that somebody is not playing his part fairly, the solid ground seems to shake under their feet, and we have some of the phenomena resulting from an earthquake, and among others blind terror. But to any one who understands what this new social force, Credit, is, and the part it plays in human affairs, the wonder is, not that it gives way so seldom, but that it stands so firm; that these hundreds of millions of laborers, artisans, shop-keepers, merchants, bankers, and manufacturers hold so firmly from day to day the countless engagements into which they enter, and that each recurring year the result of the prodigious effort which is now put forth in the civilized world in the work of production, should be distributed with so much accuracy and honesty, and, on the whole, with so

much wise adjustment to the value of each man's contributions to civilization.

There is one fact, however, which throws around credit, as around so many others of the influences by which our lives are shaped, a frightful mystery. Its very strength helps to work ruin. The more we believe in our fellow-toilers, and the more they do to warrant our belief, the more we encourage them to work, the more we excite their hopefulness; and out of this hopefulness come "panics" and "crashes." Prosperity breeds credit, and credit stimulates enterprise, and enterprise embarks in labors which, about every ten years in England, and every twenty years in this country, it is found that the world is not ready to pay for. Panics have occurred in England in 1797, 1807, 1817, 1826, 1837, 1847, 1857, and there was very near being a very severe one in 1866. In this country we have had them in 1815, 1836, and 1857, and by panics we do not mean such local whirlwinds as have desolated Wall Street, but widespread commercial crises, affecting all branches of business. This periodicity is ascribed, and with much plausibility, to the fact that inasmuch as panics are the result of certain mental conditions, they recur as soon as the experience of the previous one has lost its influence, or, in other words, as often as a new generation comes into the management of affairs, which is about every ten years in the commercial world both in England and here. The fact that this country seems to be only half as liable to them as England, is perhaps due to the fact that the extent of our resources and the greater ratio of increase of population make it much harder to overdo in the work of production here than in England, and to this must be added the greater strength of nerves produced by greater hopefulness. In spite of the enormous abundance of British capital and the rashness of the owners in making investments, there hangs over the London money market a timidity and doubtfulness about the future which is unknown on this side of the water, and which very slight accidents develop into distrust and terror. If this theory be correct, our next great panic will be due about the year 1877, immediately after the Centennial Exposition. Let us hope, however, that the present slight attack may inspire enough prudence and good sense to ward it off.

Correspondence.

THE MASSACHUSETTS CONVENTION.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: Perhaps you may like an account, from another point of view, of our State Convention, which a spirit of enquiry led me to attend. Why was it that a man with the character and antecedents of General Butler should have secured the support of so large a section of the proverbially sober and conservative people of Massachusetts; that he should have been able to alarm the respectable class so thoroughly as to induce them to put forth unusual efforts? Conversation with Butler delegates, whom it is a mistake to class, as a whole, with the lower and reckless element, furnished a good deal of light upon the subject. They are tired of what they call the "ring"—that is, of being marched up in platoons to vote for a set of names furnished by a committee—names which have no meaning for them, which are not connected with any public achievement, nor with the set of meaningless platitudes, as Butler justly designated them, which are called resolutions.

Eliminate the Butler element from the proceedings on the 10th inst., and it is impossible to conceive a more complete mummery and farce. The pen of Carlyle would gloat over such sham and unreality. Gov. Washburn has filled the chair for two years. What has he done to justify a third election? That he is an honest man and a Christian gentleman may be very true; but these qualities, though their absence may be deplored, never excite positive emotions. If it is said that no Governor can do any more, I reply that this is exactly the point. The Governor of this commonwealth is a mere figure-head, the executive officers are simple head-clerks; and to hold caucuses all over the State, and send a thousand such men as were assembled in Mechanics' Hall, for the mere purpose of expressing approval of a list of clerks furnished by a committee, borders very closely on the ludicrous. There is nothing more dangerous, more subversive of honesty and earnestness in politics, than to allow a people to feel that their most solemn public acts are shallow forms without any real meaning. Nothing contributed more to the destruction of Rome than solemn religious shams which everybody knew to be such.

Nor do the resolutions help the matter much. They are the purest generalities, framed to cover the greatest number of individual opinions, in which they are so far successful that, with the change at pleasure of the words Republican and Democrat, and saving the personal endorsement of President Grant, there is not probably an adult man in Massachusetts who would get up and publicly oppose them. But however that may be, what is the personal relation of the list of State officers to these resolutions? What effect will the election of Gov. Washburn have upon the subject of Congressional back-pay, upon intimidation of Federal office-holders, upon railroad legislation by Congress, upon the achievements of the National Administration? Even in State affairs, the Governor has nothing to do with legislation or its effects, as the resolutions practically declare when they confine their praise of him to his "good sense, fidelity, uprightness, and watchfulness for the public welfare," the sort of certificate which a man gives his book-keeper to help him to a place. The fact is that the Legislature has completely swallowed up the Executive; and as this branch is the only one elected by the whole State, the elective functions of the whole State have been reduced to an empty form. The French peasants, who vote under the direction of the prefect, are not more completely under dictation than the delegates to a State Convention; and the people of Massachusetts, being of somewhat different material, get impatient.

Here, then, is the strength of General Butler. He is much blamed for putting himself forward as a candidate and sounding his own praises. But this is what Gladstone and Disraeli and all the members of the British Parliament do all their lives. Nothing could be more thoroughly offensive, not to say disgusting, than General Butler's closing speech. But this only makes the case so much stronger. People want to see and hear their man, and, rather than not do it, they will take such stuff as we heard. Governor Washburn has been praised for keeping out of the canvass. If he could have come forward and told of work done in the Hoosac Tunnel case, in poor-law and sanitary reforms, in adjustment of taxation, in codification of laws, etc., he would have beaten his opponent out of the field. But Gov. Washburn knows that he has done and can do none of these things. *He* cannot say, "I am an honest man and a Christian gentleman." He has nothing else to say; and so he leaves the field to one who does not consider performance a necessary sequel to promises. The gentlemen who spoke against Butler were his superiors in almost every respect; but they had nothing real to talk about, and they could not equal him in brag and bluster.

If it is said, as many do say, that it is only a change of offices that is wanted, it does not alter the case. If the chief executive position in Massachusetts involves only a disposal of offices, then a desire for change, on the part of the outs, is quite natural. The strength of the Executive should lie in something else. If the people of Massachusetts felt that he was doing their work well, it would take more than a few hungry office-holders to displace him, especially as the actual incumbents would operate as a neutralizing force.

The moral of all this I take to be that the Executive should be restored to a position of some positive power and positive responsibility; that he should go to the people upon a definite statement of his merits in office and not in private life; that any candidate should be free to contest his claim to these merits; and that by such methods alone can spectres like Butler be effectually exorcised. G. B.

Boston, September 12, 1873.

Notes.

THE first volume of a translation of Alzog's 'Manual of Universal Church History,' 9th edition, by Dr. F. J. Pabisch, of Cincinnati, Ohio, is in the press of Robert Clarke & Co. The work is published by subscription at $4 a volume, to be completed in three volumes (each with its chronological table and table of contents, besides the general index at the end) in the course of two years.——Further announcements by Macmillan & Co. are as follows: 'Drummond of Hawthornden,' by Professor Masson; 'Cobden and Political Opinion,' by J. E. Thorold Rogers; 'Sir Joshua Reynolds and his Works,' by J. C. Collins, illustrated with autotype copies of engravings of distinguished beauties of the Court of George III.; 'The Sources of Standard English,' by T. L. Kington-Oliphant; 'The Friendship of Books, and Other Lectures,' by the Rev. F. D. Maurice; 'Cave-Hunting,' by W. Boyd Dawkins—researches on the evidence of caves respecting the early inhabitants of Europe; 'On the Theory of Sound,' by Lord Rayleigh; 'On Some Influences of Christianity upon National Character,' by the Dean of St. Paul's; and a translation, by Rev. W. Benham, of Thomas à Kempis's 'Imitation of Christ,' printed with borders in the ancient style after Holbein, Dürer, and other old masters.——Part 15 of Stieler's Hand-Altas contains a beautiful map of the mountain and river system of Germany and adjacent countries; a map of Russia and Scandinavia; and a map of Eastern Europe, from Hamburg to St. Petersburg (New York: L. W. Schmidt).

—We continue our selections from the fall announcements of American publishers. Harper & Bros. will publish 'Among Our Sailors,' by Dr. J.

Gray Jewell; 'Hints and Helps in Pastoral Theology,' by Rev. W. S. Plumer, D.D.; Principal Dawson's 'Story of the Earth and Man'; Smiles's 'Huguenots in France after the Revolution'; and the 'Memoirs and Letters of Sara Coleridge.'——Henry Holt & Co. will reprint Taylor's 'Primitive Culture' and 'Early History of Mankind,' and Strauss's 'Old Faith and the New'; together with Taine's 'Tour in the Pyrenees,' illustrated by Doré, and his 'English Literature' in four 12mo volumes.——Hurd & Houghton announce Charles Blanc's 'Grammar of Painting and Sculpture,' translated by Mrs. Kate N. Doggett; Mrs. Clement's 'Handbook of Painters, Sculptors, Architects, and Engravers'; 'Ballads for Little Folks,' from the poems of the Cary sisters; the 'Egyptian Sketch-book,' by Charles G. Leland. ——Sheldon & Co. collect into a volume Gen. Custer's articles in the *Galaxy* on 'Life on the Plains.'——The most important of D. Appleton's forthcoming publications is Paul Lacroix's 'Manners and Customs of the Middle Ages.' They have also in press: Herbert Spencer's 'Study of Sociology'; 'Civilization considered as a Science,' by George Harris, F.S.A.; 'Science and Religion,' by Prof. Joseph Leconte; Charan's 'Comparative Anatomy of Domestic Animals'; 'Locomotion of Animals,' by Dr. B. G. Bell Pettigrew; and an illustrated 'School History of Germany,' by Bayard Taylor. ——From Cassell, Petter & Galpin we are to have 'Principles of Decorative Design,' by Christopher Dresser; and 'Half-hours with Early Explorers,' by T. Frost.——'The Alhambra and the Kremlin,' a journey from Madrid to Moscow, by S. Irenæus Prime; and 'Aspects of Authorship; or, Bookmarks and Bookmakers,' by Francis Jacox, will be published by A. D. F. Randolph & Co.——A real acquisition will be Maetzner's 'English Grammar,' of which a translation is announced by Roberts Bros., Boston. They also announce the following: Lessing's 'Laocoön,' translated by Miss Ellen Frothingham; Eugène Plon's 'Thorvaldsen'; two works by P. G. Hamerton—'Thoughts about Art' and 'Chapters on Animals'; A. J. C. Hare's 'Records of a Quiet Life'; Joaquin Miller's 'Songs of the Sun Land' and John Boyle O'Reilly's 'Songs from the Southern Seas'; and Margaret Fuller's Works.——In addition to Nast's Almanac (Harpers) and Josh Billings's Alminax, it seems we are to have the *Danbury News* Man's Almanac (Shepard & Gill).——Robert Clarke & Co. have in press, in continuation of their reprint of Legal Classics, Christopher St. Germain's 'Doctor and Student' (1518–1530), and Sir John Fortescue's 'De Laudibus Legum Angliæ' (reign of Henry VI.). Montesquieu's 'Spirit of Laws' forms the first of the series, and has already appeared, in two volumes.

—It is due to Professor Atherton, of Rutgers College, to say that the manner in which we grouped his name with that of Dr. McCosh in a recent article on American Colleges and Legislators (*Nation*, No. 426), may mislead those of our readers who have not read his very able and instructive address before the National Educational Association at Elmira into the belief that he, like Dr. McCosh, took ground against the agricultural colleges. On the contrary, the only statements in the article which should be attributed to Professor Atherton are those which relate to the startling proportion of downright ignorance and illiteracy now existing in the United States, and he, it should be understood, is really the strongest advocate we have met with on the side of the Congressional endowments. We have received from Professor Atherton a communication, accusing us of misstatements and mistakes in the brief introductory paragraph of the article alluded to, which we are debarred from publishing, partly by its length, partly because the paragraph referred to was intended and professed to be little more than a *résumé* of the statements of Dr. McCosh, and partly because we do not wish at this time to be drawn into the controversy on the merits and demerits of the system of appropriations for these colleges. The offending paragraph was introductory to an article on an entirely different subject, and its expressions were neither so precise nor so guarded as they probably would have been if we had been treating of this matter of the colleges. It is proper to add that instead of saying that Cornell has received under the act of 1862 nine hundred thousand *dollars*, we should have said *acres;* and instead of using language so ambiguous as to imply to readers who do not know any better that Cornell's only return for the endowment is a dividend of two agricultural graduates a year, it would have been better to have quoted Dr. McCosh literally, and said that "it graduated two agricultural students in June last," with a proper reference to its much larger Mechanical Department. But we shall probably take up the subject hereafter, and will then endeavor to deal more justly with it and with Professor Atherton's communication.

—Circular of Information No. 3 of the Bureau of Education is a digest of the proceedings at the various college commencements in New England, New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania—at least of such as were published in the newspapers last summer, embracing 54 institutions in all. The design of this compilation is so good that it is a pity the execution is not equally to be praised. The editor has not confined himself simply to a colorless abstract of the speeches and addresses delivered, but, as if to illustrate the propagandist function of the Bureau, ventilates its or his own opinions and theories wherever it suits him. Thus, "it was gratifying" to him to hear (by a justifiable fiction) at Colby University "most emphatic commendation of the old system of thorough training as heretofore maintained at this college, in opposition to the 'elective' systems now becoming popular in our collegiate institutions." At Cornell, Mr. Charles Dudley Warner's address on "Progress" "appears to have been a neat and happy answer to the scepticism of both Froude and Ruskin as to the real and material progress in our day." At Williamstown, Mr. David Dudley Field closed the debate on the admission of women to the college "with a strong appeal for equality and progress, and a trenchant refutation of the fears of conservatism"; while President Chadbourne delivered a discourse "intended as a reply to the Darwin school and the atheistic teachings of the day"—the two things being evidently one in the mind of the editor. With this gentleman's perspective it is less profitable to find fault than with his bias as a reporter; still it is noticeable how much space and attention are bestowed on one and the same oration of a "new and rising man," delivered at two separate commencements. And finally (by way of criticism), we must remark the compiler's neglect to give in every case the date of the college exercises.

—The value of the Circular lies, of course, mainly in its statistics, and if the Bureau should take pains another year to collect these by means of a uniform blank addressed to the proper authorities, the result would be indeed worthy of preservation. Two features already are highly interesting even if incomplete. One is the bibliography of each college for the year—not very imposing, to be sure, though it includes any work published by a college officer. The other is the list of benefactions. These are not always clearly distinguished according to their object, and the amounts are nowhere tabulated and summed up. We have had the curiosity to do this for ourselves. It appears that nearly a million of dollars (say $979,500) were given to the New England colleges; something less (say $836,500) to those of New York and New Jersey; and about $54,000 to those of Pennsylvania, whose deficiency is very marked, all the more when it is considered that the sum named must be divided among a dozen institutions reported in the Circular. The grand total of nearly two millions ($1,870,000) certainly falls short of the full extent of private liberality for the promotion of the higher education in the States enumerated; but it is large enough to maintain the American reputation for wise and generous giving, even if we omit all that the year has recorded in the rest of the country. The question of admitting women to Williamstown was warmly argued, but decisively negatived. At Harvard, as is well known, steps were taken to institute examinations for women like those so successfully carried on at Cambridge, England. The authorities of Swarthmore College, Pennsylvania, express their perfect satisfaction with the experiment of coeducation as thus far tried by them. At Lafayette College, Easton, there has been established "an additional course in the classics, in which the Latin and Greek of Christian authors only are read." This was done "to meet the objection that some entertain against placing the heathen classics in the hands of students on account of their demoralizing influence." Trinity College, Hartford, is to be congratulated (we hope not alone) on the fact that its new buildings are to be constructed from designs by Mr. Burges, the eminent English architect.

—We have received lately some interesting circulars from "The New Geographical Society or People's National Institute" of England, which may be of interest to publishers of school-books and to seafaring men. This new society aims at destroying the widespread delusion that the earth is a globe—a delusion which, according to the Prospectus, is "a gigantic and pernicious system of infidel superstition, falsehood, and fraud—a system of chicanery and delusion which the inventors themselves derided and disowned, and declared that 'none but fools would believe in it as the truth'—a system which has robbed this nation alone of millions of pounds, and has been the cause of all the infidelity and scepticism which has ever existed since these theories were first broached." The circulars throw but little light on the method of these bold innovators, but, as far as can be judged, they rest their case on texts from the Bible, such as Joshua x. 13, Isaiah xiii. 13, xxxviii. 8, etc., and on common sense, as it is called. For instance:

"Special attention is requested to the startling fact that the 'dip of the horizon' *must* be a purely fanciful idea, because no distant object, beyond the horizon, on land or water, can be seen through a telescope or tube deflected a single inch from an adjusted 'level'! From the top of the highest known elevation in the world, the rising and the setting sun, which is said by the Newtonian theorists to divide, diametrically, the 'hemisphere' of light from the 'hemisphere' of darkness, and consequently must be, even then, 4,000 miles below a tangent cutting the apex of either 'hemisphere,' *cannot be seen* if the tube or telescope is deflected an inch from or below the most accurate 'level' that can be secured!!"

Poetry, too, aids the investigator:

> "*Come!* tell us, first, then, *how it is*, whatever else betide,
> That water can be level and yet convex be-side!
> How 'tis that rivers always flow to the level of the sea,
> And yet the earth, o'er which they run, in form a globe can be.
> Then tell us how it is that—having side and bottom—
> This globe retains the people who are elsewhere than the top on."

Any one who is curious in this matter, and especially the students of "Alwato," we will refer to the secretary and manager, John Hampden, Esq., Kerby Road, Tamworth Road, Surrey—the same gentleman who lost a wager with Mr. Alfred R. Wallace in a crucial test of the globular hypothesis. Mr. Hampden also says: "We have another secret; but as it does not concern and has no sort of reference to God's cause or God's glory, we shall not part with it for nothing. It concerns only the *wealthy* classes, whatever their station in life may be. Our charge will be, therefore, fifty-two pounds ten shillings from each individual to whom we impart the caution, and whom we are satisfied will profit, if they choose, by our advice." Mr. Hampden's grammar is very like his astronomy.

—It is to courts of justice that one naturally looks to give authoritative sanction to the true conception of property, and in two recent cases, simultaneously decided by the Supreme Court of New Hampshire, we find a good illustration of the way in which this ought to be done. The facts in the two cases (Eaton *v.* B. C. & M. R. R.; Aiken *v. ib.*, 51 N. H. Reports, 504) are substantially the same. The plaintiffs were the owners of two farms, consisting of meadow-lands lying on a river; northerly of these farms there was a narrow ridge of land some twenty-five feet high, extending from high lands on the east westerly to the river, protecting the meadows from the effects of floods and freshets in the river, which, as every one knows, are apt to be dangerous to New England meadow-land. Through this ridge the Boston, Concord, and Montreal Railroad, in constructing their road, made a deep cut, through which the waters of the river sometimes flowed in time of freshets, carrying sand, gravel, and stones upon the plaintiffs' meadows. It was for this damage that the suits were brought. Probably to most readers it will be difficult to imagine what the defence of the road was; but, nevertheless, the defence was a very simple one. There were several questions involved, but the decision really turned on a single point. In almost all the State constitutions there is a provision forbidding the "taking" of "private property" for public use under legal authority, as by a railroad, turnpike, or canal corporation, without just compensation. In New Hampshire, although the constitution does not expressly contain this clause, it has always been held by the courts that such a restriction is part of the law of the State as much as if it was down in black and white. The defendant railroad contended that inasmuch as it had not "taken" any of the plaintiffs' meadows, the latter could not recover damages; and singular as it may seem, there has been a sufficiently general tendency in the courts to construe the provision in this way to warrant the defence. As Judge Smith, who decided these cases, said in his opinion, courts have maintained that to constitute a "taking of property" there must be "an exclusive appropriation," a "total assumption of possession," a "complete ouster," an absolute or total "conversion of the property," a "taking the property altogether"—a construction which certainly renders the constitutional safeguard of little worth, being interpreted much as if it read, "No person shall be divested of the formal title to property without compensation, but he may, without compensation, be deprived of all that makes the title valuable."

—The vital question evidently is, What is the meaning of the mysterious word "property"? And this question the court proceeds to examine, coming to the conclusion that property is not the *thing*, but the right of the owner to possess, use, enjoy, and dispose of a thing. The ownership of real estate consists, among others, of the right to build, the right to drain, the right to exclude trespassers, the right to lease, the right to profits, the right to sell or mortgage; in short, the general right to use. "From the very nature of these rights of user and of exclusion, it is evident that they cannot be materially abridged without *ipso facto* taking the owner's 'property.'" If in these cases the plaintiffs' meadows, instead of being occasionally, had been perpetually, submerged (as might easily have been the case if this land had been near the sea, and the ridge had been a dyke), the rights we have enumerated would not merely have been interefered with; they would have been absolutely gone, and yet, according to the common construction of the clause, no property would have been taken.

"Restricting A's unlimited right of using one hundred acres of land to a limited right of using the same land, may work a far greater injury to A than to take from him the title in fee-simple to one acre, leaving him the unrestricted right of using the remaining ninety-nine acres. Nobody doubts that the latter transaction would constitute a 'taking of property.' Why not the former? If, on the other hand, the land itself be regarded as 'property,' the practical result is the same. The purpose of this constitutional prohibition cannot be ignored in its interpretation. The framers of the constitution intended to protect rights which are worth protecting; not mere empty titles, or barren insignia of ownership, which are of no substantial value. If the land, 'in its corporeal substance and entity,' is 'property,' still all that makes this property of any value is the aggregation of rights or qualities which the law annexes as incidents to the ownership of it. The constitutional prohibition must have been intended to protect all the essential elements of ownership which make 'property' valuable."

The case, which is of a good deal of importance, was decided for the plaintiffs. The New Hampshire Supreme Court is an old-fashioned, conservative court, one of those least likely of all in the country to be led away by popular clamor against railroads to render decisions opposed to law. This opinion will no doubt surprise most lawyers who have been educated in the belief that the construction of the constitutional safeguard here repudiated was the correct one; but we believe in the long run the opinion of Judge Smith will hold its own. It is not difficult to see the connection between such cases as this and those more general questions relating to property which now agitate everybody's mind.

—'The Part taken by the German Universities in the War with France' is the title of a work by Ludwig Bauer, stud. jur., lately published at Leipzig. The statistics contained in it are confessedly imperfect, and no doubt fail to do entire justice to the patriotic devotion of the "akademische Jugend" of the Fatherland. In the summer semester of 1870 the universities counted 13,765 matriculated students, of whom 4,510, or nearly one-third, took part in the war as combatants or non-combatants (*Krankenpfleger*). This proportion would appear still higher, if from the first total were subtracted the non-German students, whose numbers were not insignificant. There died of wounds or disease 258, of whom 63 belonged to Leipzig, though her contingent was but 500 (400 combatants). Berlin lost but about one in twenty (30 out of 582); Göttingen one in fifteen (23 out of 340); Halle one in seventeen (19 out of 326); Jena one in twelve (13 out of 159); Munich one in eighteen (21 out of 370), etc., etc. Out of 1,505 university professors, doctors, and assistants, 15 bore arms and 253 devoted themselves to the care of the wounded, while 120 made themselves more or less conspicuous by the encouragement which they gave to the national cause by their speeches and writings. Four of the former fell victims of the war, either on the field of battle or in the hospitals. Herr Bauer's work derives added value from the fact that he gives selections from the more important addresses, essays, and pamphlet literature evoked by the war, such as Professor Dove's reply to the Dublin University's appeal to the Germans to protect works of art in the bombardment of Paris; Mommsen's less lucky attempt to conciliate Italian sympathies; Professor Weber's letter to Professor A. de Gubernatis; Von Raumer's effective response to Guizot, and Strauss's to Renan. Nor is the poetry of the period omitted from this memorial, though its preservation was certainly not of the last importance.

SYSTEMS OF CONSANGUINITY AND PRIMITIVE MARRIAGE.*

I.

MANY sciences, and some of those which are purely physical, seem to converge in anthropology. The study of language and comparative philology finds its grandest results in displaying the origin and relations of races; the transmission of words and linguistic forms marking the migration and kinship of peoples. Even the geologist, by his explorations of bone caverns and flint-tool deposits, carries us back to the prehistoric periods of mankind, and gives us a glimpse, brief but vivid, of the primitive savage state. Language and its relations with man and history have long been studied; the earth's rocky crust has been diligently explored; physiological investigations and speculations have been pursued with an ardor and freedom which perhaps have sometimes confounded hypothesis with fact. At length a new field of research and discovery has been entered upon, a new direction given to the activities of science—the comparative study of institutions. This phase of anthropological science has no direct relations nor connections with political history; it deals with the institutions of mankind prior to the state and to legislation. It will doubtless become a distinct department of the more comprehensive science, and more important even than comparative philology, because it would seem that some of these institutions possess elements of durability more marked than those which belong to words and grammatical forms, and that they can therefore indicate more clearly than language the affinities and aboriginal relations of races. Among the laborers in this special field are Max Müller in his essays upon comparative mythology, Sir John Lubbock in his studies of savage life, and Mac-

* 'Systems of Consanguinity and Affinity of the Human Family. By Lewis H. Morgan, LL.D.' Smithsonian Contributions to Knowledge, No. 218.

Clellan in his monograph upon primitive marriage. The work of Dr. Lewis H. Morgan in this direction is, however, by far the most fruitful in new and important results. Purely scientific in its methods and its singleness of purpose, it has fairly shown the study of social institutions independent of history to be a separate and distinct sub-department of enquiry and knowledge. While other writers have speculated, he has, through years of patient toil, collected a vast mass of facts upon which others as well as he may base their conclusions as to the primitive condition of the human race. The particular object of his research is the systems of kinship, or, to use the technical terms borrowed by us from the later Roman law, of consanguinity and affinity, which have prevailed or which now exist throughout the world—a subject apparently narrow enough, but which, as we shall see, branches out into all the institutions of society, and, indeed, is vitally connected with the very being of society itself. While prosecuting a study of the language and customs of some American Indian nations, Dr. Morgan was struck with certain peculiarities of family relationships which formed a part of their strange life. Further examination established the fact that this peculiar method was a general law among the American Indians. An awakened and scientific curiosity led him to extend a special investigation upon this subject over a broader field, and if possible to include all the peoples of the world within its range. To this end, he prepared a schedule of questions describing the persons in the lineal and in the first five collateral lines, which, when answered, would give their relationship to the *ego* represented as asking the questions. This schedule was sent to American missionaries in all parts of the world, to English missionaries, to American foreign ministers and consuls, and to private persons interested in science, for the purpose of obtaining written answers to the questions from intelligent natives given in their own language. In this manner the national systems prevailing in Asia and in the Pacific islands were obtained; those of Europe were furnished by competent scholars in the different countries; while Mr. Morgan pushed his researches personally among the Indians of the West. The positive results are classified and arranged in tables, and are explained and illustrated in descriptive chapters. The Smithsonian Institution has published the whole among its contributions to knowledge in a large quarto volume, containing 700 pages. Sir John Lubbock, in a discourse expressly delivered upon the book before a learned London society, though differing from Mr. Morgan in some of his theories, pronounced the work to be the most important addition to ethnological science which had been made for several years. We purpose in this article to give an outline and abstract of its principal features, its most important facts and discoveries.

We are so familiar with the relationships of consanguinity which prevail among ourselves and the European nations, and they seem so natural and necessary, that it may be hard perhaps to conceive of any other and different ones. Mr. Morgan shows, however, that over all parts of the world, among peoples widely separated in geographical position, language, and apparently race, there are other systems entirely unlike our own, but identical or having strong analogies with each other—systems not only unlike our own in their details, but which must have been based upon some original marriage and family institutions radically different from, and in fact antagonistic to, the modern marriage and the modern family. The two grand systems he appropriately calls the Descriptive and the Classificatory. The former or descriptive system exists in the great Aryan and Semitic families of nations and among the Turks. It is therefore found in all the modern civilized states of Europe and America, and it prevailed among the Romans, Greeks, and Celts. The distinguishing feature of this system is that it regards each removal from the common ancestor, or from the *ego*, as a separate and different degree of relationship. In all the nations within its range there exist or existed specific names for the primary relationships, father, mother, brother, sister, son, daughter, and in nearly all there grew up other specific names descriptive of additional degrees. The ideal doubtless is that every degree, as far as recognized at all, should have a distinct and appropriate name. This ideal, however, has never been realized. Collateral and remote direct consanguinity are generally designated by an augmentation (in our language by grand, great, etc.) or combination of the comparatively few specific names. In the Erse language, where the nomenclature is the least developed, there being no specific appellations, uncle, aunt, nephew, etc., are described brother of my father, brother of my mother, son of my brother, and the like. As an inevitable result in the system, the collateral lines following the actual flow of the blood are continually diverging, and are finally lost. We cannot enter into the details of kinship which would illustrate this description; the reader can, from his own knowledge, supply them sufficiently for purposes of comparison.

The classificatory system is based upon conceptions radically unlike those which lie at the foundation of the descriptive. It does not treat each removal from the common ancestor, or from the *ego*, as a separate and distinct degree of relationship. It treats all consanguinei as divided into a few classes, and all the individuals in the same class as in one and the same relationship, and the same special name is given to each and all alike. This is not a theory, but all persons in a class are regarded and addressed and speak as though they were absolutely in the same kinship to the given person. Thus, in some nations a person's actual father and all that father's brothers are in the same class, and are, in respect to the person, regarded as and designated by the name of fathers; while his actual father's son, and that father's brothers' sons, are in one class, and are his brothers. The number of these classes is small, always comprising the nearest relationships according to our own theory, and, in some nations, those of uncle, aunt, nephew, niece, and cousin in addition. As will appear in the sequel, the inevitable consequence of this method is, that all collateral lines, instead of constantly diverging, are soon brought together, and merge in the lineal line—merging thus, in fact, with grandsons and grand-daughters. This remarkable system prevails among the American Indians and among the great Turanian and Malayan families. We can merely give a very general outline of the relationships which are found in each.

In order to understand these relationships in their origin and cause, it is necessary to explain the tribal organization which is found among the American Indians, and, as Mr. Morgan shows, among many of the Asiatic peoples, and which was perhaps a primitive institution, common to all mankind in one stage of progress from savagery through barbarism to civilization. The Indians are separated into many nations—a nation meaning those who speak the same dialect and are united by the same governmental bond. Each nation contains "tribes." A tribe is made up of consanguinei, doubtless, as a matter of fact, descended from some common ancestor. A portion only of such descendants, however, make up a tribe. The distinguishing peculiarities of the organization are, that intermarriage between members of the same tribe is prohibited, and the tribe is perpetuated solely by descendants through the female lines. Thus a female must marry a male of another tribe, but her children by him are members of her own tribe; and when her daughters in like manner marry, their children also follow the same tribal status. A male must marry a female of another tribe, but his children pass out of his tribe and enter that of their mother. By this process the tribes are not localized, but are intermingled throughout the nation; and every family necessarily contains representatives from two tribes. If the tribal organization and membership were thus kept up in the male instead of the female line, the analogy between it and the agnatic family among the primitive Romans would be very remarkable. According to that system, collateral relationship, for all family purposes, did not extend, as with us, among all the consanguinei of an equal degree. On the contrary, starting from some common male ancestor, the male descendants in the male line from him, who would have been under his power if he had lived, alone constituted the kindred, or agnates as they were technically called. Every daughter, as she had married, had been cut off from the family which produced her, and she and her children belonged to the family of her husband. The agnatic family continued to affect the Roman law until the last traces of it were abolished by Justinian.

The following are the principal features of the classificatory system and the most important rules as to relationships which generally prevail among the American Indians. For purposes of clearness, the kinship given is that with *ego* as the interlocutor. All descendants from an original pair must fall into some of the designated classes, to each of which is given a special name; and, therefore, persons standing to the *ego* in different degrees, according to our rules, are often put into the same class, and are spoken of and plainly conceived of as though in the same degree. Cousin is the most remote degree or class admitted. Children of actual brothers are brothers and sisters to each other; the same is true as to the children of actual sisters; but the children of a brother are more remotely related to those of a sister. The relationship of uncle is limited to brothers of the actual mother and of those other females who stand to *ego* in the position of mother. The relationship of aunt is limited to sisters of the actual father, and of other males who stand to *ego* in the position of father. That of nephew or niece is limited, when the *ego* is male, to the children of his actual sisters and of the other females who are classed as his sisters, and, when the *ego* is female, to the children of her brothers and of the other males who are classed as her brothers. All ancestors above grandparents, and the brothers and sisters of grandparents and of such higher ancestors, fall into the single class of grandfather and grandmother; and the same is true of descendants below grandchildren. The children of my actual brothers, and of all the persons classed as my brothers, *ego* being a male, are my sons and daughters, and their children are my grandsons and grand-daughters; but the children of my actual and collateral sisters, *ego* being a male, are my nephews and nieces. If the *ego* is a female, the two sets of relationship last stated

are exactly reversed, children of a brother being nephews and nieces, and of a sister being sons and daughters. As we descend in the collateral as well as in the lineal lines, all descendants of an even degree with grandchildren are placed in the single class of grandchildren, and thus the two lines are merged. All the brothers of my actual father, and of persons classed as such, are my fathers, while all the sisters of my actual or collateral mothers are my mothers; but the brothers of my mother are uncles, and the sisters of my father are aunts. These are the principal features, which are to be found, with some incidental modifications and exceptions, among all the American Indians, and the Seneca nation of the Iroquois may be taken as the type. The chief peculiarities to be noticed are (1) the grouping of relationships, whether lineal or collateral, of different degrees of consanguinity, according to the actual flow of the blood, into the same class, so that the *ego* has several fathers and mothers, several sets of sons and daughters besides those whom he procreated, and several sets of brothers and sisters besides those born with himself from the same parents; and (2) that this arrangement does not exist in all cases, but is broken in upon when we pass from the male to the female line, or from the female to the male. The probable explanation of this last peculiarity is undoubtedly to be found in the tribal organization already described, and in the curious rule as to intermarriage connected with it.

LONGFELLOW'S AFTERMATH.*

WITH a part of this volume the public, or at least that part of it which reads the *Atlantic Monthly*, is already acquainted; but we believe the larger part now appears for the first time. Very pleasant it is to read, for so a book of Mr. Longfellow's must be. As was written of him years ago:

> "We need not praise the sweetness of his song,
> Where limpid verse to limpid verse succeeds,
> Smooth as our Charles, when, fearing lest he wrong
> The new moon's mirrored skiff, he glides along
> Full without noise and whispers in his reeds."

The limpid verse and the easy flow as of a river between cultivated banks are the same now as formerly; and the quality of the poetry is not different from the quality of that which thirty and forty years ago was giving pleasure. Thus to many this 'Aftermath' will have a double charm—its own absolute and intrinsic charm, and another that will be reflected on it by a light from other years. So it must be with all poetry—except, we suppose, the best, which makes its own time—and this it would hardly be worth while to say, were it not that the book, by its title and the prevailing tone of its sentiment, seem to ask that this be borne in mind. We may indeed go further, and say that the art of the accomplished poet appears to have been exercised more specifically to secure this result, and over the grace now present with us to throw the melancholy grace of remembered pleasure:

> "I have a vague remembrance
> Of a story that is told
> In some ancient Spanish legend
> Or chronicle of old.
>
> "It was when brave King Sanchez
> Was before Zamora slain,
> And his great besieging army
> Lay encamped upon the plain.
>
> "Don Diego de Ordoñez
> Sallied forth in front of all,
> And shouted loud his challenge
> To the warders on the wall.
>
> "All the people of Zamora,
> Both the born and the unborn,
> As traitors did he challenge
> With taunting words of scorn.
>
> "The living in their houses,
> And in the graves the dead!
> And the waters of their rivers,
> And their wine and oil and bread!
>
> "There is a greater army,
> That besets us round with strife,
> A starving, numberless army,
> At all the gates of life.
>
> "The poverty-stricken millions
> Who challenge our wine and bread,
> And impeach us all as traitors,
> Both the living and the dead.
>
> . . . . . .
>
> "For within there is light and plenty,
> And odors fill the air,
> But without there is cold and darkness
> And hunger and despair.
>
> "And there in the camp of famine,
> In wind and cold and rain,
> Christ, the great Lord of the army,
> Lies dead upon the plain."

To read this is inevitably to revert in thought to the time when we first read how

> "Once the Emperor Charles of Spain,
> With his swarthy grave commanders,
> Long besieged in wind and rain—
> We forget in what campaign—
> Some old frontier town of Flanders";

and to recollect, also, how once we read—

> ". . . . In some old marvellous tale,
> Some legend strange and vague,
> How a midnight guard of spectres pale
> Beleaguered the walls of Prague.
>
> "Beside the Moldau's rushing stream,
> With the wan moon overhead,
> There stood as in an awful dream,
> The army of the dead.
>
> . . . . . .
>
> "I have read in the marvellous heart of man,
> That strange and mystic scroll,
> That an army of phantoms vast and wan
> Beleaguer the human soul.
>
> . . . . . .
>
> "Upon its midnight battle-ground
> The spectral camp is seen,
> And with a sorrowful, deep sound
> Flows the river of life between."

And all is similar; not the surface alone, but there is in each poem, both the old and the new, the book-haunted imagination, the pensiveness of the sentiment, the moral lesson, the apparent gentleness and goodness of heart.

With this volume closes, it would seem, the series of "Tales of a Wayside Inn" which has helped to fill two or three of Mr. Longfellow's recent volumes. Here the Spanish Jew relates the story of Solomon and the Indian king, to whom, while the two are walking in the garden, the angel of death approaches. We cannot say that it is told very effectively by the Spanish Jew; but he contrives to justify himself for telling once more the already well-told story. He does so by one touch descriptive of the vanishing of the Indian king. The king has espied Azrael, and, in terror, has begged Solomon that he may be instantly transported to Ind. Solomon, complying, whispers a word into the clear heavens, raises on high the signet-ring in which the chrysophrase seems to flash with fire, and straightway

> ". . . Rushing from the west
> There came a mighty wind, and seized the guest
> And lifted him from earth, and on they passed,
> His shining garments streaming in the blast;
> A silken banner o'er the walls upreared,
> A purple cloud that gleamed and disappeared."

This story, by the way, is the one of this collection which has been chosen by Mr. Longfellow's artist for illustration, and the character of the design deserves a word of mention. It is very young-missish, and would deform any book; but in a book where the reader instinctively demands artistic intelligence and finish throughout, it is an especial deformity.

Next after the Spanish Jew's tale comes the Poet's tale of Charlemagne; and then follow on the story of Eginhard and Charlemagne's daughter Emma, and how she carried her lover through the snow; a pretty story of the Quakeress Elizabeth Haddon, who one morning said to Friend John Estaugh:

> "I will no longer conceal what is laid upon me to tell thee,
> I have received from the Lord a charge to love thee, John Estaugh,"

and who afterwards became his wife; the story of the monk who, like the fakir before him, stole the countryman's ass, and persuaded the countryman that the ass had been an ass but by magic or miracle; the story of George Castriot's treason to Amurath; a wild Scandinavian ballad story; and in conclusion the "Rhyme of Sir Christopher," printed in the *Atlantic* the other day, and appropriately put into the mouth of the landlord, who offers it with great diffidence of his abilities as a story-teller.

There is nobody who will not be sorry that the series has come to an end, and the reader closes the book wondering why it should—so strong is his impression, produced by the easy grace of the poet, that the narrator might go on for ever, or like Schehezerade, and make or versify one of these stories every evening or two. The poet probably thinks differently, and fancies that the reader would very soon be pointing out the stories on which no more than an evening or two had been spent, and asking that the new stories, and perhaps the old also, should be weeded a little.

Following the tales are a dozen fugitive pieces, some original, and some translated from the Spanish. Of one of them we have quoted some stanzas.

Six Months under the Red Cross with the French Army. By George Halstead Boyland, M.D., Ex-Chirurgien de l'Armée Française. (Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co.)—The approaching trial of Marshal Bazaine gives a certain timeliness to this narrative, the scene of which is for the most part

* 'Aftermath. By Henry Wadsworth Longfellow.' Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.

laid in Metz. The author does not discuss the question of Bazaine's loyalty, but he evidently sympathizes with those who denounce the surrender as an infamy unparalleled in the history of European warfare. At the same time, he records his surprise, on first seeing the walls of Metz, that they were so void of cannon to resist a siege; says of the outlying forts, that they were in a state of incompletion almost incredible; and, generally, that the want of preparation was such that "the French certainly deserve great credit for holding out as long as they did." In fact, the impression made on the reader is that, had the Germans been indifferent to the cost of an assault, they would have had little difficulty in taking the city in that way. After the engagement at Borny (August 14) ("this field was the only one the Army of the Rhine occupied after battle"), the gates of Metz were opened to a column arriving in the early morning by a sleepy guard, "bearing a candle in his hand, and rubbing his eyes. I saw no sentinels anywhere about. The city was in a state of siege, and the enemy not three miles distant." Again, on the eve of the battle of Rezonville, "the French had no pickets anywhere, and the Prussian scouts were loitering all along our roads as if they belonged there. I noticed one in a cabaret only half a mile from Metz." More singular, after the investment had been completed, the city journals were not put under restrictions. "The news-vendors brought us these papers every day, and were allowed to go, not only all through our lines, but also into the Prussian lines, so that the enemy knew exactly what was going on. In these papers was printed from day to day a detailed account of the French forces, with the names of the generals commanding them, and the position they occupied. Moreover, an account of the remaining stores was given, and one editor advanced an opinion as to how long the siege would last." Of a piece with this was the firing of a cannon whenever the balloon-post was sent off, thus warning the Germans to be on the lookout to bring it down if possible—as they generally did.

Concerning the fighting qualities of the French soldiers, Major Boyland has little that is new to tell us. He saw them at their best at Borny. His general judgment of them is contained in the following extract:

"I have known a whole squad of them to fire at one man—and miss him. Their character is so excitable that they are easily overcome by a cool hand. Prussian officers have told me that, when going into battle, their men would be wounded or killed before they could get within a sufficient range to reach the French; but on coming, a large percentage of the balls went over their heads. This is attributed to the fact that the French in their flurry would forget to set the little *cran* on the barrel of the chassepôt, marking the distance, right, and when they came nearer the enemy (supposing the *cran* to have been regulated 1,500 yards, and them now within 800 yards), the balls would go much too high, while the Prussians had only to pour in a fire underneath."

What follows is not new either, but will bear repeating. At Martigny,

"The best house seems to be the café, before which officers and soldiers are sitting together. This is one of the secrets of their indiscipline. . . . The French soldiers, familiarized by their officers, become disrespectful and careless—a laxity of discipline being the natural consequence. I have never yet seen Prussian soldiers and officers sitting together in any public place. The officers hold themselves aloof from their men, whom they treat with the utmost severity; the men in their turn are taught, almost from their birth, to respect their officers. I have seen them sitting at a café in Berlin, and an officer came in. They got up, saluted, and remained standing till he passed them; they then immediately paid for what they had, and left the café. Whenever they meet an officer anywhere, they salute. The French rarely salute any but the officers of their own regiment."

One of the oddest phases of the siege was the independent organization of the National Guard, three thousand in number. They afforded much amusement to the regular troops by their awkward drill, and by their ignorance of the trumpet-calls, playing the reveille at night and the *diane* at midday, "while they march to the music generally played to summon the soldiers to the distribution of rations at four o'clock every afternoon." These doughty warriors assumed charge of the public buildings. When news came of the fall of the Empire, they needed no conversion to the Republic. The first thing they did was to make a night demonstration at the city hall, where the old mayor came out and read for them a manifesto to this effect: "The National Guard wishes to assure Marshal Bazaine that he can count upon them. The municipal council will not in any way be answerable for events that have not been entrusted to their responsibility. The inhabitants must undergo privations equal to the occasion." This having produced no effect on anybody, they next demanded that the eagle surmounting the French flag should be torn off, and made the tour of the public buildings until they had accomplished the removal of the odious symbol. Finally, they tried to exact of Bazaine an act of cohesion to the Government of National Defence, and a promise of no surrender; but without avail.

We need not dwell on the evidence furnished by Major Boyland of the inefficiency and disorganization which characterized the medical as they did all other branches of the French service. It may, however, be of interest to note that the *infirmiers* received as wages 75 francs a month, while the pay of the common soldier was but 15 francs; so that whenever vacancies occurred among the former (some of whom, it was found, "had enlisted to rob the dead upon the field of battle, to say nothing of the living with whom they were in daily contact"), they could readily be filled by volunteers from the ranks. Contrary to our American experience and the latest views on hospital construction, our author observed that "the wounded that were kept in tents during the siege of Metz seemed to die more rapidly than those in the buildings; they did not linger so long, and the average rate of deaths was greater." In a tobacco factory assigned for use as a hospital, and in which "piles of tobacco-leaf lined the walls, leaving a great wide space between them," in which the wounded were placed (on stretchers in default of beds), Major Boyland noticed "that these wounded at first seemed to do better than the others; but soon they began to fall off. . . . Doubtless the tobacco, with which the room and whole building were impregnated, acted as a narcotic, and thus aided in producing pyæmia."

Major Boyland engaged for the war as assistant surgeon-major in the First French Ambulance. His diary, as here given, has all the marks of truthfulness and candor, and has a positive value as a contribution to the history of the Franco-Prussian conflict. It would have had more if it had been less arbitrarily divided into chapters, and if accompanied by a sketch-map of Metz, its gates, forts, roads, and principal suburbs. We should have supposed that the author would have preferred to conceal the fact of his participation in occasional sprees, such as that one in which the barmaid's father, interposing to protect her from an excess of attention, is rudely pitched out of the window, with a broken arm; still more the fact that, when his mission was to save human life and suffering, and he wore the protecting badge of the non-combatant, he "had the satisfaction," on one occasion, of "bringing down" a German picket from behind a bush.

The Pilgrimage of the Tiber, from its Mouth to its Source; with some Account of its Tributaries. By Wm. Davies. (London: Sampson Low; New York: Scribner.)—It is remarked in the preface to 'The Pilgrimage of the Tiber' that "it is somewhat singular, in these days of much travelling, that the course of the Tiber, the most classic of all streams, should either never have been completely explored, or else no account should have been given of it in its entirety, either in the English or Italian language, as far as I am aware." If the author means by this anything more than that it is singular that no one had been before him in perceiving how taking a title for a book would be the one which he has chosen, we beg to differ from him. The guide-books and many books of travel have given all there is to be said of interest on all parts of the Tiber that have interest, and the fact that Mr. Davies has been obliged to make up the substance of his book from historical records connected with Tiberine localities, shows that, even for a professed pilgrim by its shores, there was little to be said about the river or the country that lies along its course except what is connected with Rome and, after a long interval, Perugia. 'Traditions of the Tiber' would have been the proper title. Rome is the Tiber's better part, and this the author practically acknowledges by filling nearly half the book with a hash of the guide-book literature of Rome—162 pages out of 340 being devoted to the city and its immediate vicinity, with the exception of the few opening pages relating to Ostia and the mouth of the river.

The original matter of the book—*i. e.*, the story of the journey up the stream—is a poor piece of 'prentice-work. Its comments and description are commonplace and often bombastic, its erudition mere undigested cramming, and its history a promiscuous medley of fable, romance, and fact. It is impossible not to perceive that every pains has been taken to make up a volume of reasonable size, and much rubbish has been foisted on the printer in this determination. It is a good sample of the result of trying to think up a subject. Apropos of Ostia, we have the mythology and theology of Jupiter, Cybele, and Mithras; in allusion to the Protestant cemetery, we have a detailed account of the funeral rites of Shelley; and all through the book we are on all possible occasions reminded that thereby hangs a tale, and then we have it. This need not have prevented the book from being a good and artistic one; but it is neither. Evidence of original powers of observation or reflection we cannot find in it. With such a trite and sophomorical opening as this the author greets the Eternal City: "What a strange sensation is that which overpowers the traveller on his first arrival in Rome! With what varied and innumerable associations is his mind filled! The very name of it is laden with memories which breathe a vitality through the banished centuries, ensouling the present with the mighty energies and active life of the past." The historical excerpts are of all sorts, as we have already indicated, and are brought together without the least regard to authenticity or the result of modern research. But we must render the book the justice to say that some of the mediæval stories are new to the general reader and

interesting; peculiarly so is a long account of Cellini's escape from St. Angelo. The chapters "From Scorano to Todi," "Perugia, Assisi, and the River Clitumnus," have an average of the attractiveness imparted by commonplace travellers to places whose chief interest is foreignness. The chapter on popular songs is a selection from the collection of Tigri and Visconti, with a single exception. The translations, which are our author's, do not recommend themselves as such for fidelity either to metre, sense, or style.

"Vola, palomba, quanto puoi volare;
Salisci in alto quanto puoi salire;
Gira lo mondo quanto puoi girare;
Un giorno alle mie mani hai da venire,"

is not rendered by

"Fly, fly, wild dove, as far as thou canst go;
Rise in the air as high as high may be;
Sweep round the world wherever winds may blow;
One day, where'er thou go, thou must return to me."

Nor is it tolerable translation to turn

"Un garofano ho visto da una banda
Dall' altra parte un generoso fiore"

by

"A pink opens out on one hand,
On the other an exquisite flower."

Nor is any conception of a metre like

"La prima volta che m'innamorai"

given by a versification like this:

"When first the sweet pleasure of loving I knew";

nor is any idea of the classical simplicity of diction in any of the songs given by the author's renderings. The repetition, in the first quotation, of "quanto puoi" in each line is exchanged for a forced and trivial diversity of phrase antagonistic to the very spirit of the Italian song.

The Geological Evidences of the Antiquity of Man, etc. By Sir Charles Lyell, Bart., M.A., F.R.S. (Fourth edition. London: John Murray; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1873.)—The original work of Lyell on the antiquity of man was a timely and able contribution to knowledge. It was not so much the fruit of original research as a compilation of the researches of others in ethnology and archæology, with an exposition of the geological relations of the fossil remains of man found in caves and the remains of ancient human workmanship found in other repositories in connection with the bones of extinct animals. The original investigations of Boucher de Perthes, Morlot, Troyon, Steenstrup, Lartet, Fuhlrott, Christy, Prestwich, Evans, and many others, with the critical observations of Huxley and others, had brought together such a body of evidence, and had indicated so forcibly its bearings upon the antiquity of man, that such a work was needed to embody and discuss this evidence. In the treatise in question, that work has been performed with thoroughness and candor. Its publication has been followed by a very general acquiescence among scholars in the main proposition, namely, that the existence of man upon the earth cannot be measured by the six thousand years of the old chronology, but stretches back into the past for tens of thousands and, not unlikely, for hundreds of thousands of years. The acceptance of this conclusion, and the consequent enlargement of the recognized period of human existence, must be regarded as one of the greatest events in science within the present century.

The present edition is a revision of the last, with additional matter. It is now in three distinct parts, of which the first treats the evidences of the antiquity of man from remains of ancient art, and from osteological remains of man found in connection with those of extinct animals; the second treats of the glacial period, and, incidentally, the question whether man was preglacial or post-glacial in the time of his first appearance; and the third treats the origin of species with reference to man's place in nature.

We are glad to see this revised and enlarged edition, which will be hailed with pleasure by all who are interested in the progress of knowledge. An objection might be taken to the patronizing air with which the several subjects are handled, more especially as the work is chiefly a compilation from the researches of other men; but so much of unquestionable value in geological science has been achieved by this eminent scholar that we are easily reconciled to his assumption of the mental attitude which is involved in the parental relation. We are chiefly indebted, however, to Prof. Huxley, perhaps the greatest living expounder of science, for the solid ground on which our knowledge of the antiquity of man now reposes:

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*
Art-Journal, September, swd.	(Virtue & Yorston)
Bagehot (W.), Lombard Street: the Money Market.	(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.)
Des Chesnez (Baroness E. M.), Lady Green-Satin and her Maid Rosette.	(Porter & Coates) $2 00
Fay (T. S.), First Steps in Geography.	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) $0 75
Hale (Mrs. S. J.), New Cook-book.	(T. B. Peterson & Bros.) 1 75
Jerrold (D.), Fireside Saints, and Other Papers.	(Lee & Shepard)
Kip (L.), The Dead Marquise: a Tale.	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 1 75
Kiepert (H.), Beiträge zur Entdeckungsgeschichte Africa's, Part I., swd.	(L. W. Schmidt)
Maitland (E.), By-and-By: a Tale.	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 1 75
Schwartz (Marie S.), The Son of the Organ-Grinder.	(Porter & Coates) 1 50
Stanley (Rev. A. P.), Sermons during his Tour in the East.	" " 1 50
Soule (R.) and Campbell (L. J.), Hand-book of Words often Mispronounced.	(Lee & Shepard) 0 60
Smith (Rev. J.), The Coming Man, 2 vols.	(Geo. Routledge & Sons)
Taylor (J. E.), Geological Stories.	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 1 75
Tyson (Dr. J.), Introduction to Practical Histology.	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Wright (E.), Politics and Mysteries of Life Insurance.	(Lee & Shepard)

Fine Arts.

SALVINI'S OTHELLO.

IT is magnificent, but it is not *Othello*. An *Othello* it is, and great of its kind, but not Shakespeare's. No wonder, though, that it receives the applause of listening nations; for in it the idea of *Othello* is reduced to the comprehension of the meanest capacity, and made easy for the apprehension of the dullest; and this idea is illustrated by an actor whose voice, whose person, whose flexibility of face, whose action, whose dramatic intensity, whose clearness of conception and directness of purpose, and whose physical force are each of them so singularly admirable as to be a distinction in itself, and unite in a combination of almost incomparable splendor.

Italians are born actors; far more so than Frenchmen, who are rather born talkers. The acting, the characteristic acting of the Frenchman in real life and upon the stage, is the action of restraint, of concealment, of suggestion, of *finesse;* that of the Italian is the action of revelation. He acts, consciously or unconsciously, to show all that he feels, all that he thinks; to make you see with his eyes, think with his brain, and feel with his soul. But expressing thus his profoundest emotions with vivacity and strength, he lacks, except in moments of calmness, the power and the dignity which are given by reserve; so that, for instance, his manifestations of anger are generally more laughable than terrible. In Signor Salvini the histrionic genius of his race seems to have reached its most characteristic, as well as its highest, development. If he were dumb, he might play *Othello* just as he plays it now, without speech, and with little loss of dramatic, or rather of histrionic, effect (although with the great loss of his beautiful elocution), so expressive is his face, so unmistakably clear is the meaning and purpose of his every movement, every gesture. Salvini is an actor of study, but above all an actor from impulse. His performance shows deliberate design, large and clearly conceived plan, and the minutest elaboration of detail; and then, notwithstanding all this, action according to the emotion that he summons up, rather than according to even his own intellectual perceptions and convictions. Rarely has the stage seen an actor who so perfectly as he illustrates that marvellous passage in "Hamlet":

"—— this player here
Could force his soul so to his own conceit
That from her working all his visage wan'd:
Tears in his eyes, distraction in's aspect,
A broken voice, and his whole function suiting
With forms to his conceit."

Salvini's subjection to the emotion into which he forces his soul, rather than his conformity to his own convictions, is very manifest; and, what is rarely the case with an artist, we are able to make a distinct comparison between the two. In a letter addressed by him to the *Roman Times*, and published on the 23d of last February, he says of *Othello:* "It is not his jealousy, it is not hate, it is not a ferocious impulse—it is the indignation of the honest man which impels the Moor to sacrifice his love, his adoration, his worship of Desdemona." A not uncommon notion of *Othello*, but a very incorrect one. *Othello is* jealous, grandly jealous if you please, but terribly so; and he does sacrifice his love, his adoration, and his worship of Desdemona; but it is to that form of selfish personal pride which is called jealousy by all the Indo-European peoples—a passion not noble; indeed very mean and selfish; which sometimes has its spring in sexual love, but sometimes exists even between the sexes—particularly on the part of women—without love; and which also arises in connection with all other emotions and desires, and in all has its rise simply in wounded vanity and disappointed desire—a passion which had its birth, according to the grand myth of Genesis, almost with the world, and caused the first murder, the first fratricide, and which, according to Milton, was known to celestial natures, and caused the first rebellion before the world began. Be this as it may, no performance of *Othello* could well be more unlike Salvini's description of *Othello* than Salvini's own performance. For if ever man was jealous with blind, self-tormenting, furious, raging, and only-with-blood-to-be-satiated jealousy, if ever man acted from ferocious impulse—with the impulse of a madman and

the ferocity of a wild beast, it is the Moor into which Salvini turns himself. It seems as if it were only the deadliness of his fixed purpose that keeps him from becoming a raving maniac before he has glutted himself with revenge, and sacrificed his love and the object of his love upon the altar of his wounded pride. This is jealousy; and Shakespeare's *Othello* was indeed jealous; but not exactly in this way.

The whole tragedy is changed, too, for the sake of the actor who represents its principal personage. In Salvini's "Othello"—we mean the play—the action is as much simplified as, in his conception and action, the chief personage is. This is a great loss; for all Shakespeare's men and women are creatures of complex natures. *Othello* is perhaps the simplest of them all; but being a man, and not a beast, he too is complex. Simplicity of design and structure is a good thing in its way, but it is not always the most admirable. There are animals whose structure is very simple, consisting chiefly of a mouth and a stomach, with some imperfect means of locomotion—they are very easily understood and described; but for that very reason they are not quite so interesting as other creatures of more complex organization—men, for instance, and also women. Now, Signor Salvini's *Othello* is a very simple creature. His nature consists of courage, furious passion, both in the largest and grandest style, and with these a kind of animal dignity, under ordinary circumstances, somewhat like that of a huge mastiff or of a Bengal tiger in repose. This is all. These traits are represented with a native power, the contemplation of which is in itself a great delight, and with a mastery of histrionic art which is unsurpassed by that of any artist of this generation, which indeed is, to our conception, almost unsurpassable. But, nevertheless, the outcome of all this, admirable as it is, is unsatisfactory. Salvini's *Othello* is not only too simple, but it is lacking in one great element—it is not heroic. Grand, and strong, and brave it is; but it is not elevated.

So with the version of the tragedy which he presents. It is shorn of all that lifts it (except as to the words in the mouths of the three principal characters) above the rank of a great melodrama. The many circumstances and the complicated motives that weave themselves like a fatal net about the wretched Moor and his hapless love are all swept away as surplusage, and we have the bare leading facts that *Othello* loved *Desdemona*, and she him; that they were secretly married against her father's will; that *Iago* pumped jealousy out of infinite space into his breast; and that he killed her and then cut his own throat. For—to give an instance, and we can do no more—in this version of the tragedy *Cassio* and all his surroundings and actions are almost obliterated. *Cassio*, the man whom *Othello* loved, he who had a daily beauty in his life which even *Iago* saw and felt, and confessed that it made him ugly; he who, although a man of gallantry, had a soul so firm and lofty that he could resist and rebuke the temptations of *Iago* in regard to *Desdemona;* who was a soldier fit to stand by Cæsar and give direction; whom the Venetian Senate thought fit to take *Othello's* place when *Othello* was in highest favor; one of the loveliest characters that Shakespeare ever drew—*Cassio*, the jewelled pivot upon whom the action of the whole play turns, is almost cut out of the play, and is degraded into little more than a drunken sergeant. This is very sad business. It is destruction of Shakespeare's conception. We could have better spared a worse man—*Iago*, if it were not absolutely necessary that *Iago* should torment *Othello* and, still more important to some of us, be stabbed by him. And we could have all the better spared him because of the way in which this *Iago* was "presented or disfigured." All *Iagos* are bad. We have never seen an *Iago* that had the remotest idea of his own nature, or of the reason for his existence. But all the badness of all the *Iagos* who have ever made it seem impossible that any one of them should deceive an adolescent gander is concentrated in the *Iago* whom Salvini suffers *Othello* to lure to his destruction.

In all the detail of the action, as in the manifestation of great passion, Salvini is simply perfect. Emotion flashes over his dark face like heat-lightning across a cloud. His fingers speak, and his very step betrays his feeling. Under the probe of his tormentor his audience-chamber becomes a cage to him, and he strides stealthily back and forth along the wall as if he longed to spring but could not. He devours *Desdemona* with his eyes; and sometimes mumbles and mammers over her in a somewhat repulsive fashion, which yet is quite consistent with his conception of a Moor and of a Moor's love. When, in the fourth act, the messengers come from Venice, and *Desdemona* enters with them, he behaves to her not like a man of noble nature wounded and outraged, but with the caprice and the rage of a wild beast. Quite possible, all this, in an untamed savage. But Shakespeare's *Othello* was not untamed nor yet a savage.

One strange mistake Salvini makes in costume. We can pass over his playing the third and fourth acts in a blue jacket and trousers, making him with his woolly head, look like a big black boy; we can even forgive his standing through these two acts in one tint of light blue by *Desdemona* in another tint of light blue, which is worse than the Princess Pauline Bonaparte's "getting herself up in a blue dress to sit down in a green chair." These are the trifling miseries to which the eye is subjected by those who are regardless of the harmony of forms and colors; but when an error in costume really affects the action and the sentiment of a scene, it is time to protest. In the second act, when *Othello* arrives at Cyprus, Salvini appears in a coat of chain-armor, with plate-armor over it; back and breast pieces, greaves and plated gauntlets and a helmet. He retires with *Desdemona* to their bed-chamber. The long scenes between *Iago* and *Roderigo*, and *Iago* and *Cassio*, follow, then the drunken scene followed by the brawl; and when the alarm is given, down comes *Othello* still armed cap-a-pie just as he went up, chain-armor, plate-armor, helmet, gauntlets, and all; and thus panoplied he rushes between the combatants. What were their little rapiers to him! In such an iron shell Corporal Nym himself might have thrown up their swords with his hands. They might as well have tilted at the Tower of Babel. And it was midnight. We have heard of men going to bed under certain circumstances with their boots on; did *Othello* mean to sleep on that particular night in full harness? Now when *Othello*, according to the tradition of the English stage, which we may be sure comes straight down from Shakespeare, rushes on in gown and slippers, with his sheathed sword hastily caught up in his hand, and thus breaks in between the brawlers, it all means something; and that meaning is entirely lost in Salvini's representation.

So in the fifth act great violence is done to Shakespeare's conception by what is called in stage cant the "business" of the last scene, which is exactly what the author of the tragedy intended that it should not be. The original stage direction has come down to us; it is, "*Enter Othello, and Desdemona in her bed*"; and it is plain that in Shakespeare's imagination of the scene she did not leave her bed. There can be no mistake about this, for after *Othello* has talked with her for some time, and just before he seizes the pillow to smother her, he says:

> "Sweet soul, take heed, take heed of perjury,
> Thou 'rt on thy death-bed."

And it is while she lies thus, and he bends over her, that her loveliness comes like a gleam of dawning joy between him and his dark purpose, from which all impulses of soul and sense unite to turn him. Salvini, bloodier than *Othello*, mangles all this tender beauty. He causes *Desdemona*, when she wakes, to rise and come to the front, where she remains chiefly with her back to the audience, while he glares, and grins, and sputters at her like a maniac, until at last he seizes her in his arms, and half carries, half drags her, shrieking, struggling—shall we say kicking?—the whole length of the stage; and there behind those curtains we know he does not smother her with her pillow, but strangles her with his brawny hands. And his own death is after the same brutal fashion, and with the same violence to Shakespeare's lofty and tender conception. Shakespeare's *Othello* dies because in his sense "'tis happiness to die"; and, turning to *Desdemona*, after he has given himself the death-stroke, he dies "upon a kiss." And as to the manner of his death, that is made as plain as possible:

> "I *took by the throat* the circumcised dog,
> And *smote* him, thus."

Could a picture be more vivid of a man seizing his enemy's throat by his left hand, and with his right thrusting his weapon into his heart? And, plainly, there should be no hint given, no suspicion awakened, of *Othello's* intention until "thus" comes with the thrust of the dagger, which does its work instantaneously and unobtrusively. But Salvini clutching at his own throat, and drawing a curved knife after his speech, saws away at it like a pork-butcher killing a swine. And then, with no thought of *Desdemona*, he tumbles struggling upon the floor, and the curtain, which in Shakespeare's "Othello" falls upon the tenderness and the grandeur of his heroic woe, comes down swiftly (but not swiftly enough) to hide his muscular quivering and his fleshly agony. Strong-stomached men can just bear this, although it requires the robust sentimental appetite of woman to relish it; but who that knows Shakespeare's "Othello" can suffer without an outcrying protest such robbery of all that elevates it above a mere desperate murder and suicide?

And yet this tragedy, thus mutilated, voided of its great purpose, and stripped of all its charm—this "Othello," thus misrepresented if not misconceived—takes us up, will we nill we, carries us along in a tempest of emotion, and leaves us at the close shattered to the very centre. For the reality, the personal magnetism, and the overbearing individuality of Salvini's acting are irresistible and terrible. We protest, and yet we look and listen. We sicken at this grand brutality, and yet we gaze upon it fascinated if not delighted; and we leave the theatre feeling that there has been a revelation to us—not of a new heaven but of a new earth.

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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

SEPTEMBER 22.

THE events of the past week in financial circles have been of exciting, if not positively startling, character. The failure of the Warehouse and Security Company, noticed in our last, was merely the prelude to a more general apprehension concerning the condition of banks, trust companies, and fiduciary institutions. It was known that the legal-tender reserve had been drawn down to a lower point than has been reached in many years. This arose from causes both natural and artificial. Large drafts had been made on New York for currency needed at the West and South. This drain of itself the banks could have easily withstood; but at the same time it happened that our customary help from England and the Continent failed. Hitherto it has been easy for almost any railroad corporation with decent credit to effect loans in Europe for specified periods. The agitation in certain Western States against railroads, the threats of hostile legislation, and predetermined decisions of the courts, have shaken the confidence of European capitalists so that they have curtailed their loans to America. This naturally threw a large burden on the New York banks just at the time when they were least able to bear it.

All this could probably have been got along with had it not been for the actual locking-up of greenbacks. It is impossible to resist the conviction that the bear speculators, with Jay Gould at their head, had actually withdrawn a large amount of money and locked it in their safes for the purpose of buying cheap stocks, after they should have created sufficient alarm and distrust as to frighten the timid capitalists, and thus crippled the efficiency of the banks. Accordingly, on Wednesday of last week the "hammering" process was begun, the stocks selected being the Rock Island, Toledo and Wabash, Western Union, all of them strongly held by the bulls. A general call for "margins" was the result. Next day the banks began to call in temporary loans, and, like a bolt from a summer sky, the announcement fell on the Street that the great house of Jay Cooke & Co. were unable to respond. The difficulties of this house were attributable to over-sanguine investments in the Northern Pacific Railroad, and its failure was received with uproarious excitement by the stock men. The blows of the bears had struck game much higher than they could have hoped for. The new railroad speculations at once became the rallying-cry of the alarmists. The depression extended to Lake Shore, New York Central, and the Vanderbilt stocks generally.

Next day, Friday, the banks, seeing the market values of first-class railroads shrinking so rapidly, as a measure of prudence called again and more loudly for repayment of their "call" loans. At such a time it was almost impossible to sell even the oldest and best-established stocks and bonds without great sacrifice. About eleven o'clock it was learned that the conservative banking-house of Fisk & Hatch was also unable to respond. This announcement was greeted as the precursor of a general crash; for it was believed that this was one of the richest and soundest business houses in New York. It would appear that they had advanced large sums to railroad corporations (all of them completed and solvent, but not fortified by any large bank balances), and that their suspension is more of the character of an accidental suspension than a downright failure from losses. From that moment Wall Street became greatly excited and the Stock Exchange half frantic. Values began to decline—so far as they are indicated by brokers' sales—and the bear speculators were in their glory. They had succeeded in selling down some of the leading stocks ten to forty per cent., and now began to buy in, to cover sales made at higher rates. The following will give an idea of the infatuation of those three days of Stock Exchange madness, comparing the highest and lowest prices of the week:

	Highest.	Lowest.
Harlem	128⅛	90
N. Y. Central	104	91
Erie	59	53
Toledo and Wabash	59	38⅛
Northwestern	58⅛	40⅛
Rock Island	107	88
Western Union	91	45

Of course numbers of brokers were soon involved, either by the failure of their principals to respond with sufficient "margin," or by the unwillingness of the banks to certify their checks. At this time rumors were circulated of "runs" on the banks and failures of several of them. Only one, however, the Commonwealth, had suspended. Eighteen names were read off in the Exchange as among those unable to stand by their contracts. Friday night closed upon a most excited community, and many appeals to the associated banks and to the Government to do something to quiet the alarm. On Saturday the scenes at the Exchange were renewed. The Clearing-House banks had done what they could—they had agreed to pool their currency in a common fund, and to issue loan certificates against their assets, which shall be exchangeable among themselves. Unfortunately, this was an evidence of their depletion gratifying to the bears. Prices were receding still lower; the difficulty of getting checks certified, however, and the distrust of the condition of the banks, made dealings hazardous to all but those who had provided a store of bank-bills for this occasion. The sellers of stock prayed for a cessation of dealings, and at noon on Saturday the Exchange was closed, and so remained at the date of our going to press.

This action was deemed eminently wise, and has demonstrated the fact that, as a source of mischief, the stock gamblers, when congregated, are unrivalled. It is not deemed prudent to reopen the Exchange until as many settlements have been made privately as can be, as the resumption of business is certain to be followed by numerous sales of delinquent members' stocks "under the rule."

Gold, which had fallen during the past week to 110⅞ @ 111, was moved upward to 113 for a short time, and gradually receded to 111⅞ @ 112, at which figure it stood when the Gold-room was closed on Staturday, and dealings were settled at that figure in the absence of other quotations. Foreign exchange on the prospect of remittances hither and of less importations has receded to 107¼ @ 107½—an indication that in certain articles our orders to Europe have been curtailed.

The gravity of the situation, or rather its apparent gravity, may be gathered from the fact that the President and the Secretary of the Treasury, accompanied by Reverdy Johnson, came to New York on Sunday morning, and during that day were in long and anxious consultation with Messrs. Vanderbilt, Schell, Clews, Chittenden, and other merchants and bankers.

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Fourth edition revised and enlarged, price $2 50.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 2, 1873.

The Week.

THE panic was ended on Tuesday by the quiet opening of the Stock Exchange. In financial affairs, the week has been one of great quiet in New York. The closing of the Stock Exchange put a stop to all speculation, and the banks confined themselves mainly to aiding the merchants proper. An attempt of the Stock Exchange to get them to supply increased facilities to the brokers failed, and for obvious reasons. The first $10,000,000 of Clearing-house certificates, which were made to do the work of greenbacks in the manner we described last week, was soon exhausted. Another $10,000,000 was then issued, and the supply was still short; and the banks then resolved on issuing as many as might be necessary during the crisis—news which caused a good deal of cheerfulness "on the Street" on Saturday. What this process amounts to as far as the outside public is concerned, is simply the addition to the circulation of an enormous amount of checks drawn by private individuals certified by the banks. For instance, a man wants money, and he takes securities to the bank, which takes them to the Clearing-house, and obtains in return a guarantee from the other banks that they will stand by it to the extent of 75 per cent. of the value of the securities. It then certifies that the owner has funds to a certain amount on deposit in its hands, and he goes off with the check, and uses it in his business as money. The device is novel and ingenious, but is doing good service, and has carried the banks through the panic and saved the business world from a great calamity. The addition made to the circulation by this means and by the Government purchases of bonds during the week, and the certificates of the banks, is estimated at about $50,000,000, and the increase will continue, so that we shall probably have in a week or two a great plethora of money, when the enormous sums now hoarded by "the conspirators," as one Washington correspondent calls them, shall have been returned to the banks. The business of the country has passed splendidly through a very trying ordeal.

The most noteworthy thing in the crisis is the all but total repudiation of the National Bank Law. The banks in all the large cities are required to retain a reserve of 25 per cent. of the aggregate amount of their notes in circulation and their deposits. They have not now and have not for the past week had anything like this amount, and are legally prohibited from making any new loans or discounts as long as this state of things lasts, except by the purchase or discount of sight bills of exchange. But they are making more loans and discounts than ever, and, so far from standing in any danger from interference on the part of the Comptroller, a letter of the President to Mr. Claflin of this city impliedly approves of what they are doing, and encourages them to do more of it. One other fact curiously illustrates what a loose and easy-fitting garment our financial legislation is. It has been the practice of certain banks to enable stock-brokers to carry on their operations by certifying their checks early in the day for enormous amounts, when there is not one cent to their credit, on *the understanding* that the broker will make his account good before three o'clock by paying in the money or depositing securities. In other words, the bank makes him great loans, to be used in highly hazardous operations, without any security whatever. That such a system should have been carried on so long and with so little loss and damage, is a striking proof of the integrity of the brokers; but when a panic comes, it brings the brokers' banks to the ground; and even in the best of times it supplies the makers of "corners" with their ammunition. In other words, it offends against sound banking and good morals. Its evils are just now the subject of general comment, and there is an almost unanimous expression that it ought to come to an end, and that the brokers ought to have a bank of their own to effect their own clearances and support their "little games." Now, it will hardly be believed by many of those who have been listening to the talk of the last week on this subject, but it is strictly true, that there is a special act of Congress—that of March 3, 1869—which prohibits national banks from certifying any checks, unless the drawer has on deposit at the time "an amount of money equal to the amount specified in the check," and subjects any bank which disregards the prohibition to the extreme penalty of being wound up by the Comptroller; so that this practice of bolstering up stock speculation might have been stopped by that officer long ago if he had done his duty. As the world has gone thus far, it is no discredit to any banking law that it should break down in panic. The old banking law of this State was deliberately set aside in 1857 by the judges, in private consultation, in advance of any suit or motion, and the English Bank Charter Act of 1844 is regularly broken whenever the drain of bullion cannot be stopped by raising the rate of interest. But any banking law ought to be enforced in ordinary times, and it would seem as if, as we have tried to show elsewhere, the great commercial countries had reached a pass at which legal provision for crises and panics was absolutely necessary. They occur so regularly that there is no excuse for any longer dealing with them by revolutionary processes, and banks ought to be empowered and required to meet them in a specified manner.

The Barings, unless men of very superior mould, must have taken grim satisfaction in the failure of the two bankers to which our Government recently committed the business which their own house had done for eighty years. The American community, however, cannot be expected to see anything very entertaining in the spectacle. It not only does not help the national credit, but it does tend to bring the national mode of doing business into disrepute, to see the houses chosen deliberately by the Administration for the transaction of its foreign business go rattling down among the very foremost in a stock panic. As we pointed out at the time it was made, in terms which many people thought too severe, the change was, certainly as regards Mr. Clews, a political job. Mr. Clews appeared on the surface as a banker only nine or ten years ago, and he has always been as much of a "worker" as a banker. It was to reward him for his political services that the Government business was given him, or, in other words, instead of the bankers' credit drawing the Government balance, the balance was given to help the credit, and the natural result has followed. It was curious and illustrative that Tom Murphy should have appeared on the scene immediately after the failure, and announced that "he would not have had it happen for $5,000," and that Senator Morton should have declared that "Henry's failure was the hardest blow the President had had yet." We trust it *was* very hard; would that it might confine every politician in the country to his bed for two months, and that it might induce "Henry" to let "the great party" alone, and occupy himself with his private business.

Although a great deal has been written and spoken during the past two weeks about "moving the crops," nothing at all has been heard from the farmers on the subject of cheap transportation. It seems unfair that the only people who really understand the question should, just at the moment when information is most needed, withhold it from the people. We had always inferred, from the speeches and resolutions of the granges and farmers' conventions, that what was wanted for cheap transportation was either the completion of the Fox River and Wisconsin Canal, or the building of a four-track steel-rail continental railroad from the corn-fields of the

West to the seaboard, or else the rehearing and reversal of the Dartmouth College Case by the Supreme Court; but it seems now that all that is wanted to move the crops is a little more currency. It would be a sad day for the bold yeoman of Illinois and Iowa if he were obliged to confess that, after all, it was becoming not so much a question of cheaply transporting himself and his crops, as of getting any transportation at all.

We predicted in the *Nation* at an early stage in this movement the very serious effect on the prosperity of the West itself which would be certain to result, in the long run, especially if it were encouraged by the newspapers and other advisers who ought to know better. The Chicago *Tribune* ridiculed what we said, and did what it could to fan the flames of the farmers' discontent by advising as a remedy for the existing evils the confiscation of a large part of the capital invested in the railroads. In this same newspaper we now find it stated that at the beginning of the panic eight Illinois railways were engaged in important works of construction, which would have "facilitated transportation, rendered travel safer, and living cheaper," but which now cannot be carried out. "The Lake Shore and Michigan Central were laying double tracks, mainly of steel, to facilitate the movement of our exchanges with the East. The Burlington, Rock Island, Alton, and Northwestern were also putting down large quantities of steel rails, and perfecting their magnificent systems of roads. The Illinois Central was assisting the Southern Railroad Association to form an all-rail route between Chicago and New Orleans, and several companies were endeavoring to bring coal much cheaper to Chicago. Owing to the difficulty of obtaining money, men are being discharged by the hundred, wages will soon be cut down, and the laboring classes are to be involved in much want and misery, or, at any rate, great immediate distress." The *Tribune* has what we must call the extraordinary boldness to explain this state of affairs by the "violent outcries" raised by certain individuals, whom it does not now distinctly point out, "against the corporations," and adds that "prominent railroad men" foresaw the crisis, but were powerless to avert it, because "only the hoarse cry, Down with monopolies! could gain the popular ear." "The multitude caught up the shout, and, accompanying it with fierce demonstrations, sent it across the sea, until capitalists, who were ready and able to advance the money the West needs and must have for its development, shrank from touching securities which the ambition of demagogues could at any moment render valueless." When a public counsellor in one month loudly demands confiscation, and the next refers to its own demand as the "hoarse cry of a demagogue," and to prove it insists on the very arguments it ridiculed a month before, we can hardly wonder at the wild language of those whom he advises.

Meeting in the midst of the panic, the Republican State Convention last week went through its business in haste and dulness, and adjourned at the end of the first day. Its ticket is a ticket for the less prominent State officers, and may be said to be fairly well made up. The name of General Barlow, the present Attorney-General, is dropped from the list, and the more zealous friends of the nominators and nominees assert as a reason for this that General Barlow had months ago declared emphatically that he was not a candidate for renomination. Months ago he was not. But that he was not, however unwillingly, a candidate when the Convention met, is an assertion which will not be made. The failure to secure his nomination would slightly mitigate regret for the failure of the ticket to carry the State should such be the result of the election. This, however, does not now seem probable. Mr. Silliman, who takes General Barlow's place, bears the reputation of being a good lawyer, but he is understood to be of a less aggressive turn than General Barlow, and of course, too, the probabilities are that the "ring suits" would be better prosecuted by a man who has had charge of them from the beginning than by a new man. Such was not to be the case, however; and why not may yet appear in the history of the suits in question. Mr. Silliman, it is just to say, was not the first choice of the men who are understood to have entered into certain agreements, express or implied, with Mr. William M. Tweed last autumn.

The platform of resolutions adopted at Utica was worse than such documents usually are. They are apt to be platitudinarian, and will have to be so no doubt till the end of time, and nobody will greatly object. But surely it has by this time become a shade too much to talk of the party's having "abolished slavery, crushed the rebellion, preserved the Union, established equal political and civil rights," etc., etc. And platforms, whatever else they are, need not record the spitefulness or personal animosities of one man. It is not the height of either magnanimity or good manners for Mr. Conkling to refer to the "several members of the small faction who recently deserted their party," etc., etc. This means that Senator Fenton, who is wise in his generation, some time since saw that there would be violent popular disapproval of the "back pay" enactment, and returned his money to the Treasury; while Mr. Conkling, less prudent or more wilful, refused to take notice of the storm until he found that nothing less than obedience would serve. He is now said to be the author of the resolution which condemns the action of Congress in passing the obnoxious measure. It, at all events, fits his personal case as precisely as if it had been made with a view of apologizing for his recalcitrancy. The resolution says that public censure is due those Senators and Representatives who took the money; that the Convention charges the wrong upon neither party—though, to be sure, more Democrats, relatively, than Republicans voted in favor of the increase of salaries; that the Convention gives its commendation to such Senators and Representatives as have refrained from taking the increase; that it thinks the true and only way of getting the money back into the Treasury is to wait until Congress has passed a law compelling such money to be "covered into the Treasury"; and that it requests our New York Senators and Representatives to see that such an act is introduced. A terrific enactment it will be, and greatly it will alarm gentlemen who have applied the money to hauling sand for their new houses, and otherwise "covering" it into their private exchequers.

The gossip about the Chief-Justiceship grows louder, and points more plainly than before to Mr. Roscoe Conkling as the probable nominee for the office. Indeed, gossip goes so far as to say that it is now at his disposal, but that he delays accepting it in order to see whether the result of the approaching election in this State will be such as to enable him to select his own successor in the Senate. The Boston *Advertiser* has performed, whether consciously or not we are unable to say, a somewhat ludicrous *reductio ad absurdum* on the appointment—if appointment it be—by looking into Poore's 'Congressional Directory' to see what Mr. Conkling's qualifications for the place are; and it pursues the investigation under the influence of the old theory that the Chief-Justice of the United States ought to be a great lawyer. It finds that he is forty-four years old; that at twenty-one he was elected State District-Attorney of Oneida County, which gave him a good run of criminal business; that at twenty-nine he became Mayor of Utica; at thirty a member of Congress for three successive terms; and at thirty-seven a United States Senator, which he still is. It is easily seen, therefore, that he has been most of his life in what is called "practical politics," and very little at the bar. The *Advertiser* is therefore not surprised to find that his name rarely appears in the reported cases of his own State, and that he has only appeared once before the Supreme Court of the United States; and that, in fact, his small practice has been that of a jury lawyer, and it cannot persuade itself that it is of such stuff as this that the President will make a Chief-Justice.

That Mr. Conkling is a man of ability, as the *Advertiser* observes, nobody can deny; but then there are all kinds of ability, and his ability is that of an ardent, indefatigable stump-speaker and party manager. Indeed, the stump has in our time produced no such fustian as he pours from it. When papers like the *Advertiser*

talk of his ability as a politician, it only shows to what base uses the word has come. To politics, in any good sense of the word, Mr. Conkling has not contributed a single useful or fruitful idea; he is not the author of a single measure of value or importance; he has made no speech which any sensible man can bear to read—so that his political claims to the chief place on the bench of the greatest tribunal in the world are as paltry as his professional ones. Indeed, there is in the very question whether a candidate for that place has had much legal practice, the most stinging exposition possible of his unfitness for it, under which anybody but a "manager" would wince and blush. The *Advertiser* feels hopeful that the appointment will not be made, and as hopefulness costs nothing, and in matters over which one has no control can do no harm, we share the feeling.

The Mixed Claims Commission has brought in its report, which wipes out every cause of difference, small as well as great, between Great Britain and the United States, as it covers all ground not touched by the Geneva Arbitrators. It awards $1,929,819 in gold, to be paid by the United States to England within a year, in satisfaction of all claims made against our Government by British subjects, and disallows all counter-claims by American citizens against England. The total amount actually claimed by British subjects was $95,000,000 nearly, so the award must cause a good deal of disappointment. But those who know how "claims" against a government are cooked up, will consider even $100,000,000 a moderate sum, in view of the fact that the period assigned to the Commission for examination was the five years between April, 1861, and April, 1865.

Readers of Mr. Nordhoff's book on California will remember his account of the feud between the farming interest and the cattle interest in Southern California. The struggle was as to which should prevail, and it turned on the point whether the farmers should be obliged to fence their lands at an enormous expense, or the owners of cattle to keep their stock within bounds. Hence arose the fence and the no-fence party in the valley of the San Joaquin, the former having for its latest champion in the Legislature one "Tom Fowler," who made it his business to oppose the passage of any bill prohibiting cattle from overrunning the growing crops in his neighborhood. The people of the Fourth Senatorial District have at last succeeded in defeating him. At the recent election, by a large majority, they chose in place of him Tipton Lindsay, a "no-fence man," and we presume this settles the question whether cattle-raising or agriculture shall be the predominant interest in Tulare, Fresno, and Kern counties. An extension to them of the provisions of the trespass law may shortly be expected, and we suppose there can be no doubt that the State will be the gainer by it, as it has been by the growth of agriculture and the decline or subordination of mining. It is noticeable that Fowler was rejected at the same election at which the railroad monopoly was so strenuously and so successfully opposed, although he had himself always voted against it, and sought to make capital by parading his "record" on the subject.

If, as is now talked of, a band of American Roman Catholics make a pilgrimage to any of the sacred places, it is to be hoped that they will recollect who they are, and their advantages of free education in our common schools, and not conduct themselves as the English and Scotch pilgrims are said to have done at Paray-le-Monial the other day. And the British devotees cannot say either that it was the bad Irish religionists in the party who made the disturbance, although the correspondent of the *Methodist* professes to have heard "the Hibernian brogue very distinctly" among the crowd of pilgrims as they waited at the railroad station in London. He is mistaken, and an inability to listen correctly to brogues he appears to add to the inability to count higher than 800 which the *Catholic Review* points out. He said in his letter that he thought there were no more than 800 pilgrims present, of whom one-half were women and a half of what was left ecclesiastics, while among the remainder the "Hibernian brogue was distinct" in his ears. The *Review* shows that there were between 1,200 and 1,500 pilgrims, and that the children of the Holy Isle, perhaps as being more excitable, were expressly shunted out of the English and Scotch party. It was not Irishmen, then, but Englishmen and Scotchmen, or men and women, who broke off whole branches of the sacred nut-trees near the shrine of St. Mary Alacoque, and scuffled for pieces of the same—all in a manner which has brought the French press out strong on the native brutality and vandalism with which the Englishman has been endowed by Providence—an endowment which leads him alike to knock noses off the statues of a pagan religion and to tear branches from the pious groves of the Christian faith. As a set-off to this rudeness, it is gratifying to find that politeness comes to the aid of sanctity with a new *robe à la prie-dieu*, and a bonnet to match. The skirt is of a severe neutral tint, ranging between slate and dove color; the mantle is cut *à la Carmelite*, and the bonnet shaped *à la béguine*. The back breadths being the most prominent, are frilled up to the waist, and some fancy is spent in giving the frills a pretty garniture not inconsistent with the religious aspirations of the wearer, who is peculiarly suited to the garb when she has a regular profile, a slim but well-rounded figure, and liquid eyes looking to advantage if cast up to a high-hung altar-piece.

Those who remember the terror inspired by the International Association during the two years following the Franco-Prussian war, and the eager interest with which philanthropists and reformers informed themselves about its history and aims, will be somewhat amused by the report of the last General Congress at Geneva. The body has undergone a complete change within two or three years. Those who figured most prominently in it before the siege of Paris have abandoned or betrayed it. Varlin, a leading French delegate, was killed during the Commune; Murat has completely gone over to the capitalists; Fribourg has become a contributor to *La Liberté*, M. Emile de Girardin's paper, and has written a book "exposing" his old associates; Perrachon, who figured prominently in the Commune, has gone back to his trade as a worker in bronze, a sadder and wiser man; Chemalé, who was an architect, has become a journalist; Tolain has basely become a member of the National Assembly, and is said to trouble himself about the labor problem no more; Richard has not only deserted the organization, but has become an ardent Bonapartist, and paid a visit of condolence to the Empress at Chislehurst. Of the Swiss leaders, Dr. Coullery has accepted a Government office, and keeps still as a mouse; Dupleix has withdrawn into obscurity; and the German organization is broken up. Odger and Lawrence, the principal English disciples, have long ceased to belong to the organization, in which Karl Marx and his friends got the upper hand at the Hague last year, leading to an irretrievable split into Centralists and Federalists, and the transfer of the General Council to New York, where one hardly ever hears of its existence, and where even the expansive Bradlaugh finds it necessary to snub and repudiate it.

The Congress at Geneva was, therefore, mainly officered by young and unknown men, but it was more harmonious, though not much less wild, than its predecessors. But nothing less alarming than the debates could well be imagined. The reports of the various "federations" were very mild affairs, and had little to tell except stories of strikes. The Spanish report was rather peppery, however, and put a new face on the disturbances in the various large cities, which were caused, it seems, by attempts at legitimate defence on the part of outraged workingmen. It is plain the International will not set the world on fire. There is too much human nature in man for any wholesale change in his condition. But it is worth recalling now, for future guidance, that a great many sober and sensible men were really impressed by the ravings at Bâle and Geneva, and had half worked themselves into the belief that society would have to be reorganized on the International plan, and that any world in which we did not *all* have parquet seats at the opera, and a triennial tour in Europe, was out of joint.

A FEW WORDS TO RAILROAD MORALISTS.

WE hope the present crisis will not pass away without bringing back to their sober senses at least a considerable proportion of the gentlemen who have helped in the ravings of "The Farmers' Movement." We notice a good many of them just now among the number of those who are railing against the railroad builders and are ridiculing Jay Cooke for trying to construct the Northern Pacific, and Kenyon Cox for advancing money to the Canada Southern, and Sheppard Gandy and Francis Skiddy for helping the Missouri, Kansas, and Texas. They can hardly find language strong enough to show up the folly and wickedness of those who have been engaged in the construction of these new lines. The country did not want them, they say, and prudent men ought not to have risked their funds in them, and thus brought this ruin on us all. There are several newspapers, which ought to know better, engaged in the production of this rather senseless talk, and these we would remind of a few health-giving facts in this wise: When you engaged in the wild part of the farmers' movement and began to talk of railroads as if they were public property, and of confiscating all stock which you did not think was properly issued, and of completing the spoliation of the unfortunate stockholders, already begun by the directors, your attention was distinctly called to the fact that railroads were built in the main with private capital, and that they were highly hazardous enterprises, in which men would not enlist for the mere chance of the ordinary profits on capital. Even where they received grants of land, the land was not of any immediate value, and all return for the investment was sure to be remote and slow. But you were glad to get the roads built on any terms, and eagerly encouraged people to build them, or, in other words, to embark in what has to most of them proved a losing venture.

Now, those who took your advice did exactly what Messrs. Jay Cooke and Kenyon Cox have done. They incurred great risks for the chance of extraordinary gains, and you thought they had done right and had acted in a manly, public-spirited, and American way, for which you were very grateful; and it never occurred to you to call their railroads "wildcat" enterprises or denounce them as gamblers or squanderers of the public wealth. On the contrary, you honored them as great public benefactors. Far from trying to limit or define their interest in the railroads, too, you tried both by your oratory and legislation to make it as large and unrestricted as possible. So far from talking of arbitrarily restricting their profits, you tried to make them believe that their profits would go beyond the dreams of avarice, and, by way of assuring them against hostile State legislation, you flaunted the Dartmouth College Case in their faces, with some grateful reference to the immortal Webster who argued it.

You will, therefore, see at a glance that it does not do for you now to turn round and revile the men who have risked their all and lost it in following your foolish and uproarious advice. It is, in particular, highly unbecoming of you, to use a mild word, to dwell with so much solemnity on the fact that the new railroads which have brought these gentlemen down, run out into the wilderness, or to insist, as you are doing, that railroads ought not to be made except through populous districts, or made at all till they are sure to pay. You know perfectly well that every American railroad running east and west had, when it was first made, one end in the wilderness, and lay through a sparsely-settled and non-paying country; and indeed you know, too, that it is these railroads which have peopled the West and produced those enormous masses of products of which you boast so much in your speeches and articles; so that, if capitalists had always acted on the rules now laid down by you for the guidance of "railroad speculators," there would not be any West at all, and some of its finest cities would be collections of "three-quarter camps." Moreover, if half the stories you have been circulating during the last six months about the enormous profits of railroads and about their extortions be true, railroading is about the very best business in which unscrupulous and far-seeing capitalists could engage. There may be moral, but there are no financial objections to building or running them. If you had chosen to look at the figures, you could have satisfied yourselves then that what you are now shouting so loudly is strictly true—that they were not, except when well and honestly managed, by any means profitable, even in a very small number of cases; but instead of helping to improve their management, and have integrity and purity infused into it, you lifted up your voices in support of a scheme of virtual confiscation, which, if you were successful in carrying it out, would not only produce a financial convulsion, to which the one through which you are now passing would only bear the relation of a light breeze to a tornado, but would stop all railroad-building in the United States for twenty years to come, and make it a country which capitalists would avoid as they avoid Spain or Mexico.

But this is not all. The public cannot permit you in silence to hold, at one and the same time, two opposing theories of railroad property. You must not run with the hare and hold with the hounds. If you have no respect for your own intelligence, you must at least feign a little for ours. You were all maintaining one month ago that railroads were public highways, from which stockholders were only entitled to what the State chose to allow them, and on which, indeed, as some of you held, every citizen ought to have the right of running his own car. In that case, persons who spend money in making new ones are contributors to the public welfare on a great scale; and when they ruin themselves, it is our duty, not to abuse them as bad business men, but to honor and reward them as self-denying and unfortunate philanthropists. If, on the other hand, railroads are private property, to be managed, within certain wide limits, on business principles, for purposes of gain, the efforts you have been making during the last half-year to excite popular indignation against them, to cut down their earnings, and make the stockholders the objects of hostile legislation, have been, pardon us the expression, of a thoroughly nefarious character.

One thing more. We are all sickened, and fully as much as you appear to be, by the frauds and impurities of railroad management. We are generally agreed that these things have done much to bring about that distrust of railroad property which has worked the present panic. You have yourselves made a good deal of fuss about it. But up to this moment you have suggested no remedy. There is nothing that would do more for "the transportation problem," and other problems of even greater importance, than legislation that would bring railroads under the control of all the stockholders, and make directors feel their responsibility to the owner of *each share*, and smart for concealment and misrepresentation and malfeasance of all kinds. But so far as we have heard, you are not busying yourselves with this great reform at all. Your main object seems to be to plunder the unfortunate stockholder of the little the directors have left him, by making him carry goods at such rates as will relieve Western corn speculators from the consequences of their own folly and extravagance. While sympathizing with you on the dulness of "the off-year" in politics, and on the difficulty with which exciting and interesting topics have been discovered since the election, we submit to your judgment whether, even in ordinary times, our social and political condition is not too serious for such light and reckless handling of great interests as that in which you have been indulging, and whether the trepidation and anxiety which you see on every side of you at the present moment are not an illustration of the delicacy and complexity of the great machine which we have to manage, and by which we live, sufficient to convince you of the value of caution and sober-mindedness.

PAPER MONEY AS A PANACEA.

A GOOD many of the admirers of an irredeemable paper currency have begun to admit, sorrowfully but frankly, within the last few days, that whatever other virtues this currency may possess, it does not possess the power of preventing panics, for we are now passing through a well-developed panic in the midst of general soundness in trade. They are, however, a little hasty, it seems to us, in making this confession, because their experiment has not been

tried under the necessary conditions. If they will recall their talk of a few years ago, they will find that the reason they gave for believing that inconvertible paper would protect us against crises was that, unlike gold, it could be increased indefinitely in quantity whenever the occasion called for it. Panics, they said, consist in the sudden withdrawal of money from circulation; if money can be supplied in sufficient quantity to fill up the vacuum, the panic passes away; when the money is gold coin this cannot be done, but if the money be paper it can be done. Therefore, in a country in which paper is the legal tender, all that is necessary to meet a panic is to issue more paper. This is in a measure true. If people are frightened, and hoard their legal tenders, the immediate inconvenience can be avoided by issuing more of them. But by each issue you stimulate the spirit of speculation out of which panics are bred, and you find not only that each successive panic has to be met by a larger issue, but that panics recur oftener, so that at last your remedy loses its power. It is, as has been often pointed out, the old story of "keeping up the strength" with brandy.

The friends of irredeemable paper have, however, no occasion to feel disheartened by what is now occurring. Their plan of restoring confidence cannot be tried, because nobody has been armed with power to try it. Nobody has any legal authority to stifle a panic by fresh issues. Our present currency is, therefore, even less capable of meeting a crisis like the present than gold, because it is more limited in quantity. Accordingly, we are witnessing the extraordinary spectacle of people hoarding paper money in a time of general distrust, and the banks, after thirteen years' suspension of specie payments, suspending paper payments also, and forcing the business world to use private checks and other "tokens." No higher compliment to the credit of the Government could well be paid than is paid by this spectacle; but, then, what a curious illustration it furnishes of the shiftlessness of our financial legislation!

The jubilation of the friends of specie payments is, however, almost as unjustifiable as the despair of the votaries of paper. There is no foundation that we know of for the notion, which many journals are preaching, that, if we had a redeemable currency, panics such as we are now witnessing would not occur. How anybody can propound such a doctrine in the teeth of the experience both of this country and of England, we do not understand. The greatest panics of the century have occurred on a "specie basis." The most radical and destructive panic of our history, that of 1857, occurred when all bank paper was as redeemable as bank paper is ever likely to be. Do not let us, therefore, while exposing the vices of our present currency, pretend, like quacks, that we know of a financial panacea which will make such crises as that through which we are now passing impossible. There is no such panacea in trade any more than in medicine. Panics have their origin in human nature, and will recur as long as man remains man; we may render them rarer or less destructive, but we cannot entirely prevent them, and this for reasons that may be easily stated. They admit of classification based on their extent, but they are in their origin and nature all the same. They all have their origin in a sudden fear that debtors will not pay what they owe, whether the debtors be banks or private individuals. Sometimes this fear arises out of the sudden discovery that production in some particular field has been overdone, or that undue expectations have been entertained as to the value of certain commodities, or out of the sudden discovery of weakness or dishonesty in some concern of unusually high character; but the fear in every case produces precisely the same effect: it leads men instantly to stop from entering into contracts and to take into their personal possession—or, in other words, to hoard—all the money they can command. The result is scarcity of money and paralysis of trade. In countries like England and America, in which nearly all business is done on credit and banks of issue supply a large proportion of the circulating medium, and in which the industrial activity is very great, of course the results of such occurrences are terribly disastrous.

Now, there is only one way of meeting such crises, and that is by pouring into the banks such an additional supply of money as will keep the wheels of business revolving and prevent any serious pinch being felt, until the country has got over its fright. This has been proved again and again, particularly in English experience, in which panics have been more common than in ours. It was peculiarly well illustrated by the panic of 1866 in London, which in many respects resembled that through which we are now passing, inasmuch as it was caused by the sudden failure of Overend, Gurney & Co., a house in whose wealth and honor the public had the utmost confidence. There was at once a wild rush of depositors to banks and trust companies, and people began shouting, "If the Gurneys are not sound, whom can we trust?" just as people here have been shouting, "If we cannot trust Jay Cooke & Co. and the Union Trust Company, and so on, whom can we trust?" The Government at once permitted the Bank of England to issue notes beyond the $70,000,000 limit, and the result was the panic ceased as if by magic, although in point of fact the Bank did not issue any new paper whatever. Now, what happened in this case was simply this: The Bank said to the public, that hoard as it might, or withdraw its deposits as it might, the vacuum would be filled by fresh funds, and the merchants would obtain their discounts all the same, until the fright was over. Everybody, therefore, feeling satisfied that he could have his money if he wanted it, ceased to want it. Of course a "credit panic," as it has been called—that is, a panic like that of 1846 in England, caused by a tremendous failure in the harvest, or like that of 1857 here, caused by general overtrading, and producing widespread insolvency—cannot be checked by a summary process of this kind, but it may be greatly mitigated. This amounts to saying that a panic is really a mental rather than an economical phenomenon, and has to be dealt with by remedies addressed to the imagination, which is the plain truth of the matter, although it is obscured by a good deal of financial cant.

No matter, therefore, what currency we may have, there must be lodged somewhere in our banking system the power to meet panics by temporary expansion, and it must be a power capable of being used promptly and with decision. In England, it is lodged in the Bank of England, which, under letters of license from the Government, either prevents panics or prevents their spread. Sometimes this is done, as in 1846 and 1857, by affording timely aid to houses such as Brown, Shipley & Co. and George Peabody, whose fall would spread universal terror and confusion. It is safe to say that, under such a system here, either Jay Cooke & Co. would have been helped through their difficulties, or the stoppage of Henry Clews & Co., which renewed the alarm on Tuesday, would have been prevented. Sometimes, of course, as in the case of Overend, Gurney & Co., the affairs of even a great house may get into such a condition that, however great the dismay its ruin may be likely to cause, it ought not to be prevented. When this occurs, the only thing to be done is to confine the panic within as narrow limits as possible.

Now, there is little chance, even if it were desirable, of the establishment of any great regulator, such as the Bank of England, in this country. It could not fix the rate of interest for the whole country, as the Bank of England does. But it seems very clear that the proportion of paper to coin in our circulating medium is to be increasingly large, and that, in other words, the welfare and prosperity of the country, and its immunity from great commercial disasters, will every year depend more and more on the condition of our banking system. If panics are to be repressed, and the legitimate business of the community to be carried through trying crises, it is the banks which must do it; and to do it, they must be armed with the power, under certain circumstances and conditions, to increase the volume of the currency. At present, our banking system, elaborate as it is, has not only no provision for one of the most dreaded contingencies of commercial civilization, but it is actually forced into restricting the supply of money when money is most needed. When the recent demand for a temporary supply of more money came upon us, it was found that nobody had authority to supply it; and, though the conduct of the banks has been admirable, they have shown that they are, under the present system,

utterly unequal to the occasion, and Secretary Richardson's attempt to relieve them by the sale of bonds has simply resulted in adding $13,000,000 more greenbacks to the stock of the hoarders. It ought not to be necessary, at this time of day, to hold long consultations as to what ought to be done when the alarm caused by the failure of a great house threatens us with a commercial crisis. The machinery for dealing with such a contingency ought to exist, and be ready for instant use, as a fire-engine is. If it had been, the present panic would have ended on the second day. It is to be hoped that the supply of some such machinery will be one of the first pieces of work done by Congress next session, but it is as well to say that nothing of the kind can be devised in which the redeemability of paper does not play the leading part. No expansion on the part of banks can be permitted which is not checked and controlled by liability to have the paper returned for gold when the storm is passed; and it is a fair question whether some such restriction as the obligation to charge 10 per cent. discount, recently proposed by Mr. Lowe, on all unusual issues, ought not also to be added. The way in which the banks of this city have combined during the present crisis affords also a useful hint towards the construction of the *modus operandi*. The whole subject is one of vast importance, and strikingly resembles that on which a good deal of public attention has recently been bestowed—the best mode of saving cities from fire. It cannot be got rid of by abusing brokers and speculators. Brokers and speculators there will always be; and, when they fail or miscarry, they spread ruin among the innocent. The business of government is not to make the world perfect, but to make its imperfections as innocuous as possible.

THE FRENCH SUCCESSION.

PARIS, Sept. 11, 1873.

A SUPERFICIAL observer would believe that France is now absolutely calm; but under this apparent torpor the most profound and almost painfully active passions are at work. France feels herself drifting, as in an irresistible current, towards the future, without having the force to direct her own movements; a superior will seems to direct her, to destroy her hopes, to humble her pride, to choose her for a mere instrument. The country of Voltaire sends thousands of pilgrims to Paray-le-Monial, to Lourdes, and to La Salette. The captive of the Vatican still considers Revolutionary France as the "eldest daughter of the church." The motto of the Revolutionary days, "Liberty, equality, fraternity," is still seen on the walls, but the faith in the principles of 1789 has nearly died out in every heart. Renan, who is probably the most advanced representative of free thought, has no other advice to give to his country than to renew the pact with its old dynasty; just as Strauss, in his 'Old and New Faith,' throws Germany at the feet of the Hohenzollern. The Commune has destroyed our faith in fraternity. We have become Darwinians in politics, and ceased to believe in equality. Liberty needs the protection of the state of siege; and every day we hear of the suppression of some newspaper, of the interdiction of some meeting. The whole fabric of the old Liberal school has fallen to the ground, and some reluctantly, some with an eager impatience, Republicans as well as Monarchists, all call for a strong government. We cannot even complain that the obstacle to the establishment of a free and progressive government comes from the outside. It is hard to submit to force, but force does not dishonor its victim. Jules Favre had promised, in the name of France, not to abandon a stone of our fortresses nor an inch of our territory; and the German flag floats on the walls of Strasbourg and Metz. Paris, by the mouth of Trochu, had sworn never to capitulate, and German battalions have camped in the Champs Elysées. We have lost the illusion of our invincibility, but this illusion was crushed by the brutal hand of the enemy. What shall we say of so many other illusions which are gone also? How many idols of popularity have become objects of pity and contempt and hatred! France feels almost as much irritated by the consciousness of her moral impotence as by the memory of her defeats. She has been surprised at her own sterility. She has looked in vain, in her troubles, for one of those born conductors of men who can, at a given time, express all the aspirations, the hidden instincts, the hopes of a people. She has tried Gambetta, and found him empty; she tried Thiers, and for a moment she believed that, under his guidance, she could find her way towards a stable and conservative republic. This illusion also seems to be gone. And when Paris preferred Barodet to Rémusat, when Lyons sent to Versailles a soldier of the Commune, the country saw what M. Thiers would not see, and understood that the so-called Conservative Republic was merely like the curtain of a theatre, and that on the stage the Communists were already preparing their lists of hostages and forming their platoons of execution.

The parliamentary revolution of May 24th became the signal for a complete revolution of ideas, and all eyes turned again towards the Monarchy. The word Republic, to be sure, was officially preserved, but nobody understood better than the Republicans themselves that the Republic of the present day was threatened with the same fate as the Republic of 1793 and the Republic of 1848. The country became at once conscious that a great change had taken place. As soon as the Assembly separated, the Comte de Paris went to Frohsdorf, and declared to his cousin, the Comte de Chambord, that if the Monarchy was established in France, the eldest Bourbon was the only representative of the hereditary principle; that he was not himself a pretender to the crown, and that he would give the same assurance for all the members of the Orléans family. This visit is said to have moved the Comte de Chambord; it took him by surprise, as the Comte de Paris came alone and without having entered into any previous negotiation. The reason of it is obvious. The Comte de Paris was unwilling to enter into any political discussion with his cousin; he had no other object than to withdraw himself from the field of pretenders, and to mark, by a solemn act of abnegation, the necessity of uniting the monarchical parties. His silence on the constitutional question, on the question of the flag, indicated implicitly that he considered all such questions as belonging to the competence of the National Assembly. Nobody witnessed the interview between the grandson of Louis Philippe and the heir of Charles X. We only know that it was "cordial"; but it is not difficult to imagine what memories and thoughts must have surrounded the two interlocutors. The mere announcement of the meeting was an event in itself. The number of political solutions is not an indefinite one; and one solution was, as it were, withdrawn. The Comte de Paris is a good observer. He has seen, since he has been allowed to live in France, that the old Orleanist party was disorganized. He had neither the means nor perhaps the wish to rule it with a strong discipline. He saw such men as M. Thiers, Rémusat, Dufaure, who had been the ministers of his grandfather, now the leaders of the Republican party; while some Orleanists had joined the ranks of the Democrats, others had gone over to the Legitimist side. There was no fixed principle, no cry which could rally the Orleanists. They were the representatives and supporters of a constitutional monarchy; but Louis XVIII. had been a constitutional king, and the Comte de Chambord was not obliged to imitate Charles X. It probably was a painful sacrifice for the son of the Duchess of Orléans, for the grandson of King Louis Philippe, to go alone to Frohsdorf in Austria, and do, as it were, homage to the King of France out of France. But the necessity of a solution was felt by everybody, and there was a permanent danger in the division of the Monarchical party. There were three pretenders to the throne of France; two only are left. The Comte de Paris has taken his place as the Dauphin behind the Comte de Chambord. The Right and the Right Centre of the Assembly, which together placed Marshal MacMahon in power, will now be able to work harmoniously together, and will no longer be so dependent on the small nucleus of Bonapartists who sit in the Chamber.

The *fusion*, as it is called, has contributed to simplify the political problem; but I do not consider it as solved. There are still two pretenders, and France may still have to choose between the Empire and the Monarchy of Henri V. It is not one of the less eloquent proofs of the moral impotence of the country that the Empire, after Sedan, after the loss of Alsace, should have preserved a certain vitality, if I may so express myself. But it would be idle to deny that in the eyes of many the Imperial system has many of the advantages of the Monarchy, without many of the faults of the ancient régime. It can preserve order, and it does not wound the morbid love of equality which was engendered by the great Revolution. The Empire can give satisfaction to the most cherished aspirations of the Catholic clergy without becoming a visible instrument and tool of the Ultramontane faction. The roots of the system have gone very deep in the subsoil of the nation. The material prosperity of the country was so increased during the eighteen years of the Empire that the payment of a ransom of five milliards was almost too easy. A tragic succession of events has brought to the front the old monarchy of France, surrounded with all its associations and memories; but the dialogue between the descendant of Henri IV. and Louis XIV. and the new States-General has not yet begun. The Comte de Paris has gone like a herald to the King; but the King is silent, and nobody knows what will fall from his lips. His former declarations have been imprudent, but it may be that the terrible responsibility which now hangs over him will inspire him with moderation and with wisdom.

If a new marriage takes place between France and the historical house of Bourbon, it will be what the French call a marriage of reason. The example

of Spain shows what becomes of a nation which has grown under monarchical institutions when the ties of a national dynasty are broken. The communion between the Hohenzollern and Prussia, between the Hapsburgs and Austria, between the House of Savoy and Italy, between the successors of William the Third and England, furnishes examples which cannot be lost in Europe. Even Belgium owes something to a dynasty, though the Coburgs have so far only furnished two kings to the new kingdom. But these very examples show that there must be a community of feelings and of principles between a country and its dynasty. The principle of a modern monarchy is no longer a divine right, but the historical right of utility. Unfortunately, the Comte de Chambord cares less for the principle of utility than for his divine right. He dwells on the Sinai of royalty. There is something miraculous in his eyes in the succession of events which have imposed him, as it were, on the French people's attention. He is, therefore, not likely to conduct himself by the ordinary rules of prudence. He has nothing to do but to wait till the miracle is completely worked out. He can say *"non possumus"* with a quiet heart, like the prisoner of the Vatican, to all those who ask him to make any concessions to liberalism. He has to say but a single word to re-establish a constitutional monarchy in France, and perhaps he will not say it. His objection to the tricolor flag is the most serious difficulty, for the nation understands better the value of a symbol than the articles of a constitution. The white flag means the *ancien régime*, and the *ancien régime* is, for the masses of the people, equivalent to slavery. It means poverty, oppression, arbitrary taxation, government by priests and by noblemen. The tricolor means equality of rights, and the love of equality is the prevailing passion of the country.

If the obstacles which stand between the nation and the representatives of the old dynasty are not removed, great and new dangers will arise for France. There is such an impatience of a solution, the currents of public opinion are so irresistible, that the Chamber will be forced, as soon as it returns to Versailles, to meet the great constitutional questions which have so long been deferred. A proposition will be made immediately for the re-establishment of an hereditary monarchy. Some negotiation must then take place between the leaders of the monarchical party and the Comte de Chambord. He may consider himself as the sovereign *de jure;* but he is not on the throne, and the National Assembly is sovereign *de facto.* There are in the Chamber a hundred deputies who will follow their king under all circumstances; but out of the actual majority of four hundred deputies, there are three hundred Monarchists who will claim for the Chamber the right to make the monarchical constitution. If these three hundred deputies receive no satisfaction, they will content themselves with making a sort of monarchical establishment without a king; and as the character of Marshal MacMahon commands universal respect, they will give him a lease of executive power for two or three years more. France will be then what it is now—a Republic with monarchical leaders; and this state of things can be prolonged almost indefinitely, till the Comte de Chambord abdicates. Such is the plan of the Constitutionalists. It is open, of course, to many objections. The young Prince Imperial will become a man during the interregnum, and the Imperialists will gain all that will be lost by the Royalists. As long as the name of Republic is preserved, the Republicans will preserve legitimate hopes, and their propaganda will be unceasing. France, without a settled future, will become the prey of factions. Even if material order is maintained, there will be no moral order, no common belief, no common principles. The present calm is perhaps only one of those hours of silence and torpor which interrupt the furies of a cyclone.

Correspondence.

MR. GREELEY AND MR. LINCOLN.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: Turning over some old letters the other day, I came upon one from Mr. Greeley, which illustrates his relations to Mr. Lincoln and his Administration. I simply premise that Count Gasparin had sent to my care an appeal for the renomination of Mr. Lincoln on the ground of the moral support which his re-election would give to our cause in Europe. This plea I sent to Mr. Greeley, with the request that he would publish it in the *Tribune*, and I received the following reply. The italics are Mr. Greeley's:

"New York, April 6, 1864.

"My Dear Sir: I see that those who know least about the way things are managed at Washington want Mr. Lincoln renominated, and I presume they will have their way. I match their judgment with that of Congress, whereof not one-third of the Unionists desire Mr. Lincoln's renomination, and not half can be constrained to seem to oppose it, even by the terrors of popular reprobation. Count Gasparin, 3,500 miles away, is naturally even more decided and zealous than Connecticut; were he 10,000 miles away, he would be still more so.

"I am not accustomed to allow majorities to dictate my opinions; if I were, I should be among the new converts to abolition, and share their choice for President. But having seen and *felt* too much during the last three mournful years, it seems *my* duty to favor the nomination of some one who *will not* go through Baltimore in disguise and darkness when he goes to be inaugurated, and who *will* cause the Mayor and Young Christians of that city to be kicked out of the White House whenever they shall dare propose that troops be forbidden to cross the territory of Maryland to defend the Federal metropolis. Had the three first Generals that proved treacherous or cowardly been shot on sight thereafter, we should long since have seen the end of the Rebellion, says yours, Horace Greeley."

Perhaps you will think this letter worth printing. S. P.

Notes.

Shepard & Gill, Boston, will reprint Edward Clodd's 'Childhood of the World,' a work which has been praised in some quarters for its simple account of prehistoric mankind, and as fit reading for children and for adults. ——We are requested to say that "one of the four members of the Law Faculty of the University of Louisiana occupies the position of Professor of Roman Law, and that system of law is there taught as part of the required course. The student upon graduating is supposed to be familiar with the following text-books: 'Institutes of Justinian'; Mackeldey's 'Compendium'; Domat's 'Civil Code'; 'Pothier on Obligations'; and 'Marcadé on the French Code.'" This correction of our somewhat too sweeping statement in our article on the study of Roman Law is, like the correction from Yale already printed, more technical than real; though we should suppose that in Louisiana, where the civil law has been inherited from the French rule, instruction in it would be more genuine and profitable than anywhere else. The question is whether, no matter what college programmes say about required studies, the profession is appreciably benefited by existing courses in Roman Law.

—Dr. John Cotton Smith's paper, *Church and State*, has just been strengthened by the addition to its editorial staff of Dr. William Steevens Perry, Secretary of the House of Clerical and Lay Deputies, who will have charge of the news department. Dr. Perry is the editor of a series of works to which some of our readers will perhaps be glad to have their attention directed, of which a part is published, while a prospectus of the rest, accompanied by one of the handsome specimen pages, is now before us. The work bears the general title of "The Historical Collections of the American Colonial Church," and the portion already published, or rather privately printed —for only two hundred and fifty copies of each volume of the set are allowed to be issued—consists of the Colonial History of the Church in Virginia, in Pennsylvania, in Massachusetts, and, so far as we gather from a resolution of the House of Bishops in 1868, in Connecticut also, although the prospectus would appear to leave the Connecticut Annals still awaiting print. That, however, an intending subscriber can probably learn from Dr. Perry. In general, we may say of the Annals that they will be of interest not only to Churchmen, but to the collector of choice books, and to a more important reader—the historical student. For "from the fact that the church was 'established' in several of the Colonies, and from the frequent mingling of political matters with ecclesiastical affairs in the controversies rife a century since, these documents often throw light on subjects of general interest, as they continually do on matters of local moment. They comprise unpublished letters of the Colonial and Provincial authorities; sketches of the organization of our oldest parishes, written at the time; details of persecutions incident upon the introduction of the church among those who were hostile to its teachings and jealous of its growth; references to the events, since become historical, then transpiring within the writers' personal observation; and reports of the old missionaries, giving with all the freedom of private correspondence the impressions of educated men, graduates of the English, Scotch, and Irish Universities, or else native born and bred, concerning the manners, morals, and conduct of our forefathers for the century preceding the War for Independence."

—The Trustees of the Metropolitan Museum of Art reopened it yesterday in their building, at 128 West Fourteenth Street, just beyond Sixth Avenue. By a new arrangement, any one paying to the Museum a subscription fee of ten dollars will receive a personal ticket of admission, good for one year, and also eight single tickets, which will be transferable. Except on Mondays, which will be free days, the regular price of single tickets will be twenty-five cents, for the heavy expenses incident to moving into the new premises and arranging them have compelled the Trustees to forego their intention of making tickets gratuitous throughout the week. Since the closing of the Museum last summer, several important improvements have

been made: the collection of pictures by old masters has been moved down to Fourteenth Street from the old premises in Fifth Avenue; that portion of the Di Cesnola Collection not previously displayed is now ready for exhibition; additions have been made to the fine Loan Exhibition, which has never been equalled in this country; catalogues of a portion of the collection are now ready, and others are in preparation.

—On Saturday last the authorities of Brooklyn set up in Prospect Park a bust of John Howard Payne—one of the numerous company of "poets of one poem" who are so little known, if we compare their personal fame with the widespread knowledge of their works. With Payne this is peculiarly the case, for few poems in the language are better known to more people than 'Home, Sweet Home,' and few people who so much as know the author at all know more of him than the often-quoted saying that "the author of 'Home, Sweet Home' never knew what it was to have one"—a saying which we may probably set down as to some extent mistaken in its pathos. It is so far true that Payne, although a man of extraordinary personal attractions, and of an intellect and disposition not unworthy of his person, never was married; and that in the course of his time he wandered more than most men. Be that as it may, the American authors are wonderfully few to whom a memorial bust would be awarded by a vote so nearly unanimous. It is to the Faust Club of Brooklyn that Prospect Park owes this work of art.

—In describing the Italian Maritime Hospitals for children the other day, we overlooked, it seems, a similar charity, which has already been in successful operation for two summers, thanks to the liberality of the Philadelphia ladies and gentlemen who last February obtained an act of incorporation for the Children's Sea-Shore House at Atlantic City. The first summer, as we learn from two circulars which have been forwarded to us, a cottage was rented and equipped for the comfortable maintenance of a dozen or so invalid children, under the charge of a competent resident physician and capable female assistants. The success of this experiment was so marked (twenty-seven children having been entertained during the summer, with the greatest benefit to their health) that a lot was purchased at Atlantic City, and presented to the "Children's House," running to the sea, with a depth of 800 feet, and a width of 150, on which buildings were put up designed to accommodate fifty or sixty children, and estimated to cost about $12,000. We are informed that the whole expense of them, as well as the current expenses of the institution, has been provided for. Perhaps this does not mean that contributions from the benevolent would be declined as superfluous, and any one who is interested in helping on the enterprise would do well to correspond with the Secretary and Treasurer, Mr. J. Shipley Newlin, 1018 Clinton Street, Philadelphia, who will doubtless also take pleasure in informing persons in other cities adjacent to the sea-shore of the details of management of the "House." We may note here that Atlantic City is sixty miles from Philadelphia by rail, or one hour and three-quarters in time, and that the railroad company carried the patients and their necessary companions or nurses at half-price.

—There lies before us, as we write, a copy of the London *Times*, dated Friday, May 16, 1794, price fourpence half-penny, London, printed for C. Bell, Printing-house Square, near Apothecaries' Hall, Blackfriars. The journal still retains the site of its old residence. The *Times* had been issued at that time about nine or ten years. Our copy is a small single sheet, which, when you open it, measures one of the leaves of to-day's New York *World*. The printing is carefully executed, but the type is worn and thin. The contents briefly set down are highly interesting, and the advertisements furnish a résumé of the habits and manners of the Englishmen of that date almost as ample, reliable, and attractive as would intimate personal correspondence. The mother country was then undergoing the throes and perils of a very critical existence, and had even been promised by the French Directory and the "Friends of Man" to be snuffed out, or at least to become an apanage of the great universal republic. The days were indeed dark, for the auxiliary English forces in the Low Countries contending against France were commanded by the Duke of York, young, ignorant, headstrong, obstinate, but the king's son. There are despatches from Manheim, Brussels, and Genoa of the movements of the French armies on their crusade against monarchy everywhere. There is the customary report of the sitting of the French National Convention, dated May 4, with a paragraph commemorating M. Bourdon de l'Oise and his gasconading commendation of the army of the Ardennes. "The infantry of the army of the Ardennes has charged and defeated the enemy's cavalry, a circumstance which had not been paralleled in fourteen centuries. On this occasion the French soldiery had outdone the example afforded them by the warriors of Cæsar's legions, which had been many years in disciplining before they had achieved their glorious conquests, while the French Republic had had two years only to train the battalions that had twice in one day charged the enemy's cavalry and as often defeated them." M. Bourdon is to be excused for knowing nothing of the London trained bands, with their pikes, in Cromwell's days, but he might have remembered the Spanish infantry at the battle of Pavia and the charge at Blenheim. Under the heading of Paris, May 5, is the following terrible despatch: "The revolutionary Tribunal has just sentenced to death the following individuals of the classes of Aristocrats and Moderates"—the Marquis de Choiseul de Beaume, aged 61 years, and a score of other ex-rebels, brokers, soldiers, magistrates, mostly past middle life. The Parliamentary intelligence is very terse, and the only item of general interest which we care to excerpt concerns the "trial of Warren Hastings, Esq.," which was to be resumed "on the following Monday after an adjournment on account of the indisposition of Mr. Fox." "The Committee of Secrecy of the House of Commons" is busy investigating the correspondence "which has recently been discovered in the possession of those persons lately apprehended by order of Government." The members of the Privy Council were also "engaged during the day in examining into and arranging the papers found in the possession of the persons taken up." "Treasonable correspondence with the enemy," "Improper correspondence in this country, tending to produce a change in the mode of representation," appear to be the charges against the unfortunate *détenus*. And as additional evidence of the tight hand held by the king and his ministers over "his beloved subjects," in those wild times, there comes the assurance, "A bill no doubt will be brought into Parliament to make it high treason for any body of men to meet in societies, delegated for the purpose of altering our present constitution."

—The condition of the poor, or rather the treatment of the poor by the officers entrusted with the administration of relief, is illustrated by a criminal information moved for by Mr. Erskine in the Court of King's Bench. The overseer and beadle of the parish (not stated) "are very active parish officers, and the complaint against them is this: In order to prevent a child having a settlement in that parish to which they belong, and to prevent the infant being born there, they put the mother in an open boat, with the pains of labor upon her, in the presence of the midwife who had come to deliver her. And when the midwife said that this woman would be delivered in the boat, the defendants, who are superior to any weakness of that nature, replied, 'What although she is delivered in an open boat! That is no extraordinary circumstance.' This poor woman was forced into the boat with the pains of labor upon her, and fortunately arrived at the parish of St. James, Clerkenwell, where the child was born, and has become chargeable to that parish." The chances are that the overseer and beadle belonged to a parish on the south bank of the Thames, in London, and that the unfortunate mother was taken over in the boat to the north side, a part of which used to be included in the parish of St. James, Clerkenwell. The Lord Chief-Justice advised that an indictment was preferable to an information for an offence of so very serious and aggravated a nature.—Among the miscellaneous communications there is one to the effect that "Tom Paine, in publishing his creed, has at last eased his friends of one doubt: they before took it for granted that he had no belief at all. His mind, he tells us, is his church, and we most sincerely rejoice that his congregation is dropping off so rapidly." Naturally enough, there is a story of one of those marvellous instances of longevity, so dear to old newspapers, one, too, which has not passed before the acute dissecting powers of Mr. Thoms. "We are informed from Abbey Laddercost, in Cumberland, that a woman called Jane Forrester, who lives in that parish, is now in the 138th year of her age. When Cromwell besieged the city of Carlisle, 1645, she can remember that a horse's head sold for 2s. 6d. before the garrison surrendered. At the martyrdom of Charles I., she was nineteen years of age. At Brampton, about six years ago, she made oath before the Commissioners in a chancery suit to have known an estate, the right of which was then disputed, to have been enjoyed by the ancestors of the present heir 101 years. She hath an only daughter living, aged 103. And we are further informed that there are six women now living in the same parish where she resides, the youngest of whom is 99 years of age." Unhappily for the correctness of the old woman's assertions it is quite certain that if Mrs. Forrester was 19 years of age in 1649, when King Charles was executed, she would have been at the date of the newspaper, 1794, aged somewhere about one hundred and sixty-four years.

—The analogy between the body politic and the human body is of very old date. In poetry and orations and sermons, it has always had a conspicuous place; though, as a general thing, it is an analogy which has rather been used to warn and terrify than either to cheer or enliven. It has been often used to prove that all human societies must have their periods of youth, maturity, and decay, as the individual man has his; and many exhortations to social humility have been pointed by analogical allusion to the fate of

Rome and Greece, Egypt and Persia. It makes little difference to what quarter of literature we turn; it was Dryden's fancy that,

> "When empire in its childhood first appears,
> A watchful fate o'ersees its rising years,"

and in the latest magazine article we take up we find it stated that "in an able American work, Draper's 'History of the Intellectual Development of Europe,' the theory of a close analogy between the growth and decay of nations, and the birth, maturity, and death of the individual men who massed together compose nations, is curiously set forth and followed out: too elaborately, perhaps; but the ingenuity of Mr. Draper's argument gives interest to his work, and leads the mind into other contiguous fields of meditation. 'A national type,' says the historian, 'pursues its way physically and intellectually through changes and developments answering to those of the individual, and being represented by Infancy, Childhood, Youth, Manhood, Old Age, and Death respectively.'" The analogy was no doubt suggested in the minds of those who first made use of it by the apparent fact that all the great human societies of the past arose from small beginnings, passed through a period of active warfare with the world, and, having finally established themselves as independent social organizations, soon began to decline, finally to grow decrepit and moribund, and in the end disappeared, to give way to some new power. Mr. Herbert Spencer, in one of the papers on "Sociology" which are appearing in the *Popular Science Monthly*, has revived the analogy, which he says is founded on truth, and makes a curious attempt to place it on a scientific basis, and to show in this way the necessity of biology, or the science of the life of the individual, as a preparation for sociology or the science of social life.

—Figures of speech, Mr. Spencer says, which very often mislead by conveying the notion of complete likeness where only distant analogy exists, occasionally mislead by making an actual correspondence seem a fancy. A metaphor, when used to express a real resemblance, raises a suspicion of mere imaginary resemblance, and so obscures the perception of intrinsic kinship. It is thus with the phrases "body politic," "political organization," and others, which tacitly liken a society to a living creature; they are assumed to be phrases having a certain convenience, but expressing no fact —tending rather to foster a fiction. "And yet metaphors are here more than metaphors in the ordinary sense. They are devices of speech, hit upon to suggest a truth at first dimly perceived, but which grows clearer the more carefully the evidence is examined." Mr. Spencer proceeds to examine the analogy in detail. In the first place, "mutual dependence of parts" is the very essence and principle of all organization. Beginning with protoplasm, which belongs to the lowest grade of living things, we find that this substance has no distinct faculties, is capable of but the feeblest movement, cannot adjust itself to circumstances, and is in fact at the mercy of fate. Gradually this unorganized mass becomes organized by changes, through which the parts lose their original sameness, and assume different kinds of activity, for which their positions and circumstances fit them. This process goes on until the differences become numerous and striking, and the organization reaches a high state of perfection. Now, exactly the same thing is true of social development. Primitive tribes are in the same amorphous, protoplastic condition that mark the beginning of our individual fellow-citizen. At first all men carry on the same kind of activities. They hunt, fish, eat, and sleep all as one man. They are not dependent upon one another. There is not even a settled chieftainship. From this state there is a gradual development, familiar to all students of political economy, which results in permanent social structure. This, however, is by no means all: the two metamorphoses have a cause in common. If we begin with an animal or a tribe, in its protoplastic condition, and enquire in what way the change must begin, we see that "evidently each part can abandon that original state in which it filled for itself all vital needs, and can assume a state in which it fulfils in excess some single vital need, only if the other vital needs are fulfilled for it by other parts that have meanwhile undertaken other special activities." The lungs cannot devote themselves exclusively to breathing unless other portions that have become exclusively occupied in absorbing nutriment give them a due supply. That is to say, without "exchange of services," animal organization is impossible; but this is also true of social organization. If the primitive member of a society just emerging from its protoplastic condition, who has been in the habit of making his weapons of the chase, as well as using them to obtain his food, is to spend his whole time in making weapons, it is obvious that he must be supplied with the produce of the chase by some one else in exchange for the weapons he makes. If he becomes a cultivator of the soil, and no longer defends himself, he must be defended in his occupation "by those who have become specialized defenders." This is only the beginning of the resemblance, which we have not space to trace further. Mr. Spencer arrives thus laboriously at some curious practical conclusions, for which we must refer the reader to his article.

—A correspondent at Berlin gives from his personal knowledge two incidents which, though trifling in themselves, serve to show that Prince Bismarck is not out of favor with the Emperor. On the occasion of the unveiling of the monument of Victory in the Thiergarten, September 2, the generals saluted the Emperor on his arrival, according to an old Prussian custom, by kissing his hand. When he had thus received the homage of his lieges, and had fulfilled the routine of military etiquette, the Emperor turned to Bismarck (who had just arrived from Varzin) and shook hands with him in the most marked manner and with great cordiality. This act, in such a presence, was taken to mean, "I owe this day and this monument to you." That same day there was sent from the palace to the Office of Foreign Affairs a casket containing the patent of Bismarck's princedom. The honor was long ago conferred, but the scroll is just completed. It consists of eighteen large sheets of parchment, elegantly bound together in book-form, and inscribed with illuminated letters of most exquisite form and coloring, representing flowers, landscapes, figures, and every variety of artistic and allegorical design. The text recites the services for which Bismarck is raised to the rank of a prince of Prussia, and the estates, titles, and privileges which this rank carries with it to him, his sons and successors; and it empowers him to add to his coat-of-arms a portion of the royal eagle of Prussia. The *Wir Wilhelm* with which the patent opens is in the king's own hand. The whole is tastefully encircled with silver cord and clasps, bearing the great royal seal. The patent was a matter of course consequent upon the ennobling; but in sending it the King inserted within the casket an envelope upon which he had written, "To Prince Bismarck, a diploma packet"—a pleasantry which showed his good-will. Quidnuncs of course must speculate about changes in the Prussian cabinet, but probably the King has a liking for the man who has made him an Emperor; and he is not likely to quarrel with a Chancellor who, though he asks to be relieved from the old routine of the Prussian ministry, spends his vacations at Varzin in arranging a meeting of the three emperors at Berlin in 1872, and now again a visit of the King of Italy in 1873, thus isolating all Central and Eastern Europe from France, and combining Italy, Austria, Russia, and Germany against the activity of the Jesuits.

—Mrs. Clara Mundt, better known as Louise Mühlbach, died in Berlin on Sunday last at the age of fifty-nine years. She began publishing novels so long ago as 1836, when she was twenty years old; and since that time she has published we do not know how many volumes—a great many, some of which are to be found in most houses in Germany, and translations of many of which are to be found in many houses in this country. Six or seven years ago her stories, translated into English, began to inundate our novel-reading public. The worst charges to be made against them are that historical facts, more or less incorrect, and rather feeble views of the course of history, make up the staple of them; that the style is worthy of the matter; and that one would have said that nobody could read them were it not that so many thousands of people did read them. Morally, they were not objectionable, except as is above implied; and so much of blame as is thus laid upon the authoress was a fault of the head only.

—The endeavors of Richard Wagner to found an opera-house in Bayreuth, Bavaria, for the performance of his own creations, have been seriously checked through the indifference of the public. A few years ago, the composer thought it easy to find a thousand musical enthusiasts, each of whom would be willing to contribute three hundred thalers towards the erection, outfit, and running expenses of his intended Wagnerian opera-house. He was much surprised at obtaining only a few wealthy subscribers, the public at large remaining thoroughly indifferent. This has induced him to publish a circular, in which he apprises his numerous friends how matters stand. He states, with commendable frankness, that even under the most propitious circumstances, the new theatre could not be opened before the summer of 1875. Although he has met with success in the acquisition of eminent singers, the technical outfit of the house is reported to be still in a very backward and rudimentary state. Indeed, but for Wagner's own exertions in arranging concerts in Berlin, Hamburg, and Cologne, not even the building itself would have been roofed and completed. On account of the imperfect state of the stage machinery, not even rehearsals can be held this year. Wagner intends calling a meeting of his patrons in October, to give them a full account of the state of affairs, and to solicit further voluntary contributions. If these should not be forthcoming, he will then resort to the last expedient of issuing stock for the continuance of the work. The failure of his countrymen to support him in what may fairly be called a national undertaking needs no explanation. Wagner is too sumptuous, profuse, and unnecessarily expensive in all that regards scenery and stage effect. His later

operatic creations require such immense outlay in costumes and machinery that only the heaviest subventions from the court could furnish the means for their adequate representation at the Court Theatre of the Bavarian capital. With the best financial management, with high-priced seats, and with all the galleries filled with spectators, such performances cannot pay, and bankruptcy must always be near at hand.

SYSTEMS OF CONSANGUINITY AND PRIMITIVE MARRIAGE.*

II.

WE pass now to the so-called Turanian family of Asia, which embraces, among others, the Tamil, the Telegu and other peoples inhabiting Hindustan, the Chinese, and the Japanese. In reference to the method of describing degrees of consanguinity, the Tamil may be taken as typical, as the classificatory system is more fully developed with them, with fewer modifications and exceptions than with any others. Their relationships, and the peculiar rules which control and define them, are identical with those which have been described as existing in perfection among the Seneca Iroquois. In respect to the various classes of kin, one is almost the literal transcript of the other, although, of course, the actual names given to these classes are unlike. We thus arrive at the fact that the same general system prevails in the Turanian family of nations and in the American Indian family; and that there is an absolute identity between the two peoples who were properly selected as types.

Turning finally to the Malayan family, to the inhabitants of the Australasian and other islands of the Pacific, we find very marked resemblances and very marked contrasts to the system which, as we have shown, extends over America and Asia. For purposes of illustration, we select here also a typical people—the Hawaiians—the partial exceptions and slight departures from the type existing among other nations of the family. The following are the pure Hawaiian relationships, referred as before to the *ego* as interlocutor. The brothers and sisters of my grandparents, on both father's and mother's side, as well as higher ancestors, and their brothers and sisters, are my grandparents. All descendants of my children are grandchildren. The children of my brothers and sisters are my children, and their descendants are my grandchildren. The brothers of my father and of my mother are my fathers, while the sisters of each are my mothers. The children of brothers, of sisters, and of brothers and sisters, are brothers and sisters to each other; their children are again brothers and sisters, and so on at each equal remove indefinitely. All the children of these my collateral brothers and sisters are my children, while their descendants are my grandchildren. Relationships by marriage follow the same rules. The distinctive features of this system are (1) its great simplicity; (2) the reduction of all relationships to five, grandfather and grandmother, father and mother, son and daughter, grandson and grand-daughter, brother and sister; (3) the contrast between it and the other phase of the classificatory system, in that no difference is made in the relationships by passing from the male to the female line, or from the female to the male. A primitive aboriginal custom of the Hawaiians (*punalua*, misprinted *pinalua* wherever named), first communicated to the world by Mr. Morgan, has undoubtedly an organic connection with their conception of relationships, and must be resorted to as the only explanation of the methods which appear to us so unnatural, and which would be not only unnatural but impossible among a people in which the marriage of single pairs was prevalent. Two or more brothers with their wives, or two or more sisters with their husbands, cohabited in common. One of the missionaries says: "This confusion of relationships is the result of the ancient custom among relatives of the living together of husbands and wives in common." Since the work was published, Mr. Morgan has received abundant information respecting the native inhabitants of Australia, which brings them into a close and almost identical relation with those of the Hawaiian islands, and even demonstrates the existence of the peculiar custom of communal wives and husbands.

Such are the facts established beyond dispute; what conclusions do they render probable or certain? It is found that the same remarkable system exists among peoples widely separated in everything which characterizes community of race. This identity cannot be accidental. If it does not rest upon a unity of race—which is more than doubtful, because so many of the other elements which would go to establish this ethnic unity are wanting in many instances—it must rest upon the more general fact that certain social institutions are necessarily involved in certain primitive conditions of mankind. These institutions, which are exceedingly permanent, when ascertained, point unmistakably to the prior existence of those conditions in the particular people; and, as a consequence, all peoples which now possess traces of the institutions must some time have passed through the given conditions. This is the scientific value of a comparative study of social institutions.

In regard to the descriptive system of consanguinity, we simply say that it is the natural and necessary result of marriage between single pairs, and plainly follows from the certain lines of descent, lineal and collateral, which must flow from such marriage. There is reason to believe, as will appear, that the system itself, and the single marriage and certain family which it assumes, were later in time than the others and the communal union or tribal organization which they presuppose.

The classificatory system, if it grew up when proper marriage between pairs prevailed, would be arbitrary, without reason or cause, contradictory, and even impossible. It should be carefully borne in mind that we are only seeking after its origin; that is, the social status which gave it birth. That state may long ago have disappeared. Undoubtedly, the tribal organization, and the customs of polygamy and polyandria, had an influence upon the classificatory system, and account for and were perhaps the modifying causes of some of its features; but it could be shown in detail, if space permitted, that they fail to account for all these features upon any natural or even possible sequence of cause and effect. The following explanation, partly conjectural, is given by Mr. Morgan:

The Malayan type, being the simpler, is plainly the older, while the Turanian and American Indian was developed from it by the addition of a new and antagonistic element. Assuming the Hawaiian custom—that is, that several brothers and their wives, or several sisters and their husbands, cohabited together as a separate association—the Malayan form is explicable; even to its minutest details, it flows as a natural consequence from the relations to each other of the males and females. But this Hawaiian custom seems to assume two antecedent stages, out of which it was in fact a reformatory movement, namely, cohabitation of brothers and sisters, and even promiscuous intercourse. It may be regarded as a compact between several brothers, or the husbands of several sisters, to defend their common wives against the violence of outsiders. Mr. Morgan takes up in detail the list of Malayan relationships, and shows by an exhaustive course of deduction how each flows as a natural or necessary result from the prevalence of the so-called Hawaiian custom in a given condition of society. This analysis is, however, intended rather for the scientific than the general reader.

Assuming a primitive state in which this social institution was universal, the introduction of the tribal organization upon it would account for the Turanian and American Indian phase, and would be another grand reformatory movement away from savagery. Mr. Morgan here also applies his acute analysis with the most satisfactory results. The new elements which have entered are the prohibition of marriage between members of the same tribe, and the perpetuation of the tribe either through the female or the male line of descent alone. Engrafting these additional features upon the prior customs, the half of the Turanian and American Indian relationships which are different from the Malayan instantly appear.

We are now prepared to draw a conjectural but highly probable picture of the primitive condition of mankind in respect to the family relation, and of the successive great reformatory movements by and through which society was lifted from the lowest depths of savagery, and borne along a course of progress until it reached the conception of that family which now forms the unit of social organization. The following is the series: I. Absolutely promiscuous intercourse, or a depth of savagery akin to the beasts. This is, however, entirely conjectural, and an *a priori* assumption from the two following stages. II. Cohabitation between brothers and sisters, and a segregation of certain males and females, with their children, which may be termed the communal family. This would exist simultaneously with the former, and would be the first and natural attempt of individuals to follow the social impulses of our nature. If it should be objected that the very relationships of brother and sister imply the family as we understand it, or at least the patriarchal polygamous family, and that the assumed prior custom of promiscuity negatives the possibility of brothers and sisters—that is, of knowing and recognizing any persons as brothers or sisters—the answer is very plain. Undoubtedly, it would be impossible to know and recognize *full* brothers or sisters in our acceptation of the term—that is, as children of the same two parents; but from the nature of the case, uterine brothers and sisters would always be known, and, therefore, even in the primitive conjectural bestial state, these classes of persons would necessarily exist. III. The Hawaiian custom. This was an improvement upon the pure communal family; it was, or might have been, a partial abandonment of cohabitation between brothers and sisters, and therefore a real reform. During the prevalence of this custom, the actual relationships of consanguinity that have been termed Malayan would be a necessary result, and they have been handed down, although the custom itself has disappeared, except among a few savage peoples. IV. The tribal organization. It is demonstrated that

* 'Systems of Consanguinity and Affinity of the Human Family. By Lewis H. Morgan, LL.D.' Smithsonian Contributions to Knowledge, No. 218.

this institution was universal in certain periods of human progress. Plain traces of it are seen among the Romans and the Greeks, and many difficulties in respect to their primitive institutions, political, social, and legal, will be explained by a more complete and accurate knowledge of the Tribe. It was perhaps the greatest voluntary effort of humanity to raise itself towards civilization. It broke up for ever the cohabitation between brothers and sisters, and although it was not inconsistent with polygamy, or even polyandria, it made the segregation of parental pairs possible. During this period, the relationships now found among the Turanian and American-Indian families would be actual and necessary. Thus far there was no conception of the individual family, of property owned by the parents, of regular lines of descent, and of inheritance in those lines. The tribe was the unit; tribal members were consanguinei through their common membership—they were born into the tribe; and what few things had come to be regarded as the subject of property belonged to the tribe—inheritance by it being the only inheritance. Modern research has left no doubt that the original notion of property was as a communal right, and that individual ownership was a subsequent and in fact recent outgrowth from this primitive root. The so-called philosophical speculations into the origin of property, an example of which may be found in Blackstone, have been corrected by historical analysis. But in the progress of time, and by the physical improvement of mankind, the notion of individual property sprang up, grew, and finally became dominant over that of the communal or tribal. With it was awakened the desire to perpetuate this ownership, to transmit it through one's own representatives. Such an act was impossible, unless propagation was confined to distinct parents, so that the children might be known, and the ancestral owner might be assured that his possessions would follow a certain line of a progeny ever perpetuating his blood, and, as it were, continuing his personality. As soon as this notion became sufficiently strong, there was of necessity a social revolution; and, V. Polygamy and the patriarchal family were the result although side by side with them there doubtless sprang up some monogamous unions. Polygamy, as a social institution, representing the condition then reached by the human race, was an immense step in advance. As found in the patriarchal family, it was compatible with a high culture, and with a lofty conception of nature, morality, and God. But still, under it property was regarded as an attribute of the family rather than of the individual, although for the time being entrusted to the control of the head in whom the family rights and functions were all centred, and by whom the family was represented. This conception is plainly set forth in the early Hebrew history and poetry, and it also lay at the basis of the primitive doctrines of the Roman law touching the power of the *pater familias*. VI. The present marriage of single pairs and the modern family. When the notion of individual instead of representative or family property became more clearly defined, the final step was inevitable, and polygamy, with its patriarchal concomitants, gave place to the permanent marriage of single pairs, and the family of two parents and the offspring under their tutelage—the unit of modern civilization. We need not dwell here. The analysis thus given, and it has been rigorously scientific, has demonstrated that our institution of marriage, which appears to us so normal, so essentially a part of humanity, is a thing of recent growth, and found its occasion and partial origin in the conception of individual property with its rights and duties. A recent growth, we say comparatively, for the immense tracts of time through which the human race was slowly raising itself from its aboriginal savagery to the epoch even of patriarchal polygamy, cannot be estimated.

We have thus, in our own manner, given an accurate though very general outline of Dr. Morgan's remarkable work. With one suggestion we close. As this publication of the Smithsonian Institution can be reached only by a few experts, and as it is not intended for general use, if the author would leave out the tables and recast the chapters, omitting the minute and technical details, and giving in their place the conclusions which they sustain, he would make an exceedingly interesting, readable, and popular book. The results of scientific enquiry are now eagerly sought after, especially if they appear to be a little heterodox.

A POETICAL DICTIONARY.*

THIS volume is one of two volumes of quotations, which, as Mr. Allibone designs, shall supplement his well-known 'Dictionary of Authors.' Shortly after he had projected the 'Dictionary,' he resolved that it should be followed by a copious selection of quotations from the principal authors recorded in that register, and in pursuance of his resolve he gives us here a large bookful of poetical passages. The volume of prose quotations is to succeed this one; and when that shall have appeared, the original design will be fully completed.

The plan of the volume before us—which contains more than 700 well indexed pages—is as follows: Having settled upon a certain number of large topics—"Love," for instance; "Friendship," "Beauty," "Death," "Sin," "Silence," "Woman," "Fear," and four hundred others—as being worthy of illustration by poetical passages, or as affording convenient heads under which to arrange important utterances of the poets, Mr. Allibone proceeds to place these topics in alphabetical order throughout his book. Thus, "Absence" heads the list, "Adversity" follows, and then come one after the other, "Advice," "Affection," "Affliction," "Age," "Agony," "Agriculture"; the last topic of all, the one which closes the book, being "Zeal," which is preceded by "Youth," "Wrong," "Worth," "World," and so on backwards to "Absence" again. The headings being thus chosen and arranged, Mr. Allibone under each one sets down numerous poetical passages, which he places in an order depending on the place in the alphabet of the author's name. Accordingly, of the poets chosen to illustrate the topic of "Zeal," Dr. George W. Bethune leads off, his name beginning with B, and is followed by Cowper, Darwin (Erasmus), Denham, Dryden, Fiamma (Gabriele), Goldsmith, *Household Words* ("Sowing and Reaping"), *Household Words* ("Springs in the Desert"), Macaulay, Milton, Moore (Thomas), Newton (John), Procter (Adelaide), Raleigh, Shakespeare (cited once), Thomson (Mrs. Archibald, cited twice), Thomson (James), Wesley (Rev. Samuel), Whittier, Wilcox (Carlos), and, finally, Wordsworth.

We have been at pains to copy out this roll of authors not to emphasize the point, clear enough before, that Mr. Allibone is fond of his convenient alphabetical method, but because the list may have its use in making clear a point of more importance. And that is, that Mr. Allibone has been so far from falling into the error of being so nice in his selection of passages as to be difficult and over-fastidious, that, in our judgment, he has fallen a long way short of being duly discriminating. On what principle of selection, unless on the principle that a manual of poetry for purposes of reference ought to contain every word of verse that ever anywhere got into print, could Dr. George B. Bethune's four long stanzas on "Zeal" be selected for a place in the manual before us? We do not see. One of the stanzas is as follows, and we may remark in passing that about Zeal neither this nor the other three stanzas can be said, speaking strictly, to have any thing at all to say. At least they have quite as much to do with half a dozen other sentiments as they have to do with zeal, and thus they are out of place. Of the four we may as well quote any one as any other. We quote the first. "Live to do Good" is the title of the piece:

> "Live to do good; but not with thought to win
> From man return of any kindness done;
> Remember Him who died on cross for sin,
> The merciful, the meek, rejected one;
> When He was slain for crime of doing good,
> Canst thou expect return of gratitude?"

It will be seen that these lines, if they have little to do with zeal, have as much of zeal as they have of poetical merit, and, assuredly, have far too little of that to justify their admission into a collection which, however expansive and wide-embracing may be the plan of its construction, is at all events avowedly a book of *poetical* quotations.

One of the topics to which Mr. Allibone calls attention in his preface as being treated of with copiousness and thoroughness is the topic of "Birds." That subject he has illustrated, he remarks, by citing 260 passages from no less than 45 authors, and the "Birds" may serve, we suppose, as an example of the way in which the compiler's task has been accomplished. Industry certainly has been brought to its accomplishment; and so has a hand practised in compilation and arrangement. As a result, we have a volume containing a vast number of short excerpts from the English poets; and it is a volume very easy of consultation; both for what it contains, and for the accessibility of its contents, it will be found by many persons a useful book. But over its preparation there has presided, it would seem, a taste uninstructed in poetry—unless indeed we ought to say an inherently defective taste. For instance, the reader will find in Mr. Allibone's "Birds" a "widowed turtle" of Sir Samuel Garth's:

> "The widowed turtle hangs her moulting wings,
> And to the woods in mournful murmur sings";

and he will find also some "feathered warblers" of Tickell's:

> ". . . . Hark, on every bough
> In lulling strains the feathered warblers woo";

and there are "a thousand birds" out of Spenser:

> ". . . . Leaves of flowers
> That freshly budded, and new blossoms did bear,
> In which a thousand birds had built their bowers";

and a great many fowl equally vague, wild, or villatic, out of Dryden and Pope and Prior, who, we may remark here, are especial favorites with Mr. Allibone. Dryden, for example, he quotes far more often than he quotes

*'Poetical Quotations from Chaucer to Tennyson. With Copious Indexes. Authors, 550; Subjects, 425; Quotations, 13,600. By S. Austin Allibone.' Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1873.

Milton; Pope is quoted but a trifle less often than Shakespeare, each appearing more than 300 times; and Prior occupies more space than Cowper, Burns, Scott, Coleridge, and Wordsworth put together. Indeed, for that matter, Burns, Coleridge, and Wordsworth all three together hardly outcount Sir Richard Blackmore himself. This certainly is being very conservative in one's poetical taste. Sir Richard does not, however, appear in the "Birds," and no more do a great many other people who have a better right—a right so much better that were we to be asked why they had been excluded we should be unwilling to attempt an answer. Among these is Chaucer. For anything here visible, Mr. Allibone may never in all his life have heard that

> "The smale fowles maken melodiē
> That sleepen al the night with open yhe";

nor, unless we turned to the passage cited from Dryden's recast of the 'Nun's Priest's Tale,' should we know whether Mr. Allibone had ever heard of Chaunteclere—

> ". . . . . A cok hight chaunteclere;
> In al the lond of crowyng was noon his peer.
>
> His comb was redder than the fine coral,
> And batayld, as it were a castel wall.
> His bile was blak, and as the geet it schon;
> Lik asur were his legges and his ton;
> His nayles whitter than the lily flour,
> And lik the burnischt gold was his colour."

In fact, Chaucer throughout fares very badly at Mr. Allibone's hands, and as this will appear a matter of some consequence if we consider who Chaucer is, and if we consider further that Dr. Allibone is regarded by many as something of an authority in our American literature, we may be excused for digressing a moment to enquire how this matter is managed. Of the wisdom of Dr. Young, of the 'Night Thoughts,' Mr. Allibone gives us a portion more than a hundred times; more than half a hundred times apiece he quotes Nicholas Rowe and Lord Roscommon; Tickell is cited thirty times, Parnell fifteen, and Chaucer—like Mrs. Ann Radcliffe, Mrs. Tighe, and Mr. William Mason—seven times. And this seven times much infelicity attends. On the first occasion we get these two lines, and the man must "bear a brain" indeed who should tell how any use could be made of them—unless Mr. Swiveller, with his unrivalled power of quotation, were to rise from the dead. They are to be found under the heading "Agriculture":

> "Asked if in husbandry he aught did know
> To plough, to plant, to reap, to sow."

On the second occasion of the poet's appearance, he is brought in to illustrate the subject of "Forests," and it is in this Chaucerian manner that he does it:

> "There would be seen a farmer that would sell
> Bargains of wood which he did lately fell."

Chaucerian, indeed; but it would seem that Mr. Allibone has carelessly allowed himself now to assign a modernized bit of the poetry to its renovator, now to leave the title to the renovated article with the original owner—an arrangement by which Chaucer is equally injured, whether his goods are kept in his name or transferred to that of another. So far as we can see, Dr. Allibone has, in each of these instances, copied the passage, not for any merit that it had; nor because of any likelihood that anybody would ever care to see it, or would ever by any possibility make use of it; but purely because the lines had in them the words "reap," "wood," "farmer," "husbandry," "plough," and "sow." Certain it is that, whatever his reasons, the passages are, as illustrations, absurd. At the third of Chaucer's appearances he comes again in a couplet, "Lawyers" being the subject:

> "Now like a lawyer, when he land would get,
> Or sell fee-simples in his master's name."

The fourth extract is concerning "Shepherds," and, like the others, is Chaucer improved:

> "Giving an account of the annual increase
> Both of their lambs and of their woolly fleece."

On the other three occasions on which the poet is called in, he is treated somewhat more worthily; his own language is used, and the quotations are to some small extent characteristic. But to take eight lines out of the description of the Wife of Bath, and set them down as illustrative of the subject of "Wives"—women, that is to say, in the relation of wedlock—we suspect to be the result of a blunder—a blunder like that of making a description of Young Launcelot Gobbo answer for a description of the *genus homo* because Launcelot was Shylock's "man." The Wife of Bath had been a wife in the sense in which Mr. Allibone uses the word in his heading; but it was not in that sense that she was so designated by her fellow-pilgrims.

But if Mr. Allibone uses Chaucer much as Donna Julia used the General Count O'Reilly, there are others whom he uses very little better, and perhaps worse. Mr. Robert Browning, for example, is not once mentioned; and, of course, that this is injustice, or else something that deserves a term less harsh, but perhaps more unwelcome, it does not require a devotee of Browning to perceive. This, surely, is a bad showing for a large and pretentious collection of poetry, made under a responsibility in presence of which prejudice, however justifiable, should be disregarded. So, too, of Landor, who goes entirely unmentioned, while swarms of the Landons, Eliza Cooks, Streets, and Sargents infest the book.

Going back to the "Birds," we may say that as for the thoroughness and success with which our compiler has prepared this department, we shall leave the subject with a reference to the quotations already made above, and with the remark that we look in vain in Dr. Allibone's list for Wordsworth's cuckoo or his skylark; for Shelley's skylark, or for Hogg's; for the robin-redbreast of the 'Babes in the Wood,' or that of Webster's dirge; for Barnfield's nightingale; for the swans of the 'Prothalamion'; for Tennyson's dying swan; or for the too-much-forgotten dying swan of Giles Fletcher—

> "So down the silver streams of Eridan,
> On either side banked with a lily wall,
> Whiter than both rides the triumphant swan";

for Tennyson's blackbird; for Bryant's waterfowl, or the same poet's Robert of Lincoln; for Emerson's chickadee, or for a score or a hundred others, all well known and well deserving to be better known than all Garth's turtles or Tickell's feathered warblers. A similar examination of other departments as well as this of the "Birds" shows similar defectiveness.

Beyond question, however, the manual is one worth having, and is a monument of industry, busy to be sure rather than laborious, which deserves recognition and respect. But a good manual of this kind is still wanting. Whoever undertakes it will do well to recollect that the endeavor to make his book a huge concordance, in which shall be found marked down every passage in every poet in which such and such a word has ever been used, will be an endeavor sure to result in failure, and one of which, even could it succeed, the result would be without practical value. Far too much of this has, we think, been done by Mr. Allibone. To select well the topics to be illustrated, and then to select such illustrative passages, all truly illustrative, as shall of themselves afford no unpleasant employment to the poetical reader—these would seem to be the main things to be borne in mind by such a compiler. He will have no slight labor before him when he addresses himself to the attempt. And perhaps, for those who use books of this sort, two or three poor ones are as good as would be a single one done really well.

THE MAGAZINES FOR OCTOBER.

IN the *Popular Science Monthly* Mr. John Fiske devotes a dozen pages to an examination of Mr. Agassiz's relations to Darwinism. Mr. Fiske read in an advertisement of a "Lecture Extra," published by one of our widely circulated newspapers, the announcement that follows: "The Darwinian Theory utterly demolished" [or words to that effect] "by AGASSIZ HIMSELF." Upon reading this, Mr. Fiske laid down his paper, he says, and asked himself, "Can it be that we have after all a sort of scientific pope among us? Has it come to this, that the services of some one 'servant and interpreter of nature,' are to be accepted as final even against the better judgment of a majority of his compeers?" The admission has to be made, and Mr. Fiske's article proceeds in the first place to combat it; afterwards to show that Mr. Agassiz has never yet given evidence that he understands what the Darwinian theory is; and, finally, to point out to him five questions which, when he does seriously attempt to refute that theory, he will have to consider and answer as he has not heretofore answered them, or so much as considered them.

The most noticeable magazine article of the month is Mr. Welles's discussion, in the *Galaxy*, of Mr. Adams's speech in eulogy of Mr. Seward. It gives in somewhat general terms Mr. Welles's opinion of the relative mental and moral gifts of Mr. Lincoln and Mr. Seward, and confirms, though without much definiteness of evidence, the popular belief that Mr. Lincoln was the abler man of the two, and that Mr. Seward's training and accomplishments were not such as to overbear the President's native strength of will and judgment. Mr. Welles thinks it a flagrant violation of the duty of history, so far as it is the duty of history to apportion honors justly, to make the assumption that "Mr. Seward directed the affairs of the nation through Mr. Lincoln." "I am not aware," says Mr. Welles, that in the affairs of the Treasury Department, for instance, Mr. Seward ever proposed a measure or so much as made a suggestion. Again, as regards the War Department, there was, says Mr. Welles, an intimacy between Mr. Seward and that Department; but Mr. Welles "does not remember" that Mr. Seward proposed or directed the conduct of a single campaign, or originated any movements save some irregular, unfortunate proceedings in the early days of the new Administration, "when he took upon himself to perform secretly and improperly the duties of Secretary of War without the knowledge of that

officer." So, too, of the Navy Department: "In the administration and operations of the Navy Department he had no part," although at first he attempted, "in total disregard of good government and correct administration, to intermeddle with naval matters," and thus brought down on himself disapproval. With the management of the other three departments of the Government exclusive of his own, Mr. Seward had as much to do, Mr. Welles asserts, and only as much, as he had to do with the management of the Departments of War, Navy, and Treasury. When the Cabinet was consulted, Mr. Seward was consulted as his colleagues were, and his advice, like that of the other Secretaries, was weighed by Mr. Lincoln, who accepted it or rejected it as to him seemed good. And in the business of Mr. Seward's own department, the Secretary was not supreme; the President, there as elsewhere, directed the Governmental policy, and sometimes overruled, modified, and improved the Secretary's despatches. As we have said, all this is in the nature of assertion and opinion; but it comes from a man who was in a position to observe certain facts correctly and to form second opinions. A difficulty in coming to such a conclusion as shall reconcile the opposing views of judges like Mr. Welles and Mr. Adams, is that the issue between them seems to be not very plainly drawn, and that a good deal of what is said by each may be only apparently and not really contradictory. However that may be, there are parts of Mr. Welles's article which, it appears beyond a doubt, should be accepted; and of these parts one or two will lead, we suppose, to a modification of some of Mr. Adams's statements. For example, Mr. Welles gives us, from Mr. Lincoln's own mouth, the story of the formation of Mr. Lincoln's first Cabinet, and not only the time when the President elect began meditating on this subject, but the character of his meditations and his dealings with the Weed clique—which offered him, ready made out, a cabinet scheme which he at once rejected—all these seem to show that Mr. Lincoln, in "his secluded home in the heart of Illinois," was by no means so blind to the crisis before him, and by no means so destitute of well-digested plans, as Mr. Adams has seemed to suppose. And pursuing this general subject, Mr. Welles makes a telling comparison between Mr. Lincoln's conduct during that dreary winter of 1860–61 and the conduct of the distinguished Seward, the leader of his party, to whom everybody was looking for leadership, and from whom little more was got than prophecies, doubtless sincere, of peace and quietness again in ninety days. This essay contains a slight outline sketch of Mr. Thurlow Weed and the Albany lobby which is the reverse of complimentary, but which may be read with some satisfaction. When, however, one reads of the machinations of the Weed wire-pullers in the Chicago Convention, one is forced to recollect the Anti-Weed New Yorkers who were on the ground, the "original Lincoln rails" that were carried into the hall of the Convention by a humble companion of Lincoln's early years, the transfer of the votes of the Pennsylvania delegates, and some other tricks and devices cleverly managed by some Western and Northwestern saints, and not managed in the interest of Mr. Seward either.

Another noticeable article in the October *Galaxy* is one called "Punishing a Pundit." The sanguinary tendency of the study of the lesser philology has seldom been more warningly shown than in this encounter from first to last. Dr. Fitzedward Hall, who is the pundit here punished, began the conflict by a little book on the alleged false philology of "Words and their Uses." In this work he was vivacious enough to call Mr. Ruskin an inspired idiot, and to speak of several other eminent writers in terms which, we may say, were more strictly applicable to that particular aspect of them then under Dr. Hall's consideration than to these eminent writers considered each in his totality—as a man, *totus teres*, etc., as a husband, a father, an author in prose and verse. But this is nothing uncommon in the history of verbal criticism, which always arouses all the most desolating passions; and Dr. Hall's book, while it contains a great deal of good sense and useful information, which we commend to our readers' attention as less sciolistic and more to be depended upon than the teachings of nine in ten of such books, is not so much more aggressive than its fellows. Be that as it may, its author now has it meted to him according to his own measure—or rather, according to Scripture measure—full, pressed down, and running over. Thus, Dr. Hall is "a Master of Arts, a Doctor, an Honorary Doctor of Both Laws, and formerly Professor of the Sanskrit Language and Literature and of English Jurisprudence"; a doctor who "pours out his gall at his own expense"; "a moral pachyderm"; "a man born without the sense of decency"; a man "in whose nature self-conceit takes the place of self-knowledge"; "the yahoo of literature"; a "former Vermont Yankee, now British resident, Doctor of Both Laws, and Pundit by brevet"; a writer of "affected nonsense"; one whose works, were "they burst bladder-wise, or reduced to their gaseous elements," would explode with such violence as would endanger "the stability of all English-speaking peoples"; a writer who, "whatever his other attainments, falls short of originality in sin"; one who "lingers lovingly over such a noun as *agential*, rolling the loathsome morsel under his tongue"—the wretch; a writer whose chief trait is "a combination of deficiency of knowledge with incapacity of apprehension on the points as to which he makes most pretence and most parade"; a writer than whom "did ever a man write more like a shopman?" a writer who "can never resist the temptation to a wanton personal slur or insult"; a writer in whose books a union of "common sense, plain English, and politeness would be strange, perhaps unaccountable"; a writer who is a liar (this in Latin); a writer of whom it is asked, "Will it be believed that a man who has had the training of a scholar and the position of a gentleman could be so small as that?" a man whose "English is bad, his manners worse, and his moral tone worst of all"; a literary pharisee and a piddling pedant; a man who, according to the judgment of one of his adopted countrymen, is "an ass" and "a spluttering idiot," and, according to the judgment of another, must be "rather caddish" if one of his assertions is to be taken as revealing his degree of gentlemanliness; "a most learned pundit" who is not "an inspired idiot," as Ruskin has been called, but "an idiot without the inspiration"; "a Yankee cooked up British fashion"; a rival of Antinous so far as regards "arrogance and petulant vituperation"; a "shuddering purist"; "a hapless Doctor of Laws," and a dozen other things.

This is the style of controversy which is known as that in which the hat, coat, and cravat are taken off, and is easily imitable. There was the less need of it on this occasion, because the essayist appears to have a case against his antagonist—as, indeed, happens in this kind of warfare, in which one chooses always the weak spots in the enemy's line. And weak spots there always will be, if we may judge of the future by the past, for never yet was there a good writer whose English a verbal critic could not, with one hand tied behind his back, show to be of a character to make a small boy blush, such ignorance does it reveal, and to call down the lightnings of heaven, such is the baseness of the writer's morals and manners.

Of other *Galaxy* articles, one is a story entitled "An Apple of the Dead Sea," and another is some gossiping, but not wholly gossiping, talk about the former days of the stage, which, always, in all ages, it is the custom to say were better than these, but against which Mr. H. W. Frost urges some objections. As for the "Apple of the Dead Sea," the story is curiously coincident with one by Mr. Thomas Aldrich which appears in the October *Atlantic*. Both writers have for their hero a gentleman who has fallen heavily in love with a circus acrobat, to whom he gives presents, and who by-and-by turns out to be an illiterate boy. Apparently the story has for a basis the allegation current a few months ago that a well-known acrobat attached to one of our theatres was a man disguised in woman's clothes. The *Galaxy* writer expends more strength than the writer in the *Atlantic*, and draws for his hero a silent, sapless Russian—a creature something like the father of Björnson's Fisher Maiden, but duller—who has all his life lived in ignorance of anything beyond the counting-house of his tyrannical uncle. The *Atlantic's* hero is more commonplace, and the story throughout is slighter and more trivial, if that is necessary. A sort of factitious interest is given it, we observe, by means of a device which it is easy to employ too much, although there is a class of readers who prefer it to true skilfulness in securing attention to a story. Another Bostonian writer of short stories has used it a good deal, and with profit; for evidently a story which has in it Scollay's Building, and lines of real horse-cars, and T. Wharf, and the Hingham packet, may safely be a poorer story than another which has them not, but depends for its interest on the weightier matters of story-telling law.

Besides "Mademoiselle Olympe Zabriski," the *Atlantic* has more of Mr. Robert Dale Owen's reminiscences and of Mr. Parton's Jefferson, and an article in which General F. A. Walker predicts that we shall not number a hundred millions in 1900, as in old times we used to say we would, but that we may probably number not far from 75,000,000.

A readable article in *Scribner's* is a little collection of Turkish proverbs made by a writer who appears to know more about Turkish proverbs than about the English bibliography of proverbs. Collections of this sort of literature are not so unknown as he appears to suppose. His specimens include thirty-four proverbial sayings common, as he says, to English and Turkish, and a hundred and thirty-two styled "miscellaneous Turkish proverbs," of which, however, some are found in English too, and in other tongues as well: "The eye of the master is the horse's grooming"; "He that gives quickly gives double"; "There is a remedy for all things but the appointed time to die" (the last five words one word in Turkish); "Do not awaken the sleeping lion"; "That man is to be feared who fears not God," and so forth. Others are new, we believe: "The kick of the camel is soft, but it stuns"; "A weapon is an enemy, even to its owner"; "If the judge is your accuser, may God be your help"; "The female bird builds the nest."

"The Old Van Rensselaer Mansion" is an illustrated article on a good

subject; "Sieur George" is by a writer new to us, and of some promise; "Free Marriage," by Miss L. G. Noble, has for a merit that it presents sound practical views, and presents them with a degree of plain speaking which is not usual. "The whole question, be it distinctly stated," says Miss Noble, "is one not of *un*marrying, but of *re*marrying: this is the vital thing for which the reformers clamor; and just here is the point where their dispute with the rest of the world begins." Everybody knows this to be true; though, to be sure, it would not be true to say that a clear-headed determination to go with open eyes to the gratification of their affections and appetites is the moving power which impels all the so-called reformers of marriage. Something not much worse than the demand for sympathy is in a certain number of cases, perhaps in a majority of cases, combined with a weak-headedness and an inability to see whither their half-formed, half-held theories tend. They are partly people who would invade other beds; but perhaps more often they are weak people who, having made their own beds, cannot lie in them, and who, furthermore, cannot see the relations of the bed and the cradle to the rest of the social fabric.

Mr. Bret Harte finishes, in this number, his "Episode of Fiddletown," the thread of which we have found a rather tangled skein; but the boarding-school girls of this last scene are takingly sketched. A lively writer, with opinions of her own, treats of Central Park; Mr. Augustus Blauvelt concludes his papers on "Modern Scepticism"; "Arthur Bonnicastle" reaches its end; and there is the regular amount of poetry, Topics of the Time, and the like.

In *Lippincott's*, Mr. Black's "Princess of Thule" has reached a crisis, Sheila having left her husband's house for a reason which, we fear, too nearly puts him in the right, and bids fair to prepare long trouble for our heroine; "The King of Bavaria" is sketched by a well-wishing Protestant friend; "Unsaid" is a more than usually good poem; "A Strange Land and a Peculiar People" treats slightly of the loyalist and rebel mountaineers of Kentucky; and there are several illustrated articles.

Fowl-fanciers and egg-raisers will be glad to have their attention directed by *Harper's* to M. Eugène Fayot's "Poules et Œufs"—a book which furnishes the text for an article on the hen houses of the Baroness de Linas, of which a pleasant account is given. The baroness, after a long experience, appears to have mainly discarded all fancy breeds, and to have adopted the common fowl of the country as her favorites; but they are so housed, fed, and otherwise cared for that they must in effect be very uncommon fowls. Another set of *Harper's* readers will be pleased with the paper on "A Tobacco Factory," while Northern philanthropists may, we should think, be gratified at the report made by another contributor, a lady, of the condition of General Armstrong's normal school for negroes at Hampton, Virginia. There is also "The Judicial Record of Chief-Justice Chase," by a member of the bar of the Supreme Court; a description of Mauritius, the home of Paul and Virginia; and some account of a reprobate Italian tramp, who, finding a romantic little girl sitting by herself reading 'Thaddeus of Warsaw,' took up the volume, and, discovering what it was, monstrously declared to her that he himself was "dat Taddeus," though now out of money, and who thus secured her two-dollar-and-a-half gold piece.

Church and State in the United States. By Jos. P. Thompson. (Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 1873.)—Dr. Thompson, while residing in Germany, finds that country agitated by the question of the relation between church and state. Through a private conversation with certain German gentlemen, he is led to put in writing and submit to Prince Bismarck a statement of the solution of this problem which has been adopted in the United States. His treatise having been translated into German to serve its original purpose, is now published here in the original version. This publication can hardly have any other motive than to submit to the approval of his countrymen the account which he has given of one of their social arrangements. As far as it goes, the account is correct. Indeed, the statement of our theory of the relation between church and state is a very simple matter. It is a simple negation of any relation at all, and we have applied that theory positively to separate them in every respect. We regard every contact and relationship between them with suspicion, and we go so far (at least this is the popular feeling, which is re-echoed in the press) as to view with suspicion any citation of religious principle or motive or sanction in political affairs. Even this does not exhaust the present tendency in this matter. While we have certain religious circles who believe in the persons who are technically called "Christian statesmen," we have another large class who meet the application of even moral principle to politics with contempt. This latter class is growing. The downfall of some of the eminent Christian statesmen has strengthened this party and increased their number, for the popular mind is not careful to reflect that the downfall of the Christian statesmen proves no more against Christianity than against statesmanship.

Such being the status and tendency of feeling amongst us in regard to the relation of church and state, and a large part of the best thinkers of the country being profoundly convinced that what is needed above all else in our politics is moral principle and moral stamina, whether based on religious sanctions or not, it would appear that our experience is not so clear and positive a proof of our theory that we can go before the world with it as a final solution of this difficult problem. Hesitation is suggested also by another consideration. It appears from our experience that the more we popularize government, the more impossible it is to keep any public interest "out of politics." It is very certain that our religious faiths, of whatsoever form or grade, have very little effect at the present moment on our public life. Has the separation of church and state led to this—that our moral principle and conscience are all in the church, and our practical life all in the state; and have they thus become permanently sundered? Still further, have they separated the population into two groups—the honest, conscientious, and religious on the one side, and the intriguing, unscrupulous, and political on the other? The actual severance of the sober, conservative, and reflective part of our population from practical politics is an undisputed fact. It has as yet given rise to no misgivings in the popular mind as to the finality of our solution of the church-and-state problem, but if the proposition be true which is already beginning to attract the faith of the best political thinkers, that *no* public interest (taking public interest in the widest sense) can be severed from politics under our system of popular government, then even the separation of church and state may turn out to be only a happy compromise, a great advance at the time it was made, but not a finality. It has been a great success in our history on the whole, but we find that its ultimate applications involve great difficulties. We have succeeded in putting the moral influence of the church at a distance from politics, but the political power of the church which can control a consolidated voting power is a notorious fact. In view of this, there is room to pause and hesitate before we offer our theory to the world as conclusive and final.

Dr. Thompson does not feel any such hesitation. He enters upon his task with a double enthusiasm: first, a patriotic enthusiasm in that he is able to bring from his fatherland a complete and final solution of a vexed question, and, secondly, an enthusiasm in that he is able to favor his hosts with a solution of their difficulty. His presentation of the subject is popular, and seems to bear still the character of the conversation out of which it arose. Looking at it from the standpoint of those for whom it was intended, we may believe that they will find it unsatisfactory for lack of that exhaustive analysis and command of the subject to which they are accustomed. It is written as if to influence popular opinion through the columns of a newspaper, not like a report or memorial prepared for submission to statesmen and sociologists. They will miss in it especially that presentation of the practical effects of an institution on the various classes and interests of society which it is most important to know in order to judge of the value of a social institution. They will miss also any reference to the peculiarities of American society which have made the separation of church and state in America a possibility and a success; and when, therefore, they come to consider the advisability of transferring the foreign institution to their own soil, and desire to weigh the social differences, which must have great influence on their decision, they will lack the data for one-half of the comparison. It is probable also that they will discern marks of a disposition to smooth over and apologize for certain facts which cannot be denied, and which need to be conceded more frankly in order to give a thoroughly fair statement of our experience. The task of setting forth the social circumstances, popular faiths and feelings, accepted traditions, etc., which form the atmosphere of institutions, is no easy one, but it is essential to be done when we recommend to one nation the institutions of another. The existing social arrangements of Germany are the great obstacle which prevents German statesmen from cutting the question by simply separating church and state, as so many seem to think they ought to do. It may indeed be doubted whether, if we had to meet the question, with our society so far solidified as it now is, and with a number of churches accustomed to state subsidies, we could decide it in this way ourselves.

Politics and Mysteries of Life Insurance. By Elizur Wright. (Boston: Lee & Shepard. 1873.)—For twenty years past, the author of this book has been familiar to the public as a writer on the science of life insurance, both in his capacity as actuary to some of the companies, and as the distinguished Insurance Commissioner of Massachusetts for several years. The volume before us by no means adds to Mr. Wright's well-earned fame. The newspapers for months past have brought the subject of life insurance into unusual prominence, and the recent amalgamations and failures of companies have made policy-holders more eager than ever before for enlightenment upon the condition and management of the business. To a public hungry for infor

mation upon a subject affecting the interests of thousands of families, Mr. Wright throws a sandwich of very thick slices of bread (which he had had in the house for a long time), very thin slices of meat, and a great deal of mustard; the bread being copious extracts from his early 'Reports' as Insurance Commissioner of Massachusetts and his more recent articles in insurance papers, the meat being a mere advertisement of his latest hobby, "savings-bank life insurance," and the mustard something very like contempt for those who will not jump on with him and ride as fast and as far as he. Mr. Wright states that "the object of this volume is to show that all the real benefits of life insurance can be obtained under a policy which can be perfectly understood by both parties, without obliging the individual to submit to any wrong at the hands of an autocratic or pseudo corporation—a policy which provides fairly and equitably for the contingencies of the party's ceasing to need insurance, or being unable to pay for it, as well as that of his death." The first duty of the managers of a life company is to protect the interests of its active members; and, secondly, to be as liberal to retiring members as is consistent with the utmost security of the former class, who intend to adhere to the terms of their contract until death. Mr. Wright appears as the champion of the retiring or "surrendering" class, and presents a scheme which supposes a very low commission to have been paid for procuring the risk, and provides a very light "surrender charge" or tax upon the policy-holder for abandoning the contract. But let the companies offer too great inducements and facilities for surrendering, and they at once destroy a great safeguard—one which gives them an advantage over savings-banks, trust companies, etc.—namely, a reserve fund which is not exposed to sudden and unexpected draughts or "runs." It is for the interest of the companies to make commissions and surrender charges as low as is consistent with obtaining the proper volume of new business, and the day may come when life insurance will so universally recommend itself that the present agency system will be entirely dispensed with, and the amount now paid out in commissions be applied to a reduction of the premiums. We can, however, safely leave it to right-minded, practical business men (of whom this business has its fair proportion) to hasten that day; the professional actuaries having almost as frequently misled the companies in the past as they have rightly guided them. Indeed, Mr. Wright's own words recur to us with unusual force: "The hieroglyphic veil which concealed from the common herd the learning of the ancient Egyptian priesthood was thin; and that which renders a priesthood of professional actuaries necessary for the safe conduct of modern life insurance is not thick. The more carefully, then, must it be preserved by those who have it for a livelihood."

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Pricer.*
Adams (W. T.), The Yacht Club	(Lee & Shepard)
Aldrich (T. B.), Marjorie Daw and Other People	(J. R. Osgood & Co.) $1 50
Athol: A Tale	(Pott, Young & Co.)
Clarke (Mrs. M. C.), Girlhood of Shakespeare's Heroines	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 2 50
Clarke (W. H.), Dollar Instructor for the Reed Organ	(O. Ditson & Co.) 1 00
Cook (Rev. F. C.), The Holy Bible and Commentary, Vol. III.	(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.)
Coxe (Rev. A. C.), Apollos; or, The Way of God	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Edmund Dawn: A Tale	(G. W. Carleton & Co.)
Eiloart (Mrs.), The Boy with an Idea	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 1 75
Elliot (Frances), Romance of Old Court-Life in France	(D. Appleton & Co.)
Girardin (Mme. E.), Gautier (Th.), Saudeau (J.), and Méry, The Cross of Berny	(Porter & Coates) 1 50
Hamlin (A. C.), The Tourmaline	(J. R. Osgood & Co.) 2 00
Hodges (D. F.) and Foster (G. W.), The Morning Star	(Lee & Shepard)
Hodges (D. F.) and Tenney (J. H.), Golden Sunbeams	" "
Hooker (I. B.), Womanhood: Its Sanctities and Fidelities	" "
Howard (G. W.), The Monumental City, swd	(Baltimore)
Howells (W. D.), Poems	(J. R. Osgood & Co.) 1 50
Hudson (Rev. H. N.), School Shakespeare, Vol. III.	(Ginn Bros.)
Kellogg (Rev. E.), John Godsoe's Legacy	(Lee & Shepard)
Klingner (H. F.), Die Jonathanier, swd	(Hartford)
Malot (H.), Romain Kalbris, translated by Mrs. J. M. Wright	(Porter & Coates) 2 00
Munroe (W. H.), Philosophy of Cure	(Cambridge)
Nason (H. B.) and Chandler (C. F.), Elderhorst's Manual of Qualitative Blow-pipe Analysis	(T. Ellwood Zell)
Osborn (L.), Mariamne: A Tragedy	(Henry L. Hinton) 0 75
Perkins (A. T.), A Life and List of Works of John Singleton Copley	(J. R. Osgood & Co.) 3 00
Pickering (Prof. E. C.), Elements of Physical Manipulation	(Hurd & Houghton)
Proctor (R. A.), The Moon	(D. Appleton & Co.)
Reid (C.), Nina's Atonement, and Other Stories	" "
Richardson (W. C.), Ga-par: A Romaunt	(Geo. A. Searcy & Co.)
Sedgwick (Miss), Morals of Manners	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 0 60
Stephens (Mrs. A. S.), Bellehood and Bondage	(T. B. Peterson & Bros.) 1 75
Stieler (A.), Hand-Atlas, Part 15, swd	(L. W. Schmidt) 0 60
The Workshop, No 9, swd	(E. Steiger) 0 50
Verne (J.), A Journey to the Centre of the Earth	(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.)
Wood (Mrs. H.), The Master of Greylands	(T. B. Peterson & Bros.) 1 75
Yonge (Miss C. M.), The Pillars of the House: A Tale, 2 vols.	(Macmillan & Co.) 3 50
Zeitschrift der Gesellschaft für Erdkunde zu Berlin, No. 45, swd.	(L. W. Schmidt)

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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

SEPTEMBER 30, 1873.

THE panic, commencing the week before last with the failure of several large private bankers and the suspension of important trust companies and incorporated banks, has so far subsided as to enable people to form a somewhat correct understanding of its cause. The failure of Jay Cooke & Co., in consequence of the large amount of deposits which it held being withdrawn, caused a feeling of doubt and insecurity among depositors with other firms, and the result was a general and overwhelming demand upon them for the payment of balances, which, on Tuesday, the 23d inst., caused the suspension of Henry Clews & Co., and on Wednesday that of Howes & Macy. The deposits in both of these houses were very large, and, considering the impossibility of compelling the return of loans made to other parties, it is not at all surprising that they were forced to suspend until they could gather in the money due them. Had these firms been able to have hypothecated the securities which they held against loans due them with the banks, against their checks, as the banks themselves had been able to do in the settlement of their indebtedness to the Clearing-House, every one of them, with probably one exception, would have been enabled to meet their liabilities; but the course which was open to the banks was closed to the private bankers. The suspension on Saturday, the 20th inst., of the Union and National Trust Companies was brought about by the same causes which operated against the private bankers, although the discovery of a defalcation by the Secretary of the former Company naturally aggravated its other troubles. It is alleged that the failure of the Commonwealth Bank was occasioned by an overdraft of one of its dealers, amounting to some $200,000. It is rather an interesting fact that this, the only one of the Associated Banks which has failed, was in former years a willing instrument in the hands of Fisk and Gould in their notorious locking-up operations made for the purpose of breeding panics. The banks have acted bravely in this trying emergency, and lost no time in making arrangements to meet it. The certification of brokers' checks in advance of a deposit of sufficient funds to meet them was stopped, we hope never to be resumed; the authorized amount of Clearing-House certificates was increased from ten millions to twenty millions, and, upon the absorption of the latter amount, the restriction was removed altogether, the payment of large amounts of currency was stopped, and all checks over a certain amount were certified as good through the Clearing-House.

The relief afforded by the Treasury, which, on Monday, gave notice that it would continue its purchases of 5-20's, though to what extent was not officially stated, was not such as was expected. A very small part of the bonds offered was from the national banks, where the want of greenbacks was most seriously felt. The sellers were mostly the savings banks of this and neighboring cities, who either locked up the currency in their vaults which they received from the sale of their bonds, or used it in purchases of other United States bonds, then temporarily depressed, after availing themselves of the benefit of the law giving them the privilege of demanding sixty days' notice from their depositors before paying them. On Thursday, the 25th inst., the Treasury ceased its purchases of bonds, and on the following day despatches from Washington stated that the Secretary would [or could] do nothing further towards relieving the money market.

There has been no regular quotation for money from day to day, but we hear of renewals of loans at from ½ to 1½ per cent. a day. The Stock Exchange remained closed during the entire week, and was not to be reopened until Tuesday, September 30, and then under certain restrictions regarding the selling out of stocks "under the rule," for the settlement of contracts. Meantime, its members have been forbidden to deal in stocks on the street; transactions, however, were allowable in private offices, and numerous attempts were made to get up a market in the street among outside parties, which latter was broken up by the police. The quotations made for stocks were very wide and irregular, but, so far as we could judge, this made little difference to parties dealing, as the sales were made under pressure, and the buyers were not disposed to limit themselves within 1 or 2 per cent. of the last reported sales.

The following will show the quotations before the panic set in, during the interval when the Exchange was closed (so far as they could be had), and since the reopening:

	Sept. 20.	*Sept.* 26.	*Sept.* 30		*Sept.* 20.	*Sept.* 26.	*Sept.* 30
N. Y. Cent. & H...	91¼	90	92	St. Paul pref.....	—	—	57⅛
Erie.....	53⅛	53	51	Ohio & Miss.....	27¾	29	29⅛
Erie pref.....	60 bid	—	66	Western Union....	55¾	56	68⅛
Lake Shore.....	83	75	77	Wabash.....	44	41	46
Northwestern.....	40	40	43⅜	Union Pacific.....	18	19⅛	21
Rock Island.....	88	86	90	C., C. & I. C.....	19	21	22
Pacific Mail.....	32	31	35	Harlem.....	103	110	114
St. Paul.....	32¾	30	35⅛	Han. & St. Jo. Com.	22½	21	24

Resort was also had to auction sales during the week, and the following were the prices realized at Saturday's sale of hypothecated stocks:

90 C., C. & I.	69	200 Pacific R. R. of Missouri	30
166 Del. & Hudson Canal..104, 102½,	101	100 Atlantic & Pacific pref.	15
100 Ohio & Mississippi pref.	60	500 Chi. & Northwestern pref..62¼ to 61⅛	
30 Morris & Essex	80	$9,000 U. P. land-grant bonds...63 to 64	
80 Del., Lack. & Western	85⅛	$3,000 U. P. income 10 per cent. b'ds.	53
100 Union Pacific	19		

Railroad bonds, especially those based upon completed roads, have not suffered so much in the general estimation as have stocks. The dealings in them attract less notice, and, as a rule, they are not bought and sold on margins, or sold "short"; and for these reasons their average of prices is not subject to the same fluctuations. We note sales of Central Pacifics at 90 to 95; Union Pacifics, 73 to 75; Land-grant, 68 to 70; Incomes, 53½ to 55. Curiosity is manifested in the dealings in bonds of railroads not yet introduced on the stock list. The *Financial Chronicle* gives a list of quotations (wide, of course, for the more prominent issues): Canada Southern 7s, 72 to 73; Kansas Pacific 6s, gold, 70; N. Y., Oswego, and Midland 7s, 67½ to 75; Chesapeake and Ohio 6s, gold, 81; Northern Pacific, 70 to 75; Burlington, Cedar Rapids, and Minnesota 7s, gold, 86; Indianapolis, Bloomington, and Western 7s, gold, 82.

It is probable that the reopening of the Exchange will lead to some plan for the establishment of a stock Clearing-House, organized upon some such principle as that of the Gold Exchange Bank, through which the clearances of the Gold Exchange are made, the want of which has long been felt, if not by the brokers, at least by the Wall Street banks, which for years have been loaning their credit in the form of over-certification.

The President of the Continental Bank has purposed making that institution the Clearing-House Bank for the Stock Exchange, and keeping only brokers' accounts, all mercantile accounts being asked to withdraw. The proposition looks at first sight like one that might work to mutual advantage.

The closing of the New York Stock Exchange for nine days—an occurrence without parallel in its history—must be regarded as a fair indication of the severity of the monetary spasm now passing away. Opinions now differ as to the wisdom of the measure, though it was generally applauded at the time; some holding the view that it prevented the panic from spreading; others the conviction that it only aggravated its evils, and that the true way would have been to let the panic run its course, hit whom it might, predicting a quicker and healthier recovery thereby. It is now obvious that the occurrence was not merely a "Wall Street flurry"; it soon assumed larger dimensions, involving the banks of nearly every town and city east of the great plains. The contrivance of the banks of the interior cities, Chicago, St. Louis, Louisville, Cincinnati, Pittsburg, Baltimore, Washington, and Richmond, like that of New York City, has all the elements of a suspension of payments, except the name. It is now regarded as a legitimate expedient to stave off the consequences of an unreasoning, baseless, senseless loss of confidence.

Attention has been called to the fact that we have now at least three kinds of currency in use, no two of which are of precisely the same value, viz., gold, legal tenders and bank-notes, and bank certifications. Of the three forms of paper money, the National bank-notes are a little the best in popular estimation. Both legal tenders and bank-notes, however, have commanded a premium, as against bank checks, for several days past, as high as 2½ and even 4 per cent. difference being made. With the restoration of confidence, this difference between lawful money and the money of commerce will disappear. The latest announcement of the Clearing-House Committee, that they will, if necessary, issue an additional twenty millions of these loan certificates, has awakened a keen interest to see if the seeds of a new distrust are not contained in this practice. As we go to press, the occasion for such an enlargement of this policy seems to have passed.

Gold has been unusually unsteady for many days, having gone up on Saturday last to 114¾ on the announcement of a hitch in the daily clearings, and down to 111 at a later day. The rallying-point seems to be about 112, sometimes above, and quite as frequently below.

Foreign exchange has been demoralized, there being so little money with which to buy bills. Quotations have ruled as low as 101, though there is a reaction, and sight bills are at about 107½@108, or two per cent. below the actual parity of exchange. Appeals have been made to the Secretary of the Treasury and to the banks to purchase bills of exchange attached to bills of lading, in order to relieve the wants of produce forwarders. This function seems to be entirely outside of the Government province, and it is likely the forwarders will be able to make private arrangements with the banks. All the steamers thus far have carried out full cargoes, and there is no serious liability of stoppage of our exports.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 9, 1873.

The Week.

THE panic died out on Friday, which was settling day at the Stock Exchange; but, contrary to the anticipations of the timid, produced no failures, and was indeed marked by a rise of stocks and decline in the premium on greenbacks, which at this writing has disappeared. Indeed, from the purely financial side, the sky looks very bright again, but the political financiers are in fresh trouble. Mr. Richardson, who is not either an eminent financier or an eminent lawyer, has assumed, in defiance of the report of the Committee of Congress, and of the soundest opinion of the country at large, the right to reissue what he calls his "reserve" of $44,000,000 greenbacks, or, in plain English, a quantity of greenbacks called in under Secretary McCulloch for the express purpose of contracting the currency, and which ought to have been cancelled and destroyed. Mr. Richardson exercised this self-assumed authority by issuing $5,000,000 last fall, as he said, "to move the crops," but, as other people said, to make money easy just before election. Withdrawing them when the political crisis was passed, he did much to produce the stringency of last winter and spring, which led finally to the present collapse; but many people thought he had learnt a lesson which would save him in the future. When he and the President came, a fortnight ago, and valorously withstood the entreaties of the bankers at the Fifth Avenue Hotel, and refused to "violate the law" by issuing the greenbacks to stop the panic, pious people in the country began to thank God for Mr. Richardson. It now appears, however, that that display of scrupulousness was a little comedy, for he has issued $2,000,000 of "the reserve," and will probably issue more.

There is, however, worse than this to be told. It appears that he has been keeping a balance of $287,782 of the Government money on deposit in the First National Bank of Washington, of which Mr. H. D. Cooke, the brother of Mr. Jay Cooke, was President. The bank failed when Jay Cooke & Co. failed, and it now appears that Mr. Richardson only held security for $100,000 of this sum, although the law directs him to deposit no Government money in a bank without obtaining "satisfactory security by the deposit of United States bonds or otherwise." In other words, he unlawfully lent $187,782 of Government money to a political friend. Foremost among the reforms now sought for ought to be stern prohibition of political banking and political issues of paper money.

Last week, in speaking of the failure of Jay Cooke & Co., we probably conveyed the impression to many persons that the house of Jay Cooke, McCulloch & Co., which does a portion of the Government banking business in London, had also failed. This, however, is not the case. It has paid all demands on it, and will continue to do so, and is, we are requested to state, entirely separate and distinct from the New York firm. The appearance of connection between the two has, we believe, been created by the fact that Mr. Cooke, of Jay Cooke & Co., has an interest in the other firm, which, we believe, still stands very well in London, and has nothing to fear from the condition of things on this side of the water.

The *Economist* (London) has an article on the lessons of our panic, some points of which are worth reproducing. The main one is this, that the currency in which the banks are by law required to keep their reserves, and which is the legal tender, is a fixed quantity. It cannot be increased by importations from abroad, as gold coin can, so that as the demands of the country for currency to transact its business increase, as they do year by year, not only do prices decline, including that of gold, but the reserves of the banks become harder to keep up. Consequently, as long as the volume of legal tenders remains the same, we are each fall harder pressed for money "to move the crops"; and the minute this pressure begins to make itself felt on the banks, they are forced to diminish their accommodation instead of increasing it, in order to keep up their reserves, which they cannot replenish by drawing on other countries for gold, as the Bank of England does, and which, if they could afford to keep gold as reserves, they are forbidden by the usury laws to obtain by raising the rate of interest, as the Bank of England does. If, on the other hand, the reserves are allowed to fall very low, the seeds of a panic are at once sown. There are two ways out of the difficulty—one to keep inflating the currency from year to year until it would all disappear in a grand crash in the nature of national bankruptcy, and the other to get what additions to it we need to enable us to carry on our business by bringing into use once more the currency of the civilized world—gold and silver. We may add that one or two of these points were made in an able letter in the New York *Times* the other day, signed "Knickerbocker."

The meeting of the Evangelical Alliance has happily filled the place in the public eye which was last week occupied by the panic. It was feared that the postponement of the meeting in 1870, in consequence of the outbreak of the Franco-German war, would have deprived the present attempt of much of its *éclat*, but the gathering seems to be as full and as enthusiastic as there was any good reason for believing it would have been if it had taken place when originally intended. The audiences are as large as the various buildings in use will hold, and there seems to be no limit to their fervor, or to that of the speakers. The Dean of Canterbury taking the communion at Dr. Adams's Presbyterian Church was one of the strange sights of the occasion. A large number of the sermons and papers take up directly or indirectly the question of the best mode of dealing with modern scepticism, but it cannot by candid men be said very satisfactorily. The great difficulty of dealing with modern scepticism is one which the speakers of the Alliance do not seem to recognize, and that is, that it is what the physicists call an imponderable agent. You cannot lay your finger on it, and can hardly find a man who will appear and answer for it; it is somehow in the air, however, and is found everywhere, the church included. Religious beliefs are not destroyed by argument; nobody openly assails them; they are not formally abandoned; and yet, when you come to question religious men, or they come to question themselves, you find that they have ceased to hold a great many doctrines they once held, and have ceased to know where their belief stops and their unbelief begins, and yet cannot tell why or wherefore. The process of decay is of course, everybody knows, due mainly to the spread of the scientific habit of mind, or, in other words, the doubting habit of mind; but it is due also to the increasingly commercial character of the church organization. A leading church in this city has had, until this summer, its choir "run" at enormous expense by an enterprising stock-broker on precisely the same principle on which he would have conducted the opera—high pay for good music, with plenty of variety. As he has just "burst up" in the panic, the church will now probably praise God more economically. We are sorry to see no papers on this theme in the programme of the Alliance.

The exposure of the assessments in the St. Louis Post-office is apparently having a very good effect. The clerks in the Baltimore Custom-house, it is said, have declined to pay the tax of one and a half per cent. levied upon them, and the authorities have only been able to collect $80 instead of $2,000. We mention this chiefly for the purpose of calling attention to the disgraceful manner in which the new Chairman of the Commission is abused in the press for his attempt to perform the duties of his office. He is continually spoken

of as if his assumption of the office had been a sort of trick to throw dust in the eyes of the public. From what we know of the matter, we are able to say that the Administration was alarmed at the resignation of Mr. Curtis, and did make an honest attempt to secure a good officer in his place; and there has certainly been nothing to show, since Mr. Eaton took charge of the Commission, that he is actuated by anything but a sincere desire to do his duty, and this rebellion in Baltimore looks like a real victory for the regulations established by the Commission.

General Barlow, we grieve to say, has fallen into deep disfavor with the Custom-house publicists, and they threw him overboard at Utica without the least ceremony, after he had yielded to the solicitations of the bar and of the best portion of the Reform party so far as to consent to serve a second term. The fact is that he is a great deal too active and vigilant and aggressive to suit the purposes of the Custom-house Ring. They have accordingly put in General Barlow's place a highly respectable lawyer, whose advanced age—he is seventy-three—and quiet temperament will prevent his giving trouble to their corrupt hangers-on. Mr. Silliman's age, even if he were a man of more active habits, would be a disqualification for an office which, under existing circumstances, is neither deliberative nor administrative, but combative. The Attorney-General of this State has to be at present a fighting man to do any good, and this the Custom-house brethren are determined he shall not be. The great fount of corruption is the canals, which General Barlow has been exploring with much effect, and after doing so he reached certain conclusions with regard to Mr. Taylor, whom the Ring has just nominated for State Engineer, which he communicated by letter to the Convention. The managers prudently suppressed it, however—and it has not seen the light even in the "reform" papers—and nominated Mr. Taylor all the same. We doubt very much whether "the party" will ever require General Barlow's services again.

The Democratic State Convention at Utica appears to have been an unenthusiastic body, but it was at all events not so dull as its Republican predecessor, there being a rather unexpected disturbance in the way of an attack on Mr. Thomas Kinsella, and an entirely foreseen disturbance over the question of admitting the Apollo Hall delegates instead of the Tammany. Tammany, as always, carried the day, and Apollo Hall departed in wrath. Probably Republicans who think that this will inure to the benefit of the Republican candidates make a mistake, or are at least premature. What arrangements the leaders of the two factions may make or may fail to make between now and election-day cannot as yet be told or known. The organs of both factions are at present urging a united support of the State ticket and praising the platform as embodying true Democratic principles. It begins with a number of undeniably good propositions taken from the works of Thomas Jefferson—assertions in favor of the freedom of the press, for example, the freedom of religion, the citizen's right to the writ of habeas corpus—to which last assertion a kind and polite Administration organ in this city refers as one more proof of the chronic anxiety of Democrats about keeping out of jail. However that may be, the preamble is open to the objection of being composed of glittering generalities. What follows is more definite. "The party will urge free-trade legislation," it says, for one thing; but, in the light of past events, it is not unfair to regard this for the present as so much platform talk. A similar resolution in a Pennsylvania Democratic platform would undoubtedly mean more, but that we are not likely to get. Of course, the "salary grab" is denounced, and the lead of the Ohio Democracy in denouncing the President for his signing the bill is followed, but with a difference, for our New York Democracy point out that the President signed the bill just after another one—a bill to increase his salary, but not that of Congressmen—had failed to pass. This certainly is not a pretty aspect of the transaction, whichever way we look at it. General Grant's conduct in the Louisiana business is of course severely blamed. The nominees of the Convention are admitted to be good men. There is, at all events, no Taylor among them.

All but two of the murderers of Gen. Canby have been hanged, and the Modoc question is out of the way. The sentences of the two survivors were commuted. That Captain Jack's career is over is certainly a subject of congratulation, but the way in which he has been hung is not a way which can in future cases be safely taken as a precedent. The Attorney-General advised the President that a "state of war" existed between the Modocs and the United States, and that, therefore, the prisoners could be tried by a military commission for a violation of military usage in decoying and assassinating General Canby. It is obvious that, if there is a state of war in the United States every time two or three dozen desperadoes get possession of a lava-bed and defy pursuit, there will be a good many more wars going on than most people will like to anticipate. On the Attorney-General's principles, Shay's Rebellion was perhaps a war between the United States and Shay. The fact that we make treaties with Indians has little to do with the question. We make treaties with Great Britain; but if thirty Englishmen, resident in Sing Sing, should make an escape and resist the ordinary processes of capture, and United States troops should be called for by Governor Dix, we should hardly call this a state of war between Great Britain and the United States.

The great *Alabama* Claims Award swindle is ably discussed in the current number of the *Law Review*. The $15,000,000 awarded by the Geneva Tribunal, it will be remembered, instead of being distributed among the sufferers from the ravages of the rebel cruisers, was appropriated by Congress to be invested in 5 per cent. registered bonds of the United States, "to be held subject to the future disposition of Congress." To make the matter more plain, we may say that this money, which belonged to the insurers and shippers who had lost it, was taken by their designated agent, the United States, who had received it for them in open court, and then used by that agent to help it pay its own debts—for it cannot be doubted that even the temporary investment of so large a sum in what was then and indeed still are the "new fives," is a great help to the Government in re-establishing its credit. Not only did Congress do this, but in addition it declared in as open a way as it dared, first, that the insurers were entitled to no compensation whatever, because they had received compensation through their war premiums, and, in the second place, that no private person was entitled to any. We quote the language of the Committee which had the subject under consideration: "Your Committee have come to the conclusion that the amount awarded at Geneva *is the money of the United States*, to be disposed of at its pleasure, subject to no trust, and especially to no legal rights in any individual or corporation by whom a legal or equitable claim can be set up or maintained to any part of the sum awarded, as against the United States."

The extraordinary report of the Committee was never supported by any real argument whatever; but the *Law Review* examines in detail the specious insinuations of the Committee, and shows, 1st, that as the claims preferred at Geneva were of two kinds, those of private individuals and those of the Government for a few ships of its own and indirect damages, and as the claims of the Government for indirect damages were ruled out of court, it follows inevitably that the only claims for which the "gross sum" was awarded were those of private individuals, and of the United States for the one or two ships of its own which were lost; 2d, that, so far as the private claims were concerned, the United States, having undertaken the collection of and recovered judgment for them, stands, according to universal principles of law and equity, as agent or trustee for the claimants, and its present proceedings are simply a barefaced fraud; 3d, that with regard to insured ships the underwriter stands in the

shoes of the owner as a claimant upon this fund, and for this it cites precedents so well known that they, too, make fraud the only word applicable to the proceedings in Congress. The position taken by the *Law Review* is the same as we have always taken in these columns. The article, which is as valuable for the clear moral insight as for the legal acumen it shows, ought to be read by every one who is interested in the honor of the country—a class of people whose existence the *Law Review* at present seems to think in doubt.

Those who recollect the fierce discussion carried on a year ago between Father Burke and Mr. Froude must be rather disappointed at the tameness of Mr. Bradlaugh's lecture on Ireland. For the fire-eater he was reported to be, he is very mild indeed. As to Ireland, he is opposed to separation, opposed to war, opposed to lawlessness of all kinds. He thinks Mr. Gladstone's land-law did not go far enough, and that it ought not merely to have enabled the Irish peasants to become landed proprietors, but should have made the change compulsory. He is in favor of "Home Rule" also, and religious equality. His audience, who came to his lecture expecting to hear an extremist, seem to have been a good deal discontented, and one gentleman is referred to in the *Tribune's* report as shaking his head at all Mr. Bradlaugh's points throughout, and being thereupon accused of ignorance of the subject by the lecturer. At the close of the address, the audience were invited by Mr. Bradlaugh to put a few questions to him, and it may be inferred from the tone of these questions that they considered him rather too conservative for their purposes; among other things, he had laid it down as a political principle in his lecture that what was right in one country was right in another, and that the Hungarian and Polish question was practically the same as the Irish. He was asked why, if this was so, the Irish question was not practically the same as the American, which was solved a century since by separation. This dilemma he avoided with the simplicity of a child by saying that the circumstances were different in the two cases.

Things are apparently looking worse for the Carlists than when Castelar made the speech three weeks ago in which he acknowledged that they were 50,000 strong, and would probably soon try to cross the Ebro. The want of cavalry and artillery has kept them in the hills, and in the hills they cannot stay very long, as they are not prepared for the cold weather, and they have exhausted the country around them. They have evacuated Estella, one of their latest conquests. Cartagena still holds out, but is said to be on the point of surrendering, and the revolted iron-clads are trying to pick up a precarious subsistence by plundering the unprotected towns along the coast. The Madrid Government has thus gained in appearance by the increasing disorganization of their wretched enemies, but there is no reason for believing that the state of things is radically any better than it was a month ago, or that it is likely to be any better at present.

The reason why has been well summed up recently in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* by M. Cherbuliez, in an essay on Spanish politics, where he describes the situation as follows: A government without authority, moving in space, giving advice rather than orders, and apparently taking gesticulation for action; the public revenues exhausted in their very source; bankruptcy almost inevitable; a civil war of which nobody can foresee the end; continual revolts of cantons and villages, which declare themselves independent states; rich cities a prey to chance demagogues and cut-throat socialists; murders, fires, and frightful confusion of all powers, all trades, and all ideas; here, priests acting as guerilla chiefs, upsetting trains, bastinadoing alcaldes, shooting prisoners, and robbing peasants; there, mutinous soldiers chasing and killing their officers; elsewhere, political adventurers in white cloaks, with feathers streaming in the wind, offering themselves as candidates all over the country, with valorous airs and a battery of cannon to support their eloquence; at Madrid, a parliament in which everybody, except the men of merit, wants to be minister; clubs of ranters who declaim, with foam on their lips, on collective property and on the virtues of the Fourth Estate, and in which altars are raised to Holy Disorder—a state of things, in short, which has wrung from one Spanish journalist the exclamation: "In our unfortunate country, nobody any longer is willing to obey, and nobody any longer knows how to command." Even after making allowance for exaggeration, the disease here described is too deep-seated to be cured in a month or in a year, indeed, we might say, in a generation.

In France, the monarchical preparations for a restoration are daily approaching completion, and the attempt will doubtless be made on the meeting of the Assembly to proclaim the monarchy, draw up a constitution, and offer the crown to the Comte de Chambord. As we have for some months ventured to predict this result as near at hand, we have nothing to add by way of explanation. The greatest difficulty in the monarchical problem has been the monarch himself, whom it has been very hard to bring down into this century. The recent adhesion of the Orléans family to Henry V. without ifs or buts, and the withdrawal of the German army, have precipitated the crisis, and his adherents have lately labored with him with enough success to get from him a letter, in which he denies that he contemplates reactionary measures or thinks of attacking Italy. In the meantime, the Clerical party, in their eager fanaticism, are evidently very near spoiling the game, and, besides frightening the Italians, are frightening the more moderate Monarchists, one of whom, the Duc de Broglie, has felt it necessary to declare clerical domination in France impossible. The Extreme Left has been sufficiently sobered by the gravity of the situation to announce their willingness to act with the Left Centre, and under the lead of Thiers, who has gone back to Paris to rally his forces; and they are even going to support M. de Rémusat as a candidate for the Assembly in one of the Departments—the same Rémusat, be it observed, whom they defeated last spring with a red-hot Communist, thus bringing about M. Thiers's downfall and throwing the Government into the hands of the Monarchists. As usual, their wisdom comes a little too late. The Comte de Chambord has moved down from Frohsdorf to Geneva, in order to be near the scene of action; and, indeed, everything seems to be in readiness for what the reporters call a "lively time." It is said that actual canvass has secured 350 votes in the Assembly for the monarchy. The chances seem to be that the Monarchists will have their own way in that body, and then all will depend on MacMahon, who will doubtless obey the majority. Then we shall have fifteen or twenty years of republican attempts to overthrow the monarchy, thus preventing the formation of political habits among the people, and then another revolution, more sham republic, and so on.

The topic of most interest in the English news is the Ashantee war in Western Africa, in which an attempt is about to be made to chastise a barbarous potentate, one hundred miles in the interior, who is said to kill about twenty-five men a day, and came down not long ago and attacked the British settlement on the coast, and seized and imprisoned four English missionaries. The English commodore at the station pushed up the river in boats to make a reconnoissance, but fell into an ambuscade and suffered severely, and there is now nothing for it but to push an expedition up to the capital, as in the Abyssinian war. But this is a serious matter. Nearly one hundred miles of pestilential swamp have to be traversed, and all supplies have to be carried by the troops. Accordingly, materials for a railroad forty miles long have been sent out from England, and traction engines for ordinary roads, and 3,000 European troops are to show the way to a large native force raised for the occasion, the whole commanded by Sir Garnet Woolsey, who overthrew Riel, the Dictator of Fort Garry.

THE NEW REPUBLICAN GOSPEL.

MR. BRADLAUGH, who has been for some years a very prominent Radical agitator in England on behalf of various changes, both political, social, and religious, has come over here to add a plea for sympathy for the English Republic to the numerous pleas addressed to us during the last year or two on behalf of the French Republic and the Spanish Republic. He has lately become a bugbear to English Liberals as well as to English Conservatives, owing to the excesses of his brethren on the Continent. Indeed, it is the opinion of competent observers that the late acknowledged decline in Mr. Gladstone's popularity and the numerous triumphs of the Conservatives at elections, are the result of a growing feeling in the Liberal ranks, that a persistent following of Mr. Gladstone much further would bring the country up to the Bradlaugh mark. He has been made all the more dreadful to quiet people by the fact that he has been in the habit of seasoning his assaults on the constitution with assaults on the Christian church. But then, it must be confessed that he needs his peculiar habitat to be very much of a monster. Out of England he is a most innocuous person. When he goes to Spain or France to see his brother Republicans, he seems to them a kind of tepid reactionary, so moderate and patient is he, and so low a view does he take of the political capacity of the masses, and so long does he propose to wait for the millennium. Over here, too, his eccentricities both in religion and politics are very familiar to us. There is hardly any American who goes to lectures and reads the newspapers who is not well acquainted with him under various other names, female as well as male. He has discoursed in this country for a great many years, on all sorts of matters, without doing much damage or shocking many people's nerves.

On Friday night he gave us an exposition of his republicanism, which will strike, we think, most people as the mildest form of it they have ever listened to. It simply amounts to a belief that a republic is the best form of government when people are ready for it; that people are not ready for it in England; but that a small band of workers, including Mr. Bradlaugh, are endeavoring to prepare them for it—and for these he invokes our sympathy. At the French "Republic" and the Spanish "Republic" he openly laughs in a derisive manner.

If this account of his tale be true—and we refer those who question it to the *Tribune's* report of his lecture—many will ask, what brings such a man here; and why has there been so much fuss over his coming? If he were able to say that he and his friends were going to set up a republic in England shortly, and that he would probably be a prominent member of the government, his appearance would naturally excite a good deal of interest; but he does not profess to be able to do anything of the kind. He simply says that he is engaged in some very meritorious missionary and educational work, which at some distant period will bear fruit. In other words, his message to us is that there is a good time coming in England, and that we shall see it if we wait long enough. His coming out here to lecture, under these circumstances, with the expectation of making a sensation—we do not use the word in any depreciatory sense—is to be explained by what we cannot help calling the hallucination under which nearly all European republicans, and a large number of Americans, labor as to the nature of republican propagandism. The belief is almost general in Europe, and is here widely spread, that this Republic—the only one of importance there is, except Switzerland—was founded after mature deliberation by a body of eminent men upon the comparative merits of the various known forms of government; or, in other words, that Washington and Madison, and Jay and Hamilton, and the other Fathers, laid their heads together and said: "Go to; let us found a republic"; and that anybody who wants, even in our day, to stand in the front rank of public benefactors, ought to imitate them as far as possible—that is, set up republics and reject monarchies wherever he can. But, in point of fact, the Fathers did nothing of the kind. They did not choose between rival forms of government. They provided machinery for administering the form of government which American society produced. They had not much more choice about that matter than about the course of the Hudson. They did not go about lecturing against monarchy or in favor of democracy; they simply took the existing materials, and built of them such a political fabric as the community called for. They found republican institutions existing, and they based on them just as much of a republic as the manners and ideas of the time allowed; that is, a republic of restricted suffrage, of administration by local notables, and of tolerated slavery. Their republic, however, would by no means have suited the ideas of our day, and accordingly, another and very different one has taken its place—a republic of perfect equality, of male suffrage, and of administration by local "workers." This change, too, has been brought about, not by lectures on forms of government, but by changes in the national manners and the material condition of the country. In other words, we have had in the United States no agitation in favor of having potatoes produce beans, but have confined ourselves to growing as good beans and as good potatoes as the climate and soil would permit. According to most European republicans, however, a republic can be prepared beforehand by any body of "thinkers," however small, and then the masses be driven into it, and made to live in it, no matter what their manners and ideas may be. It is in this little job that Gambetta and his friends are engaged in Franc, and Castelaer and his friends in Spain.

The English republicans, however, are conscious, like Mr. Bradlaugh, of the faults of the Continental theory and method, and, when they lecture on republicanism, talk almost as sagely about its condition as John Stuart Mill or Herbert Spencer. Gambetta says, frankly, "Let us set up a republic, and we shall be happy and prosperous." Bradlaugh does not say this, but he says, "Let us get ready for a republic, by the acquisition of the virtues and the formation of the habits which make republics possible, and then we shall be rewarded by having one." But then, anybody who says this, has no need to go about as a republican missionary. What he is really advocating is knowledge, temperance, business habits, industry, self-restraint, reasonableness, foresight, and love of liberty and of local self-government. It is absurd to suppose that a people will cultivate these virtues simply in order to rid themselves of kings and queens. What Moses and the Prophets, and Christ, and Confucius, and Socrates, and Paul, and Peter have been trying to do for thousands of years, by the aid of the loftiest hopes and most dreadful terrors that human tongue can paint, Messrs. Bradlaugh and Odger and Sir Charles Dilke are hardly likely to effect by promising people that they shall eventually elect a president every four years. In other words, when the people of England are virtuous and sensible enough, a republic they will have. But a republic will then be no very marked or very sensible addition to their blessings. We tell a boy to work hard, and give himself to his books, that he may become a banker, and not that he may wear broadcloth and hang out a banker's sign. Human life under republics, as we at least know, is attended by a large proportion of the evils which attend it under monarchies. It has its plagues, in the shape of demagogues and charlatans and "workers" and monopolies and rings and panics. Indeed, republicans sometimes die, and are often sick. In the two republics with which we are acquainted, a man's chances for the free play of his faculties and the just reward of his labor are undoubtedly better than those which fall to his lot under any monarchy. In other words, a republic is a nobler form of government than a monarchy can ever be. But there is in no republic such a state of bliss as to make the prospect of it do for human character what neither glimpses of heaven nor of hell have thus far succeeded in accomplishing. The great superstition of our day—for our day, too, has its superstitions—is that the world is to be saved by giving new names to old facts, or by reshuffling packs of cards or putting the pea under another thimble; and we accordingly have bands of apostles who think they are going to light up the dark places of the earth by telling men that, if they are very good and very wise, they will, in process of time, be able to elect a president

instead of a king. The answer of the heathen to this gospel is, however, a very natural one: "When we are good and wise, we shall do as we please, and shall not need your advice." When France and Spain are in the main inhabited by republicans, a republic there will be in each country as sure as fate, and the gates of hell will not prevail against it; but all attempts to establish one any sooner, will simply keep up the alternations of anarchy, monarchy, and democracy which we have witnessed the last fifty years. In England, too, there will be a republic when people want one, and not a moment sooner; and they cannot be reasoned into wanting it, because no government ever did or will rest on opinions. Governments rest on habits, and the habits are the product of a thousand influences, social, commercial, and physical, and the first condition of their growth is a long period of order, and security, and stability. We accordingly see that no republic has ever been established yet either by discussion or by disgust. All the successful republics of which we have any knowledge have been produced by the growth of institutions and political habits, which finally rendered the people indifferent to or independent of the monarchy, so that they threw it aside as one throws aside an old coat, as a matter of course, and not after hearing their Bradlaughs and Gambettas and Castelars recite themes before them on the best form of government. They who fought at Morgarten, and Naseby, and Bunker Hill had not republicanism in their heads simply; they had it in their bones, and set up republics not as cure-alls, but because that was the way in which they liked to do their political business.

THE WATERED-STOCK HALLUCINATION.

AMONG the various cries raised during the last two or three months by the railroad and agricultural moralists in the West, there has been one which has seemed to take a strong hold upon the popular imagination and belief. The cry to which we refer is a denunciation of the immorality of the railroads in regulating their charges for freight by the amount of stock they have issued. A railroad is built, it is said, for a certain sum of money, say a million dollars, and a certain rate of freight is established by the directors which is fair enough, and will enable them to declare a dividend. Then the directors, like the shrewd knaves they are, come together and pass a vote to water the stock to double the previous amount. Then, well knowing it to be impossible to pay dividends without increasing the rates, they double these, and out of the poor farmers' hard-earned savings the money is wrung. This process is repeated every time the stock is watered; and, naturally enough, we have in the end granges, farmers' associations, new parties, denunciations of capitalists, and threats of lynch-law. That the practice of increasing the rates of freight as the stock or debt of roads increases is immoral, there can be no doubt; it is a practice not merely unjust, but in its very nature fraudulent. It is a fraud upon the stockholders, because, as it cannot be indefinitely repeated, there must come a time like the present—a time of retribution—when watering must come to an end, and transportation be directed to new routes. It is a fraud upon the public, because it is a tax collected under false pretences. We are even willing to go further than this, and to admit that, for railroads caught in the act, hardly any punishment, even to the extent of absolute disfranchisement and expatriation of the directors, would be too severe. There is, however, one difficulty in the way, which is a difficulty common to many of the proposed reforms in railroad management—the practice alleged has absolutely no existence, except in the heated brain of the agitators who have imagined it. There are no roads in the United States on which any attempt has been made to increase the freight earnings in proportion to the watered stock or debt, or, if the attempt has been made, it has failed so egregiously as to prove the managers of the roads singularly incompetent to transact their own business. As this fallacy with regard to the ratio of freight to debt is a specimen of the kind of ratiocination with which the farmers and their unthinking supporters are now deluding themselves and the public, we shall proceed to examine it, not much in detail, for, if the alleged system exists, it must be very easy to detect its existence, and shall attempt to guide our investigation by the actual facts of the case instead of by fancy.

The theory, it will be seen, may be tested in two ways—a comparison may be made between a number of different railroads to see if any constant relation exists between the debt and the freight earnings, or the career of several roads may be traced separately, for the purpose of seeing whether the freight earnings are advanced side by side with the liabilities, or whether there appears to be any connection between the two like that imagined to exist. Of course it is to be assumed at the outset, that with the growth of railroads in a new country both the earnings and liabilities increase; but the question is whether the increase in the earnings is made to bear a certain proportion to the debt, and what that proportion is.

'Poor's Railroad Manual' is acknowledged to be the only authoritative compilation of facts in the United States with regard to railroads. The 'Manual' for this year contains a tabulated statement of the earnings, expenses, and liabilities of all railroads in the country, arranged by States. In order to determine how far the earnings of a railroad from freight are determined by the amount of the stock or debt, we will select, at random, any State, and see what the ratio actually is. In order to be on the safe side, we will not take merely the stock, but the entire debt of each road (including stock, bonds, and all other liabilities), and at the same time take the gross earnings from freight, or, where these are not given, the gross earnings from all sources, as there is no probability that these are "doctored" in any way.

The first railroad in Ohio is the well-known Atlantic and Great Western. Its total debt is now, or was at the time this 'Manual' was completed, $83,000,000. The gross earnings are put down at $4,126,479, or five per cent. on the debt. There are no dividends. The next largest debt is that of the Lake Shore and Michigan Southern, which is put down at $78,820,219, while the gross earnings from freight are $12,613,499, or between 16 and 17 per cent., while the dividends are eight per cent. The debt of the Pittsburg, Fort Wayne, and Chicago is $35,852,516; the gross earnings from freight are $6,851,374, or between 15 and 16 per cent. It declares a dividend of 7 per cent. The Marietta and Cincinnati has a debt of $26,287,980, while its earnings from freight are $1,409,567, or say 6 per cent., and it pays no dividends. On the other hand, turning to the smaller roads, the Ohio railroad with least debt is the Carrollton and Oneida; its debt is $14,600. Its gross earnings from freight are put down at $3,131, or about 20 per cent., and it declared 15 per cent. dividend in 1870. The Iron Railroad, with a debt of $142,948, earned from freight $91,368, or 75 per cent., while it declared no dividends at all. We have gone through the twenty-four Ohio railroads with substantially the same results in all cases—that is, no result at all. We have failed to detect the slightest indication of a fixed relation between the debt and the earnings. We should like very much to be informed by some one who interests himself in the farmers' movement, when he speaks of the directors "increasing the freight charges to pay interest on watered stock," which of the dividend-paying roads in Ohio he has in mind. Out of twenty-four, there are only seven which pay dividends at all, and so we suppose it must be one of these. We should also like to know, if it be true that the freight income is made to increase with the debt, what is the ratio of increase, and how many roads in the country it applies to. Finally, it would be interesting to learn why a director, who can, by means of fraudulent contracts and leases and new lines, swindle his stockholders day in and day out without fear of detection, or at any rate of pursuit, should resort to the device of laying an exorbitant tax upon the producer, which he knows must in the end bring transportation to a standstill.

It may be objected to this examination of the matter that it is deceptive, because it compares one road with another instead of tracing the career of a single road from year to year. Though we do not think there is anything in the objection, in order to set all doubt at rest we have examined the matter in the other way also, taking for the purpose of examination the following stocks, which

are called in the financial columns of the newspapers "investment stocks," and may therefore be fairly supposed to be those whose directors endeavor, in accordance with the theory, as far as possible to water and increase the earnings of the stock. They are Erie preferred stock; Michigan Central; Cleveland and Pittsburg guaranteed; Cleveland, Columbus, Cincinnati, and Indianapolis; Pittsburg, Fort Wayne, and Chicago guaranteed; Delaware, Lackawanna, and Western; Chicago and Alton; Chicago and Alton preferred; Chicago, Burlington, and Quincy; Morris and Essex; New York, New Haven, and Hartford; Albany and Susquehanna.

In 1862–3 the total debt of the Erie road was $40,066,200, and this debt gradually increased until it was, in 1871–2, $118,295,979 38, an increase of nearly two hundred per cent. The freight earnings during the same period had increased from $8,432,234 47 to $14,509,745 47, or about seventy-five per cent. The dividend on the preferred stock for the year ending December 31, 1872, was one and three-fourths per cent. The total debt of the Michigan Central has increased from $15,188,190 in 1865–66 to $25,557,039, or 40 per cent.; the stock having increased in the same period from $6,982,866 to $17,987,048, or very nearly 200 per cent., while the earnings only increased (this sum apparently included passenger earnings) from $4,446,490 51 to $5,313,074 03, or 16½ per cent., and the dividends have become very uncertain and speculative. The debt of the Cleveland and Pittsburg Railroad in 1865–66 was $7,264,435, but in 1871–72 it had increased to $15,070,493 31, or more than 100 per cent., while the earnings had increased from $2,612,186 17 to $3,980,647 29 in 1870–71 (the earnings for 1871–2 are not given), or about 16½ per cent. On the Cleveland, Columbus, Cincinnati, and Indianapolis Railway the gross earnings from 1868 to 1872 increased from $2,918,347 83 to $4,573,170 85, or say 50 per cent., while the liabilities had increased from $13,034,346 70 to $18,306,687 01, or about 40 per cent. We have examined the other roads on the list, but to state the result in figures would merely be to give a quantity of statistics which in the end show nothing at all.

It appears sufficiently, in fact, from the figures already given, that there is no fixed relation whatever between the earnings of a railroad and the amount of its stock and bonded debt. This is exactly the result we should expect *à priori*, on many accounts. The amount which a railroad is able to collect from producers and shippers does not depend upon the amount of liabilities the directors may choose to incur. If the farmers' movement had taken place a few years ago, when Fisk and Gould were in control of the Erie road, and the agitators had thundered out such denunciations as we now hear against the iniquitous attempt of the directors to exact exorbitant rates for the purpose of declaring fraudulent dividends on the preferred and common stock, every one would have laughed at them. At that time, we heard nothing about the iniquities practised upon the farmer; it was then always the stockholder who seemed on the point of being ruined. There is something laughable in the notion of Thomas A. Scott, Cornelius Vanderbilt, or such men as are connected with the management of what are called the "Boston" roads, going every year into a calculation of how much they should raise freights in order to pay a profit on watered stock, because any one who knows anything about railroads knows that, so far from calculating their freight rates beforehand, the amount of income derived from freights from year to year is a highly changeable quantity, depending, particularly in new countries, on the movement of population and the growth of business.

The question, however, as to the true theory of freights we have no intention of discussing. All that we have any desire to prove here is that the relations assumed by the railroad moralists to exist between the stock of a railroad and its freight earnings are purely imaginary, a mere chimera. In the Ohio railroads, we have shown that the ratio between the two, so far from being fixed, ranges everywhere from five to seventy-five per cent.; and, by tracing the history of two or three "investment stocks" during the last few years, we see that the figures become wilder and wilder, and that, while both earnings and debt have been growing, they have moved on widely different lines, depending (as we may see in the case of the Erie road, whose history is better known than that of some others) on conditions of no small complexity. There is about as close a relation between the debt of a railroad and the amount it is able to earn from freight as there is between the density of population and the height to which a balloon can ascend.

There is also another thing which the examination of these figures makes painfully evident—that the denunciation of the railroads for their exorbitant freight charges has been made without the slightest reflection or study of the subject. The denunciation was founded on an assumption which the very briefest examination of railroad statistics would have exploded. The seers and prophets, however, among the farmers did not think it worth while to look into the matter at all. They knew that the debts of railroads were large and constantly increasing, and they had been told that railroads were monopolies, and monopolists could do exactly what they pleased. This was quite enough for them; and out of this slender stock of information they concocted the theory that the way these monopolists managed roads was to create a gigantic debt first, and then pay the interest on it by exacting what they chose from the farmers. One would suppose, from the theories which the farmers' friends have invented for them in the past six months, that they might have come out of the brain of some Confucian philosopher in the interior of Asia, so little relation have they to the actual life of the country. Railroads are public highways at one moment, private roads the next; the building of a great railroad from ocean to ocean is a work to fire patriotic hearts so long as it is unbuilt; as soon as it is built, it becomes an invention of the devil; and within six months we hear that a new railroad from ocean to ocean is the only thing that will extricate us from the meshes in which we have involved ourselves by building the first. A few years ago the curse of railroad management was that the directors swindled the stockholders, and now it is that they swindle the farmers in the interest of the stockholders. As soon as we hear of any plan of railroad reform that looks feasible, we shall support it; but we have as yet seen no evidence that the study of the subject by those who make so much noise about it, has been even begun.

THE MORAL SIDE OF PANICS.

OUTSIDE those who are actually engaged in a financial panic, such as brokers, bankers, merchants, and manufacturers, who have loans to pay or receive, or acceptances falling due, and who are therefore too busy and too sorely beset to moralize on it, or look at it objectively, as the philosophers say, there is a large body of persons who are not immediately affected by it, such as professional men, owners of secure investments, persons in receipt of well-assured salaries, ministers, newspaper writers, speculative economists, financiers, and farmers, to whom it is a source of secret enjoyment. They are obliged, out of sympathy with their neighbors, to look blue, and probably few of them are entirely exempt from the general anxiety about the future, but, nevertheless, they are on the whole rather gratified than otherwise by the thing's having happened. In the first place, all those persons who give their attention to the currency question are divided into two great schools—the paper men and the hard-money men; and every panic affords each of them what it considers a legitimate ground of triumph. The paper men say that the crisis is due to failure to issue more paper at the proper moment, and the hard-money men ascribe it to the irredeemability of what is already issued; and each side chuckles over the convulsion as a startling confirmation of its views, and goes about calling attention to it almost gleefully. There is a similar division on the banking question. Indeed, the feud between the friends of free banking and restricted banking is fiercer than that between the two currency schools, and has raged longer, and every monetary crisis feeds the flame. It is maintained, on the one hand, that if banks were let alone by the state, their issues would be proportioned to the exact wants of business; and, on the other, that if the state would only restrict them more rigidly, business would be kept within proper limits, and all would go well. Each disputant draws from a panic about the same amount of support for his views, because in the great variety of circumstances which surround it there are always some which favor any theory of its origin. In one thing, however, both sets of observers are apt to agree thoroughly, and that is in believing the "thing will not blow over," and that "we are going to feel it for a long time." They have long foreseen it, and

have only been surprised that it did not come sooner; and they lower their voices to a hoarse whisper while telling you this.

But there is no class of observers which extracts so much solid comfort from a panic as that large body of social philosophers who are hostile to luxury, and believe that the world is going to the dogs through self-indulgence. It may even be said that two-thirds of the community, or indeed all except the very few, hold this opinion with a greater or less degree of strength. The farmers hold it strongly with regard to the city people, the artisans with regard to merchants, bankers, brokers, and manufacturers, and among the latter nearly every man is inclined to it with regard to persons of more means than himself. Moreover, it would probably astonish us if we knew how large was the number of those who fancy that their more well-to-do neighbors, if they do not belong to the category of millionaires, are living beyond their means. Every man whose own means are small, or even moderate, finds himself rather hard put to it to make both ends meet, and is constantly harassed by desires which he is unable to gratify. When he sees others gratifying them, his self-love drives him often unconsciously into ascribing it to recklessness and improvidence. Very close people, too, who have a constitutional repugnance to spending money freely for any purpose, and especially for purposes of personal enjoyment, can hardly persuade themselves that other persons who do so spend it honestly. And then behind these come the large army of lovers of simplicity and frugality on moral and religious grounds, who believe that material luxury contains a snare for the soul, and that true happiness and real virtue are not to be found in gilded saloons, and who write to the newspapers denouncing the reluctance of young people to marry on small incomes, and urging girls to begin life as their mothers began it and despise the silly chatter of those who think the luxurious surroundings more important than the union of hearts.

The occurrence of a panic fills the breasts of all these with various degrees of rejoicing. They always take a very dark view of it, and laugh contemptuously at those who consider it a "Wall Street flurry," or ascribe it to any vice in the currency or in the banking system. Extravagant living they believe to be at the bottom of it, and, like the hard-money men, they are only surprised that it has not come sooner, and they believe most firmly that it is going to effect a sort of social revolution, and bring the world more nearly to their own ideal of what it ought to be. The amount of "rottenness" which they expect it to reveal is always enormous, and they look forward to the exposure and the general coming-down of their guilty neighbors to "the hard pan" with the keenest relish. They have long, for instance, been unable to imagine where the multitude of people who live in brown-stone houses got the money to keep them. There was something wrong about it, they felt satisfied, though they could not tell what, and when the panic comes, they half fancy that the murder will out, and that there will be a great migration of fraudulent bankrupts from Fifth Avenue and its neighborhood into tenement-houses on the East and North Rivers. How Mrs. Smith, too, dressed as she did, and where Smith got the money to take her to Sharon every summer, and how Jones managed to entertain as he was doing, have often been puzzling problems, which "the crash" in the money market is at last going to solve. It is also highly gratifying to those who consider yachting a senseless amusement to reflect that the panic will probably diminish the number of yachts, and they even flatter themselves that it may stop yachting in future, and reduce the general style of living among rich young men. "We shall now," they say, "have fewer fast horses, and less champagne, and less gaudy furniture, and more honest, hard work and plain, wholesome food." They accordingly rejoice in the panic as a means adopted by Providence to bring a gluttonous and ungodly generation to its senses, and lead it back to that state of things which is known as "republican simplicity."

The curious thing about this expectation is that it has survived innumerable disappointments without apparently losing any of its vigor. It was strong after 1837, and strong after 1857, and stronger than ever after 1861. The war was surely, people said, to bring back the golden age, when all the men were prudent, sober, and industrious, and all the women simple, modest, and home-keeping. The war did nothing of the kind; in fact, it left us more extravagant, and lavish, and self-indulgent than ever; and yet the ancient and tough belief in the purifying influence of a stringent money market still lasts, and is at this moment cropping out in the moral department of a thousand newspapers.

The belief belongs to what may be called the cataclysmal theory of progress, which improves the world by sudden starts, and clings so fondly to liquor-laws, and has profound faith in specific remedies for moral and political diseases. What commercial panics and great national misfortunes do not do, particular bits of legislation are sure to do. You put something in the Constitution, or forbid something, or lose a battle, or have a "shrinkage of values," or have a cholera season, and forthwith the community turns over a new leaf, and becomes moral, economical, and sober-minded. We doubt whether this theory will ever die out, however much philosophers may preach against it, or however often facts may refute it, because it gratifies or promises to gratify one of the deepest longings of the human heart—the desire which each man feels to have a great deal of history crowded into his own little day. None of us can bear to quit the scene without witnessing the solution of the problems by which his own life has been vexed or over which he has long labored. Indeed, a great many men would find it impossible to work with any zeal to bring about results which would probably not be witnessed until they had been centuries in the tomb, and we accordingly find that the most eager reformers are apt to be those who look for the triumph of virtue by the close of the current year. Of all dreams of eager reformers, however, there is probably none more substantial than that which looks for a restoration of that vague thing called "simplicity of manners." Simplicity and economy are, of course, relative terms. The luxurious gentleman in the fourteenth century lived in a way which the well-to-do artisan in our own time would not tolerate; and when we undertake to carry people back to ancient ways of living, we find that there is hardly a point short of barbarism at which we can consistently stop. A country in which money is easily made and abounds will be one in which money will always be freely spent, and in which personal comfort and even display will occupy men's thoughts and women's a great deal. We can no more prevent this than we can prevent the growth of wealth itself; and our duty is, instead of wasting our breath in denouncing extravagance, or hailing panics as purging fires, to do what in us lies to give rich people more taste, more conscience, more sense of responsibility for curable ills, and a keener relish of the higher forms of pleasure. Extravagance—or, in other words, the waste of money on sensual enjoyment, as the production of hideous furniture or jewelry, or of barbarous display—has to be checked, not by the preaching of poor people, but by the rich man's own superiority to these things, and his own repugnance for them; and this repugnance can only be inspired by education, whether that of school and college, or that of a refined and cultivated social atmosphere. Much would be done in this direction if public opinion exacted of the owners of large fortunes that they should give their sons the best education the country affords, or, in other words, send them to college, instead of setting them up in the dry-goods business or the grocery business. A man who has made a large fortune in honest trade or industry has done his share for the material interests of the country, and he cannot contribute his share to its moral and intellectual interests by merely making donations. It is his duty, also, if he leaves children behind him, to see to it, as far as he can, that they are men who will be an addition to the general culture and taste of the nation, and who will stimulate its nobler ambition, raise its intellectual standard, quicken its love of excellence in all fields, and deepen its faith in the value of things not seen.

AN EX-GRAND-DUCAL CAPITAL.

DARMSTADT, September 6.

SPENDING the summer just past at Homburg, I have been conscious of a sort of gentle chronic irritation, of a natural sympathy with the whole race of suppressed, diminished, and mutilated sovereigns, in my frequent visits to the great dispeopled Schloss, about whose huge and awkward hulk the red roofs of the little town, as seen from a distance, cluster with an air of feudal allegiance, and which stands there as a respectable makeweight to the hardly scantier mass of the florid, fresh-colored Kursaal. It was formerly the appointed residence of the Landgrafs of the very diminutive state of Hesse-Homburg, the compact circumference of which these modest potentates might have the satisfaction of viewing, any fine morning, without a telescope, from their dressing-room windows. It is something of course to be monarch of a realm which slopes away with the slope of the globe into climates which it requires an effort to believe in and are part of the regular stock of geography; but perhaps we are apt to underestimate the peculiar complacency of a sovereign to whose possessions the blue horizon makes a liberal margin, and shows him his cherished inheritance visibly safe and sound, unclipped, unmenaced, shining like a jewel on its velvet cushion. This modest pleasure the Landgrafs of Hesse-Homburg must have enjoyed in perfection; the chronicle of their state-progresses should be put upon the same shelf as Xavier de Maistre's 'Voyage autour de ma Chambre.' Though small, however, this rounded particle of sovereignty was still visible to the naked eye of diplomacy, and Herr von Bismarck, in 1866, swallowed it as smoothly as a gentleman following a tonic régime disposes of his homœopathic pellet. It had been merged shortly before in the neighboring empire of Hesse-Darmstadt, but promptly after Sadowa it was "ceded" to Prussia. Whoever is the loser, it has not been a certain lounging American on hot

afternoons. The gates of the Schloss are now wide open, and the great garden is public property, and much resorted to by old gentlemen who dust off the benches with bandannas before sitting down, and by sheepish soldiers with affectionate sweethearts. Picturesquely, the palace is all it should be—very huge, very bare, very ugly, with great clean courts, in which round-barrelled Mecklenburg coach-horses must often have stood waiting for their lord and master to rise from table. The gateways are adorned with hideous sculptures of about 1650, representing wigged warriors on corpulent chargers, twisted pillars, and scroll-work like the "flourishes" of a country writing-master—the whole glazed over with brilliant red paint. In the middle of the larger court stands an immense isolated round tower, painted white, and seen from all the country about. The gardens have very few flowers, and the sound of the rake nowadays is seldom heard on the gravel; but there are plenty of fine trees—some really stupendous poplars, untrimmed and spreading abroad like oaks, chestnuts which would make a figure in Italy, beeches which would be called "rather good" in England; plenty of nooks and bowers and densely-woven arcades, triumphs of old-fashioned gardenery; and a large dull-bosomed pond into which the unadorned castle-walls peep from above the trees. Such as it is, it is a place a small prince had rather keep than lose, and as I sat under the beeches—remembering that I was in the fatherland of ghost-stories—I used to fancy the warm twilight was pervaded by a thin spectral influence from this slender stream of empire, and that I could hear vague supernatural *Achs!* of regret among the bushes, and see the glimmer of broad-faced phantoms at the windows. One very hot Sunday the Emperor came, passed up the main street under several yards of red and white calico, and spent a couple of days at the Schloss. I don't know whether he saw any reproachful ghosts there, but he found, I believe, a rather scanty flesh-and-blood welcome in the town. The burgomasters measured off the proper number of festoons, and the innkeepers hung out their flags, but the townsfolk, who know their new master chiefly as the grim old wizard who has dried up the golden stream which used to flow so bounteously at the Kursaal, took an "outing" indeed, like good Germans, and stared sturdily at the show, but paid nothing for it in the way of hurrahs. The Emperor, meanwhile, rattled up and down the street in his light barouche, wearing under his white eyebrows and moustache the physiognomy of a personage quite competent to dispense with the approbation of ghosts and shopkeepers. "Homburg may have ceased to be Hessian, but evidently it is not yet Prussian," I said to a friend, and he hereupon reminded me that I was within a short distance of a more eloquent memento of the energy of Bismarck, and that I had better come over and take a look at the expiring Duchy of Darmstadt. I have followed his advice, and have been strolling about in quest of impressions. It is for the reader to say whether my impressions were worth a journey of an hour and a half.

I confess, to begin with, that they form no very terrible tale—that I saw none of the "prominent citizens" confined in chains, and no particular symptoms of the ravages of a brutal soldiery. Indeed, as you walk into the town through the grand, dull, silent street which leads from the railway station, you seem to perceive that the *genius loci* has never been frighted, like *Othello's* Cyprus, from its propriety. You behold it embodied in heroic bronze on the top of a huge red sandstone column, in the shape of the Grand-Duke Louis the First, who, though a very small potentate, surveys posterity from a most prodigious altitude. He was a father to his people, and some fifty years ago he "created" the *beaux quartiers* of Darmstadt, out of the midst of which his effigy rises, looking down upon the Trafalgar Square, the Place de la Concorde, of the locality. Behind him the fine, dull street pursues its course and pauses in front of the floride façade of the Schloss. This entrance into Darmstadt responds exactly to the fanciful tourist's preconceptions, and as soon as I looked up the melancholy vista, my imagination fell to rubbing its hands and to whispering that this indeed was the ghost of a little German court-city—a mouldering Modena or Ferrara of the North. I have never known a little court-city, having, by ill-luck, come into the world a day too late; but I like to think of them, to visit them in these blank, early years of their long historic sleep, and to try and guess what they must be dreaming of. They seem to murmur, as they snore everlastingly, of a very snug little social system—of gossiping whist-parties in wainscoted grand-ducal parlors, of susceptible aulic councillors and æsthetic canonesses, of emblazoned commanders-in-chief of five hundred warriors in periwigs, of blonde young hussars all gold-lace and billet-doux, of a miniature world of jealousies and intrigues, ceremonies and superstitions—an oppressively dull world, doubtless, to your fanciful tourist if he had been condemned to spend a month in it. But Darmstadt, obviously, was not dull to its own sense in the days before Bismarck, and doubtless the pith of its complaint of this terrible man is that he has made it so. All around Duke Louis's huge red pedestal rises a series of sober-faced palaces for the transaction of the affairs of this little empire. Before each of them is a striped red-and-white sentry-box, with a soldier in a spiked helmet mounting guard. These public offices all look highly respectable, but they have an air of sepulchral stillness. Here and there, doubtless, in their echoing chambers, is to be heard the scratching of the bureaucratic quill; but I imagine that neither the home nor the foreign affairs of Hesse-Darmstadt require nowadays an army of functionaries, and that if some grizzled old clerk were to give you an account of his avocations, they would bear a family likeness to those of Charles Lamb at the India House. There are half-a-dozen droshkys drawn up at the base of the monument, with the drivers sitting in the sun and wondering sleepily whether any one of the three persons in sight, up and down the street, will be likely to want a carriage. They wake up as I approach and look at me very hard; but they are phlegmatic German drivers, and they neither hail me with persuasive cries nor project their vehicles forcibly upon me, as would certainly be the case at Modena or Ferrara. But I pass along and ascend the street, and find something that is really very Ferrarese. The grand-ducal Schloss rises in an immense mass out of a great crooked square, which has a very pretty likeness to an Italian *piazza*. Some of the houses have Gothic gables, and these have thrifty shop-fronts and a general air of paint and varnish; but there is shabbiness enough, and sun, and space, and bad smells, and old women under colored umbrellas selling cabbages and plums, and several persons hanging about in a professional manner, and, in the midst of it all, the great moated palace, with soldiers hanging over the parapets of the little bridges, and the inner courts used as a public thoroughfare. On one side, behind the shabby Gothic gables, is huddled that elderly Darmstadt to which Duke Louis affixed the modern mask of which his own effigy is the most eminent feature. A mask of some sort old Darmstadt most certainly needs, and it were well if it might have been one of those glass covers which in Germany are deposited over too savory dishes. The little crooked, gabled streets presume quite too audaciously on uncleanness being an element of the picturesque. The gutters stroll along with their hands in their pockets, as it were, and pause in great pools before crossings and dark archways to embrace their tributary streams, till the odorous murmur of their confluence quite smothers the voice of legend. There is dirtiness and dirtiness. Sometimes, picturesquely, it is very much to the point; but the American traveller in Germany will generally prefer not to enjoy local color in this particular form, for it unfavorably reminds him of the most sordid, the most squalid prose he knows—the corner-groceries and the region of the docks in his native metropolis.

The Schloss, however, is picturesque without abatement, and it seems to me a great pity there should not be some such monumental edifice in the middle of every town, to personify the municipal soul, as it were, to itself. If it can be beautiful, so much the better; but the Schloss at Darmstadt is ugly enough, and yet—to the eye—it amply serves its purpose. The two façades toward the square date from the middle of the last century, and are characteristically dreary and solemn, but they hide a great rambling structure of a quainter time: irregular courts, archways bearing away into darkness, a queer, great yellow bell-tower dating from the sixteenth century, a pile of multitudinous windows, roofs, and chimneys. Seen from the adjacent park, all this masses itself up into the semblance of a fantastic citadel. One rarely finds a citadel with a handsomer moat. The moat at Darmstadt yawns down out of the market-place into a deep verdurous gulf, with sloping banks of turf, on which tame shrubs are planted and mingled with the wild ones lodged in the stout foundations. It forms, indeed, below the level of the street, a charming little belt of grass and flowers. The Schloss possesses, moreover, as it properly should, a gallery of pictures, to which I proceeded to seek admission. I reflected, on my way, that it is of the first importance, picturesquely speaking, that the big building which, as I just intimated, should resume to its own sense the civic individuality of every substantial town, should always have a company of soldiers lounging under its portal and grouped about the guard-room. A green moat, a great archway, a guard-room opening out of its shadow, a couple of pacing sentinels, a group of loafing musketeers, a glimpse on one side of a sunny market-place, on the other of a dusky court—combine the objects as you may, they make a picture; they seem for the moment, as you pass, and pause, and glance, to transport you into legend. Of course the straddling men-at-arms who helped to render me this service were wearers of the spiked helmet. The Grand-Duke of Hesse-Darmstadt still occupies the Schloss, and enjoys a nominal authority. I don't know on what terms he holds it, nor what are the emotions of the grand-ducal breast when he sees a row of these peculiarly uncompromising little head-pieces bristling and twinkling under his windows. It can hardly be balm to his resentment to know that they sometimes conceal the flaxen pates of his own hereditary Hessians. The spiked helmets, of course, salute rigorously when this very limited monarch passes in and out; but I sometimes think it fortunate, under these circumstances, that the average German countenance has not a turn for ironical expression. The Duke, indeed,

in susceptible moods, might take an airing in his own palace without driving abroad at all. There are apparently no end to its corridors and staircases, and I found it a long journey to the picture-gallery. I spent half an hour, to begin with, in the library, waiting till the custodian was at liberty to attend to me. The half-hour, however, was not lost, as I was entertained by a very polite librarian, with a green shade over his eyes, and as I filled my lungs, moreover, with what I was in the humor to call the atmosphere of German science. It was a very warm day, but the windows were tight-closed, in the manner of the country, and had been closed, presumably, since the days of Louis the First. The air was as dry as iron filings; it smelt of old bindings, of the insides of old books; it tasted of dust and snuff. Here and there a Herr Professor, walled in with circumjacent authorities, was burying his nose in a folio; the grey light seemed to add a coating of dust to the tiers of long, brown shelves. I came away with a headache, and that exalted esteem for the German brain, as a mere working organ, which invariably ensues upon my observation of the physical conditions of German life. I don't know that I received any very distinct impression from the picture-gallery beyond that of there being such and such a number of acres more of mouldering brush-work in the world. It was a good deal like the library, terribly close, and lined for room after room (it is a long series) with tiers of dusky brown canvases, on which the light of the unwashed windows seemed to turn sallow and joyless. There are a great many fine names on the frames, but they rarely correspond to anything very fine within them, though, indeed, there are several specimens of the early German school which are quite welcome (to my mind) to their assumed "originality." Early or late, German art rarely seems to me a happy adventure. Two or three of the rooms were filled with large examples of the modern German landscape school, before which I lingered, but not for the pleasure of it. I was reflecting that the burden of French philosophy just now is the dogma that the Germans are a race of *faux bonshommes;* that their transcendental æsthetics are a mere kicking up of dust to cover their picking and stealing; and that their frank-souled naïveté is no better than a sharper's "alias." I don't pretend to weigh the charge in a general sense, but I certainly think that a good French patriot, in my place, would have cried out that he had caught the hypocrites in the act. These blooming views of Switzerland and Italy seemed to me the most dishonest things in the world, and I was puzzled to understand how so very innocent an affair as a landscape in oils could be made such a vehicle of offence. These were extremely clever; the art of shuffling away trouble has rarely been brought to greater perfection. It is evidently an elaborate system; there is a school; the pictures were all from different hands, and the precious receipt had been passed round the circle.

But why should I talk of bad pictures since I brought away from Darmstadt the memory of one of the best in the world? It forms the sole art-treasure of the place, and I duly went in quest of it; but I kept it in reserve as one keeps the best things, and meanwhile I strolled in the Herrengarten. The fondness of Germans for a garden, wherever a garden can be conceived, is one of their most amiable characteristics, and I should be curious to know how large a section of the total soil of the fatherland is laid out in rusty lawns and gravel-paths, and adorned with beechen groves and bowers. The garden-hours of one's life, as I may say, are not the least agreeable, and there are more garden-hours in German lives than in most others. But I shall not describe my garden-hour at Darmstadt. Part of them was spent in walking around the theatre, which stands close beside the Schloss, with its face upon the square and its back among the lawns and bowers. The theatre, in the little court-city of my regrets, is quite an affair of state, and the manager second only in importance to the prime-minister or the commander-in-chief. Or rather the Grand Duke is manager himself, and the leading actress, as a matter of course, his morganatic wife. The present Grand-Duke of Hesse-Darmstadt, I believe, is a zealous patron of the drama, and maintains a troupe of comedians, who doubtless do much to temper the dulness of his capital. The present theatre is simply a picturesque ruin, having been lately burned down, for all the world like an American "opera-house." But the actors have found a provisional refuge, and I have just been presented with the programme of the opening night of the winter season. I saw the rest of Darmstadt as I took my way to the palace of Prince Karl. It was a very quiet pilgrimage, and I perhaps met three people in the long, dull, proper street through which it led me. One of them was a sentinel with a spiked helmet marching before the snug little palace of the Prince Louis—the gentleman who lately married the Princess Alice of England. Another was a school-boy in spectacles, nursing a green bag full of polyglot exercises, I suppose, of whom I asked my way; and the third was the sturdy little musketeer who was trying to impart a *reflet* of authority to the neat little white house occupied by the Prince Karl. But this frowning soldier is no proper symbol of the kindly custom of the house. I was admitted unconditionally, ushered into the little drawing-room, and allowed half an hour's undisturbed contemplation of the beautiful Holbein—the famous picture of the Meyer family. The reader interested in such matters may remember the discussion maintained two years since, at the time of the general exhibition of the younger Holbein's works in Dresden, as to the respective merits—and I believe the presumptive priority in date—of this Darmstadt picture and the presentation of the same theme which adorns the Dresden Gallery. I forget how the question was settled—whether, indeed, it was settled at all, and I have never seen the Dresden picture; but it seems to me that if I were to choose a Holbein, this one would content me. It represents a sort of plainly-lovely Virgin holding her child, crowned with a kind of gorgeous episcopal crown, and worshipped by six kneeling figures—the worthy Goodman Meyer, his wife, and their progenitors. It is a wonderfully solid masterpiece, and so full of wholesome human substance that I should think its owner could go about his daily work the better—eat and drink and sleep and perform the various functions of life more largely and smoothly—for having it constantly before his eyes. I was not disappointed, and I may now confess that my errand at Darmstadt had been much more to see the *Holbeinische Gemälde* than to examine the trail of the serpent—the footprints of Bismarck.

Notes.

J. B. LIPPINCOTT & CO. have in press 'Wontus, or the Corps of Observation,' by Col. Wm. Runkel; 'The Works of Sheridan,' printed in large type, with a memoir by James P. Browne, M.D.; 'Pen Pictures of Europe,' by Elizabeth Peake, with numerous illustrations; 'Our British Portrait Painters, 1617 to 1872,' consisting of sixteen engravings on steel, with descriptive and historical notices by Edmund Ollier; and 'Pictures by Clarkson Stanfield, R.A.,' with descriptions and a biographical sketch by James Daffarne.——*Nature* of Sept. 18 begins a series of biographical sketches of eminent men of science, accompanied with portraits on steel, Faraday being the subject of the first, and the likeness of him being excellent.

—A ceremony highly characteristic of New England life took place last week in the pleasant town of Concord, the town where, according to Professor Agassiz, who was not contradicted by any of the citizens, "people live in a manner that is felt all over the country." The ceremony was the formal reception by the town of a handsome library building presented to his fellow-citizens by Mr. William Munroe. Among the gentlemen present were Mr. R. W. Emerson, Judge Hoar, Mr. George Hoar, M.C., Senator Sumner, and other persons of prominence. Brief speeches were made by several of them, Mr. Emerson speaking longest, but not long. Mr. Frederick Hudson gave a few facts about the Concord libraries; that in 1786 a library company was formed; that in 1805 there was a Concord Library of 250 books, which, in 1830, was supplemented by a Social Library of 800 books, and this again by a Town Library, like that enriching so many Massachusetts towns, and which on the day of the ceremonies contained 10,000 books. These the town authorities made over to the Trustees of the new library, which by the first of January will contain in all eleven thousand books—probably four books to each inhabitant, without counting private collections. It will also contain what few New England libraries can show, that is, original manuscripts by celebrated authors, of whom some of the most celebrated were among its own village residents. These papers were the gift of Mr. James T. Fields, and comprise autograph copies of Emerson's chapter on 'Culture,' Thoreau's on 'Walking,' Lowell's 'Cathedral,' Holmes's 'Dorothy L.,' one of the best of that gentleman's works, and Mr. Motley's 'Address before the Parker Fraternity in 1868.' Nothing of Hawthorne's was among the manuscripts. Mr. Emerson, in making his remarks, was conversational but not desultory, for books were his theme throughout. He referred to the bookish sources of culture which the inhabitants of Concord had from the beginning had within their reach. Of these the minister's library was one; the school, founded so long ago as 1680, another; another, of course, the quality of the inhabitants who settled there. From a book written by Concord's first minister, Peter Buckley, Mr. Emerson quoted a passage worthy to be remembered: "There is no people but will strive to excel in something. What can we excel in except in holiness? If we look to numbers, we are the fewest; if we look to strength, we are the weakest; if to riches, we are the poorest of the people of God over the whole world. We cannot excel or so much as equal people in these things, and if we come short in grace and holiness too, we are the most despicable people under heaven. Strive ye therefore herein to excel, and suffer not this crown to be taken away from you." From the learned John Selden Mr. Emerson quoted with approval the saying, that "the man who strives to make himself a different thing from other men by much reading

gains this, his chiefest good, that among all fortunes he has something to comfort himself withal." Montesquieu also was cited in laudation of books; and Napoleon, Kepler, a Shaker whom Mr. Emerson once met, a lady whose journal he had read, the great Duke of Marlborough, Mohammed, and Dr. Johnson, appear in the curious juxtaposition in which the great and small of various countries and ages are not unusually seen in Mr. Emerson's writings.

—A writer in the Hartford *Courant* has recently been examining the Connecticut colonial records covering a period from May, 1726, to May, 1735, and some of the things which struck his attention are interesting and suggestive. Thus, the Assembly which met at Hartford in 1726 is believed to have afforded one of the earliest known examples of our American system of legislative "deadheading," for to a Hartford man who held the franchise of the ferry it granted leave to sell spirituous liquors aboard his boat, on the condition that to persons in the public service he should remit all charges. Tobacco in those days was probably less in favor in the Connecticut Valley than it is at present, for an ordinance of this same Assembly provides that "if any member shall presume to smoak tobacco in the chamber wherein they now commonly sit, at any time whatsoever, he shall pay a fine of 6d. for each offence." The Hartford paper, mindful that this month the question is to be settled whether New Haven shall continue to share with Hartford the honor of being the seat of government, requests attention to the utter recklessness of the old Assemblies when they met at New Haven. Meeting at Hartford in August, 1727, to receive news of the death of King George I. and the accession of King George II., the council ordered that the regiment of Hartford, Windsor, and Wethersfield be turned out in the afternoon, that each soldier be allowed half a pound of powder to burn on the occasion, and that in the evening there should be illuminations, they being "much more honorable signals of joy" than bonfires, which were forbidden. But afterwards, in October, when the Assembly met at New Haven, King George II. had to be proclaimed over again, and it is on this occasion that the Hartford man notices the extravagance which appears to be inherent in the New Haven atmosphere. At this second proclamation the Assembly economize on the powder, indeed, for they cut down the allowance to a quarter of a pound a man; but they order the sheriff to procure, at the charge of the colony, ten pounds of candles with which to illuminate the court-house, and furthermore to procure one barrel of good wine, also at the charge of the colony, and to have the same in the court-house against the time of the illumination, the said wine to be for the refreshment of the Assembly. At this time, or somewhat later (1730), as is to be learned from an appendix to the seventh volume of the Connecticut Colonial Records, the Board of Trade puts various queries to town officers (?) and other persons, and receives much useful information. Thus there were then in the colony 38,000 citizens, about 700 Indian and negro slaves, and 1,600 free Indians, who made mischief by reason of their idleness and their excessive drinking of "rhum." The colony had a small army of militia, which included every male inhabitant between 16 years old and 55, and numbered 8,500 men. The French in Canada might have to be fought, for they had made themselves very troublesome, "and since they are settled on the River Saint Lawrence and on the Masasipi to the mouth of it, boast that in time they will drive us all into the sea." As for the Spaniard, he "has not settled in North America to the eastward of Cape Florida, as we know of, which is very distant from us." There is one item, says the *Courant*, which should not be overlooked: the total annual revenue was £4,000, and of this sum £1,000 was expended in supporting schools—a fact which goes some way towards explaining the present ownership of the Masasipi.

—The first half of Fuseli's sentence on Northcote—that he was an angel at an ass, and an ass at an angel—will be thought by many to be praise none too high for the distinguished animal painter whose decease marked the beginning of the month. Yet it would certainly have been a pity if Landseer had created a school, or left an enduring impress upon the zoölogical department of his country's, or any country's, fine arts. What he knew about the feelings, intelligence, and moral powers of animals he was never content to state simply, but would hasten to lose sight of it in an ill-judged exaggeration. It might have been in his power, with his opportunities and tastes, to have added something to what is known about the limits and expression of instinct. Landseer worked in a coarser way: he chose such human emotions as might be cleverly represented in the persons of animals, and painted his quadrupeds in illustration of those emotions. His most applauded figures are more like men degraded to animals, than like animals who have approached, in the direct line of character, nearest to the manners of men. He represents a dog as a judge, or an attorney, or a butcher, or as the negro slave Uncle Tom. This sort of ingenuity is amusing enough in Grandville's drawings of *animals painted by themselves;* but only a mind of a certain commonness, we take it, would care to express it in elaborate oil compositions. Decamps, it is true, has left some painted grotesques of monkeys exercising human functions; but they are kept within the proper limits of *fantaisies*, and are, besides, endowed with light graces of color and effect that are wanting to Landseer's style. The latter's learned-dog exhibitions, where we are surprised not to meet the red coat and cap and feather of the canine theatre, have entered into a great number of our houses—thanks to the engravings, in a fine, showy style, by the artist's brother, Thomas Landseer. The paintings, which do not contain the merit suggested by the plates, are accumulated at Manchester in great numbers. It was Landseer's solid way of insisting on his pleasantries, his habit of making great historical pictures out of designs seemingly meant for *Punch*, that struck the Continentals when he broke his insular reserve and entered into European competition at Paris in 1855. "The somewhat exaggerated nicety of drawing," then said About, "the crudity of the color, an indescribable rigidity in the manner, and especially the entire absence of unpremeditated candor (*manque de naïveté*), give this work less charm than it merits, and make it amuse the eyes without satisfying the taste." Twin companion with Landseer's humor was his sentiment, an attribution of human consciousness to quadrupeds. His emotional animals are set arbitrarily in the scene just where one expects the human subject to be; if he gave his weeping dogs handkerchiefs and hatbands, he could hardly express their theatrical character more plainly. As if to show how coarse a trick, and how cheaply played, was this super-sensitiveness of Landseer's animals, when he came to have to do, in the Trafalgar Square bronzes, with brute forms that might properly have been elevated, in some symbolical and patriotic sense, beyond the proper consciousness of the beast, he subsided at once, and endowed his lions with the true lamblike unobtrusiveness seen in the menagerie. Sir Edwin was an artist of culture, having gone deeply into comparative anatomy in early life, at the instigation of Haydon. He could paint the figure and portrait creditably; his *Titania* is a good model of a stout, serviceable English girl. He was in immense request for sporting portraits and scenes of the hunt, his first great specimen in this line being an equestrian piece introducing the Duchess of Bedford, with a success which had a marked effect on the painter's career. His baronetcy came in 1850; he received at Paris, in 1855, one of ten medals of honor instituted for exceptional merit. His death, at the age of seventy-two, was preceded by a gradual eclipse of the faculties, extending back over several years. He died unmarried.

—M. de Candolle is not the only European naturalist who believes that English will eventually become the common scientific language of the world. Dr. T. Thorell, Professor of Zoölogy in the University of Upsala, who, though a native of Sweden, has lately published a work in English ('Remarks on Synonyms of European Spiders'), also holds this opinion, not only because English "is far more widely diffused over every part of the earth than any other culture-language, and that already two of the greatest nations publish in it the results of their scientific labors, but because English, on account of its simple grammar, and as combining in nearly the same degree Teutonic and Roman elements, is by most Europeans more easily acquired than any other language." Dr. Thorell is even so radical as to propose to deny to the authors of works written in little-understood languages, like the Slavic, the credit of priority in scientific description or discovery. It is, of course, quite improbable that any such conspiracy as this should ever be entered into by the savans of Western Europe. Against it there is the obvious consideration that, in every case of disputed priority, the chances of the French, German, or English scientist's getting the ear of posterity and monopolizing its monuments are vastly greater than those (say) of the Bohemian or the Magyar, not to speak of the enjoyment of the fame of his discovery during his own lifetime. Moreover, it ill accords with the catholicity of science to impose a penalty on the accident of birth, and science might easily be the loser, as Dr. Thorell's reviewer in *Nature* points out, by compelling any one who prefers to write in the tongue in which he can think most clearly and best express his thoughts, to abandon the vernacular for a foreign medium of communication with the scientific world.

—The war with France had the usual effect in Prussia of increasing the emigration to foreign countries. It was so a hundred years ago, it was so after Sadowa. In the period 1860-65, but little more than 1.4 per cent. of the population emigrated; in the next six years, however, 3.7 per cent. (66,064 persons). In 1872, Prussia lost 64,511 inhabitants, of whom about one-sixth were liable to military duty. For this and other obvious reasons the Government has taken alarm, and has resorted to such repressive measures as withdrawing the reduced fares previously allowed to emigrants carried over railroads belonging to the state, and prohibiting any but Prussian citizens from acting as emigration agents. Meantime, Herr Bödiker, of the Royal Statistical Bureau, has published a survey of Prussian emigration for

the twenty-seven years 1844–71, which shows the total number of emigrants to have been at least 641,657. The true number is undoubtedly greater, owing to the fact of the general neglect nowadays to inform the authorities by taking out emigration papers (*Entlassungsurkunden*). Ten years ago, not a quarter part of the emigrants left their native land without these documents; now not one-half take the trouble to ask for them. The immigration statistics of the United States on the one hand, and of Prussia on the other, and the difference between the births and deaths in the latter country, furnish a means of controlling the official records of emigration, and make it certain that they fall short of the reality. The bulk of the emigration has been from the six eastern provinces, they having lost 322,464, against 209,347 from the two western, and 109,846 from the three newly acquired provinces. A remarkably heavy emigration has taken place since 1867 from Schleswig-Holstein, Hanover, and Hesse-Nassau—provinces having but 18 per cent. of the total population of the state, yet having sent out nearly half of the emigrants (44.3 per cent.) from 1867 to 1871. In the years 1862–1871, about 60 per cent. of all the emigrants were males; heads of families and single persons constituted 50 per cent.; and generally it appears that emigration takes place chiefly by whole families. Three-fourths nearly were adults, and if this ratio can be applied to the emigration since 1844, then Prussia has certainly lost over 300,000, and probably 400,000, citizens, capable of bearing arms, and all Germany 1,000,000. Moreover, in the years 1870–1871, those liable to military service formed one-fifth of all the Prussian emigrants. The assurance of peace which the Empire is now giving to Europe is shown in the fact that whereas in the last six months of 1872 the German immigration at the port of New York amounted to 78,385 persons, it fell off in the first six months of 1873 to 67,334.

—Some months ago the *World* printed a report of an "interview" with Prince Bismarck, which represented him as making such extraordinary statements as that his political activity had been and would be directed towards annihilating the idea of God, substituting for religion the idea of devotion to the state, and overthrowing Christianity by attacking the Pope and the Jesuits. There were two ways of accounting reasonably for the appearance of this mass of nonsense: we could suppose that the *World's* correspondent was engaged in hoaxing his readers, or we could suppose that Jesuitism had instigated the publication. This latter conjecture may appear too ridiculous; but Prince Bismarck, in reply to a German gentleman of this city, who asked him if he had ever avowed sentiments so nefarious, says that the phrase about "crushing Rome in order to crush Christianity shows plainly the source and purpose of the calumny." And we may add that, despite the Prince's denial and the *World's* expressions of regret, there is a Roman Catholic journal of this city which still actually persists in believing and saying that Bismarck did say what he now chooses to disavow, and that the crushing of Christianity is really his policy. To believe this is next door to inventing it, and we may readily imagine a German Catholic, down in the heat of the battle, to have made the crazy tale out of whole cloth. A barefaced invention Bismarck calls it; and it was one almost everywhere scouted as too wildly ill-invented to answer any purpose whatever. The *World*, however—which has had some very remarkable foreign correspondents in several of the European capitals, Paris and London included—professed confidence in its correspondent at Berlin down to a few days ago. It now promises that, if deceived again, that gentleman at least shall not be the deceiver.

—Dr. Henry Schliemann, whose excavations in the neighborhood of ancient Troy have been so liberally rewarded with precious discoveries, is now engaged in publishing a narrative of his three years' labors, to be accompanied by a quarto atlas containing 213 photographs, representing more than 3,600 of the more than 100,000 alleged Trojan relics secured by him; containing also six plans constructed by engineers, which will, we suppose, indicate the extent and laying out of the three cities revealed by his digging on the same site. Having finished his undertaking in this quarter, and being desirous of making similar excavations (always at his own expense) in Greece, particularly on the sites of Mycenæ and Olympia, he made a proposition to the Greek Government by which he should be permitted to retain possession of the objects found as long as he lived, in return for his building a palace in Athens expressly for their preservation, to be called the Schliemann Museum, and to become the property of the nation with all its contents after his death. A more liberal offer could scarcely have been devised, and it was accepted by vote of Parliament, but "pocketed" by the Government; and Schliemann, with less than the Sibyl's pertinacity, renounced at once and for ever the thought of making excavations in Greece, and transferred his offer, *mutatis mutandis*, to the Italian Government, from whom it met with a very cordial reception, and Magna Græcia was suggested as the most promising field of operations. Dr. Schliemann has indicated his preference for Palermo or Naples as the seat of his future Museum.

—The stuff of which "pilgrims" are made in these days may be gathered from the perusal of some of the "pious books" which have been widely circulated in France. One is by a certain Abbé Gaume, is published with the approval of Rome, and in the course of two years has passed through more than twenty editions. It is a catechism designed for adults, and teaches, among other things (to the everlasting confusion of the solar myth), that the sun, the moon, and the stars were created after the light, in order that they might not become objects of worship, and that one of God's reasons for making the sea was to enable missionaries by means of it to visit foreign parts. The same author has written another work in which Protestants, infidels, Jews, Mohammedans, savages, and cannibals are classed under one head with bears, dogs, crocodiles, etc., leaving the true Catholics apart by themselves, with no middle ground between these two categories. A third edifying specimen of pilgrim literature is the Reverend Father Huguet's 'Les Faits surnaturels de la vie de Pie IX.,' which in 1871 had quickly reached a fourth edition. The French reader is here assured that the miracles actually performed by the present Pope are innumerable, consisting mainly, however, of conversions and cures. His longevity is explained by the fact that many monks and nuns have vowed their own lives to prolong his, death generally ensuing with commendable celerity upon the completion of the vow. His power over those who despise his sacred person, even at a distance, is illustrated by the case of a resident of Francavilla, in the province of Lecce, who maliciously named his dog Pius IX. One July day this reprobate was amusing himself with making the animal stand up against the wall like a soldier, taking his name in vain, and otherwise mocking the venerable pontiff, when the dog, "as if indignant at such insolence," sprang at his master's throat, threw him down, and, when driven away by the family, left him bathed in blood, to die shortly, deprived of the consolations of religion.

THE RENAISSANCE.*

MR. PATER, in a book which on the whole deserves the epithet fascinating, shows a power of expression and a subtlety of analysis which at first reading disposed us to admit him to a place among the best critics; but when we return to study out the meaning unfolded and measure our acquisitions, we find we must change the word. Much is enfolded and much is told that is admirable in telling, but not so much of the theme as of Mr. Pater himself; of him we obtain a very distinct and pleasing notion in general, but of his nominal subject we hardly know more than before we read his 'Studies.' The author is too much of an artist to be a good critic, and hardly attempts to disguise the fact that he is more interested in the perfection of his own style than in the mysteries of the art on which his studies are based. In fact, he sets out with a fallacy which shows clearly enough that "diletto" rather than "cognosco" is the root of his thinking. "Such discussions [on beauty in the abstract, etc.] help us very little to enjoy what has been well done in art or poetry, to discriminate between what is more and what is less excellent in them, or to use words like beauty, excellence, art, or poetry with more meaning than they would otherwise have. Beauty, like all other qualities presented to human experience, is relative, and the definition of it becomes unmeaning and useless in proportion to its abstractness. To define beauty, not in the most abstract, but in the most concrete terms possible, not to find a universal formula for it, but the formula which expresses most adequately this or that special manifestation of it, is the aim of the true student of æsthetics." And having thus broadly stated his creed, which is that of most dilettanti, viz., that there is no standard, that there are no fundamental principles in art, but simply recognitions of personal sympathies and expressions of personal delights, he goes on to define with a logic not so successful as his rhetoric what the æsthetic critic has to do with.

The simple fact is that for want of definitions, formulas, abstract terms, and all those precise and "metaphysical" distinctions which our author holds in defiance, if not in abhorrence, the criticism of art is all afloat—is in effect nothing but the unreasoning and generally unreasonable expression of individual preferences or tastes, which may to-day be adopted as the standard from the personal prestige of the holder and to-morrow be rejected because another has supplanted him; and in this field he is king who has most power of persuasion, not he who has most reason. The habitual critic is simply a dilettante with more or less experience of art, with a set of rules which are pure assumption, and which contribute in no degree to establish taste on a sounder basis. What is wanted to render criticism a science and make even dilettantism certain and progressive, is a thorough nomenclature of art and definition of all its qualities in the abstract; and a declaration that any such attainments are either hopeless or

* 'Studies in the History of the Renaissance. By Walter H. Pater.' London and New York: Macmillan & Co.

useless, or in any degree inapplicable, is a confession of individual incapacity to attain to or make use of them.

To assert that art and beauty have not laws capable of rigid definition, and as rigid application to all cases which can ever come under them, is equivalent to asserting that there is no such thing as beauty, and that art is whatever any one chooses to call it. Art, speaking in the distinctive sense of that term in which it is used when considered in reference to the expression of an ideal, is purely and only the metrical, rhythmical, harmonic (what the Greeks termed musical, pertaining to any of the Muses), or concordant expression of emotion, whether it be in poetry, painting, music, dancing, or any other conceivable way of opening the soul to influences above and beyond it; and to say that any of the arts thereby evolved is incapable of as absolute analysis and as abstract definition as music or color, is to confess a voluntary and factitious limit to the powers of the human intellect. The arts are but different forms of the same thing, and the analogies are so absolute and coherent that to have analyzed one is to have shown the way to analyze the whole.

It is true that in the moment of the enjoyment of any art-expression the analysis is, if not impossible, at least destructive of the completeness of the enjoyment, except to highly trained and peculiarly fitted minds; and the recognition of this half-truth is what Mr. Pater, like almost all dilettante critics, means by his statement. The absolute definition and embodiment in laws (not rules) of the principles which lie at the root of art is not only possible, but as indispensable to its complete and final development as the laws which govern the heavenly bodies are to the calculation of eclipses. It does not follow that art can be evoked by knowledge or application of rules, but that it cannot be fully understood and most effectively cultivated without that knowledge and application.

Mr. Pater takes with the word *renaissance* a liberty which, though very common, is historically and logically inadmissible. The word does not mean a revival, but a new birth, and was applied to a phase of art which its votaries believed to be the re-creation of Greek art. Its proper and technical meaning is in the resumption of classical *forms* of art-expression, as seen in Raphael's later work, Michael Angelo, and the indefinite horde who followed, amongst whom we notice most commonly Poussin, etc., etc.—an art which, far from being a new birth or even a revival, was, in its substitution of the borrowed and imitated themes which it effected, in reality the decay of art—that inevitable decay which accompanies the substitution of a reflected and imitative enthusiasm for genuine emotions which compel their own rhythmical expression and develop their own forms. If the term "renaissance" is in any way applicable to Italian art, it belongs to Giotto, who first went frankly to the original springs of art, the pure beauty of nature; but it is very doubtful if there was ever any suspense or renaissance in art, since when it subsided in one form it broke out in another, and the spirit was always the same, and immortal. A peculiar national temperament develops one form; change the nature of its emotions and the form of the art changes; but so long as there is genuine and lofty emotion, there will be art, be there schools or no schools. Nature is herself the great mistress—not, as the German critics have it, external and material nature, but the universal human-divine nature, in which are born and nourished every aspiration and emotion the embodiment of which becomes art.

The 'Studies' have the coherence which might be expected from separate essays on kindred topics, but written without any central thought; they are full of thought and suggestion, and abound in evidence of culture and accomplishment, but they must be taken not as a book, but each on its distinct merits. The last on Winckelmann is perhaps one of the completest expressions of the dilettante view of that celebrated art-writer which we can expect to have. It takes Winckelmann's side of Winckelmann, who was an art-critic in the sense that German painters are idealists when they *try* to be ideal, who confounded artifice with art, the form of things with their substance, and, like all worshippers of the renaissance, died in the worship of form and accident, not of substance and law. He was a narrow-minded man, whose nature was only open to reflected (and hence artificial) emotions, and the rigid forms of Greek art appealed to his narrow side—the nature which was the source of Greek art he had no eye for. He sought for the secret of the perfection of that art in a hypothetical and visionary physical perfection amongst the Greeks instead of where it really was, in the serene and exalted character of the Greek intellect, healthy and happy, full of sublime passions, with a remarkable freedom from sensuality, with a tranquil faith, and lives singularly free from what we may call worldly ambitions. If the whole known *répertoire* of Greek sculpture were alive and walking amongst us to-day, we should no more develop great sculptors than we do, because the temper in which that was conceived and born does not exist in modern times. This Winckelmann and his followers do not comprehend; they do not see that all the copying and imitation of antique statues which doomsday will permit will no more make an artist than the study of Greek hexameters will make another Homer. Art that looks back ceases to be art, and becomes artifice; a renaissance that is the renewal of dead forms is not a new birth, it is a galvanic resuscitation; and the modern sympathy (like Winckelmann's) with the Renaissance so-called, is but a morbid abhorrence of life and health, and fondness for death and artifice.

But we must not leave Mr. Pater with our differences alone adjusted. Differ in opinion with him we must, and continually, yet with profound respect for his opinion. The essay on "Pico Della Mirandola" is so full of genuine appreciation, so complete, so comprehensive, that, without having previous knowledge of Mirandola, one feels that, if living, he would say that Mr. Pater has told him better than he could have told himself. And generally the essays on literary themes are better than those on artistic (using the word in its narrow, common sense), for the simple reason that without being to a certain extent an artist it is absolutely impossible to be a comprehensive critic of art. In poetry, Mr. Pater is one of the cognoscenti; in painting, as we have said, only a dilettante. His conception of literary qualities seems clear and definite, but that of pictorial character evasive and indefinite, like a picture drawn by an untrained talent, with a vague, unincisive touch. But in whichever theme, his power, individuality, and charm of style are such as to make his book one of the best acquisitions which art-literature has made of late.

TRENCH'S PLUTARCH.*

AUTHORS have their ups and their downs, their ins and outs of fashion. We see this tendency conspicuously exemplified in Plutarch. After enjoying a high reputation for ages, he was unceremoniously cast down from his pride of place during the present century, and there now seems to be a chance of his restoration. It would not be fair to assign such changes of public favor wholly to caprice or to the sentiment of reaction, though both these may have their share in producing the result. The principal cause of these shifts and currents in the *aura popularis* we take to be that the subjects which an author treats are of more or less importance at different epochs. Thus, the early fathers of the church had been well-nigh consigned to oblivion by Protestants when, in the fourth decade of this century, the English Tractarian movement brought them into notice again. About the same time, Plutarch was temporarily shelved by the influence of that sceptic and iconoclastic school of history which, if it did not originate, at least had its first fair start with Niebuhr. The famous biographer was inaccurate, and gossipy, and a copyist, "no authority" on matters of fact—that settled him. But another twenty years passed, and the bold speculations of Mill, Buckle, and others aroused a lively interest in the history of ethics. And thus Plutarch reappears, though in a somewhat different capacity, more as the moralist than as the biographer.

Some two years ago, when speaking of the Boston edition of the 'Morals,' we noticed the vigorous rally of heathen morality in Plutarch's day, and the striking circumstance that it seemed entirely independent of Christianity. Plutarch himself is a perfect specimen of this independence. Not only is there not, in all his voluminous writings, any direct mention of our faith, but there is scarcely a passage from which the cleverest ingenuity can extract a possible allusion. Now, here the question naturally occurs: Was the silence of the philosophers founded on *bona-fide* ignorance, or did they, like the Jew Josephus, purposely ignore what was too great a puzzle for them? It would be absurd to suppose Josephus ignorant of the foundation and progress of Christianity; but he could say nothing about it to please himself or those for whom he wrote, and he therefore found it convenient to pass over the subject *sicco pede*. Can we predicate anything like this of the heathen writers? Scarcely. The religion which circulated among the despised and needy classes had not yet reached their aristocratic heights. If they heard of it at all, it was as a Jewish sect, and the Jews were to them a set of contemptible and disagreeable fanatics. How the philosophers treated objects which they considered below them may be seen in Plutarch's relations to Latin literature. When the Greeks became the political vassals of the Romans, they took their revenge in the republic of letters. Every Roman who aspired to be well educated learned Greek, but no Greek gentleman thought of learning Latin. Plutarch read only what was absolutely necessary to his purpose as a biographer of Romans. He was obliged to consult histories and memoirs; but from all the Latin poets there is precisely *one* quotation in all his 'Lives,' and we have no reason to suppose that he had more than a hearsay knowledge of Virgil or Ovid. If we want a motive and nucleus of the new morality, we must look for them to the good emperors of that era. However much the individual may wither in the

* 'Plutarch: his Life, his Lives, and his Morals. Four Lectures by Richard Chenevix Trench, Archbishop of Dublin.' London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1873.

present age—and some of us are disposed to think that a Bismarck may still count for something—it is certain that in those days the power of a single man for good or ill might be tremendous.

At the same time, it is not absolutely impossible that Christianity may have influenced the philosophers without their knowing it. A man of our own period may be affected, through a third party, by a writer whose works he has never read, and of whose very name he is ignorant. And similarly, through some despised source, by means of women or slaves, the kingdom which cometh not by observation may have penetrated to the *edita templa* of the Epicurean, and pierced the armor of the Stoic. But this is only a supposition; the negative facts point the other way; and, on the whole, we think it better, for reasons given on a former occasion, to acknowledge as a fact the independence of the later heathen morality.

Archbishop Trench's brief and pithy course of four lectures is perhaps the most promising step yet made towards the rehabilitation of Plutarch. At the first casual glance, we remark that more than half the volume is devoted to the 'Morals'—that is, the miscellaneous writings; and that for these the lecturer has adopted the translation of Philemon Holland, who wrote at the beginning of the seventeenth century—a translation not without very positive merits of its own, but (as we might partly suspect from its age) full of Gallicisms, of Latinisms, and of all manner of archaisms.* And speaking of style, we must remark that the usual carefulness with which the lectures are composed was surely nodding on page 47, where we have this oddly confused clause:

"Extraordinary as the account may seem, in all likelihood it is scarcely an exaggeration; *being, as Archimedes probably was*, the most inventive genius in his own line of things whom [that] the world has ever seen."

Although it does not necessarily follow that a biographer or lecturer admires his hero, such is generally the case, and the reader is prepared to find in Archbishop Trench a eulogist of Plutarch. Sometimes we think he stretches a point in favor of the Sage of Chæronea. Thus he dwells on Shakespeare's liberal use of the 'Lives' in 'Coriolanus' and 'Julius Cæsar.' But, to go no further, Byron made wholesale pillage of a very ordinary novelette for his 'Werner.' Again, while wisely giving up Plutarch's accuracy and critical authority, he greatly commends his love of gossip and anecdote, because little sayings and doings throw great light on character. Up to a certain point, this is true; but a biography made up of little sayings and doings, or chiefly dependent on them for its value, seems to us as great a mistake as a history constructed on the Michelet and Froude system out of petty documents. Finally, not to multiply our instances, he defends, or at least excuses, the universally condemned 'De Malignitate Herodoti' on the ground of local patriotism. Plutarch was a Theban, and could not forgive the great Greek historian for recording so plainly certain ignoble parts which the Thebans had played in Greek history. Surely it was not the fault of Herodotus that he did not live till the Thebans did better, and could not foresee Epaminondas. But after all, there is enough genuine and indisputable material for praise, which we do no begrudge. Thus, whether the logical conclusion implied be altogether tenable or not, the heartiness of this outburst against the virtual atheism of some of the Epicureans has a grand ring about it:

"If you travel through the world, well, you may find cities without walls, without literature, without kings, moneyless, and such as desire no coin; which know not what theatres or public halls of bodily exercise mean; but never was there, nor ever shall there be, any one city seen without temple, church, or chapel; without some god or other; which useth no prayers nor oaths, no prophecies and divinations, no sacrifices, either to obtain good blessings or to avert heavy curses and calamities. *Nay, methinks a man should sooner find a city built in the air, without any plot of ground whereon it is seated, than that any commonwealth altogether void of religion and the opinion of the gods should either be first established or afterwards preserved and maintained in that estate.* This it is that containeth and holdeth together all human society; this is the foundation, prop, and stay of all."

Scarcely less forcible is this protest against their withdrawal from public life:

"Surely impossible it is that they should ever have their part in any great royal and magnificent joy who have made choice of a close, private life within doors, never meddling with the affairs of common weal—a life sequestered from all offices of humanity, far removed from any instinct of honor or desire to gratify others. For the soul, I may tell you, is no base and small thing, extending her desires only to that which is good to be eaten, as do those cuttle-fishes, which stretch their claws as far as to their meat, and no further. Such appetites as these are most quickly cut off with satiety and filled in a moment; but when the virtues and desires of the mind tending to virtue and honesty, to honor also and contentment of conscience, are once grown to their vigor and perfection, they have not for their limit only the length and time of man's life, but surely the desire of honor and the affection to profit the society of men, comprehending all eternity, striveth still to go forward to such action and beneficial deeds as yield infinite pleasure that cannot be expressed."

On the whole, we may say that the Archbishop is a potent auxiliary to the movement in behalf of Plutarch, and also that his 'Lectures' are in themselves agreeable and interesting. Sometimes, too, they show a more than clerical innocence which is extremely touching, as when he pronounces Galepsus in Eubœa, where the guests, "having nothing else to do of great importance, pass the most of the time in devising and discoursing together of good letters and matters of learning," to be wonderfully like a German spa of the present day.

* Such as these pleasant verbs (quoted by the Archbishop): to *baddle*, to *dade*, to *frapple*, to *maffle*, to *thrumble*. In defiance of chronology, Professor Freeman, and the *Saturday Review*, one is tempted to dispose of these queer words by calling them semi-Saxon.

NEW GEOGRAPHIES AND ATLASES.*

BY common consent, geography stands next in importance to arithmetic in elementary schools, and hence an immense amount of time is devoted to it; but much of this time is sheer waste. College examiners are agreed, we believe, that boys, well trained in other respects, are often absurdly deficient in geography; teachers are disappointed at the poor results which follow long-continued lessons; and adult men and women, beginning to read, think, travel, and investigate, are made painfully conscious of their ignorance of the globe. The fault, we are persuaded, is largely due to the current text-books, most of which, like the common English grammars, are far behind the position of modern science. They present innumerable facts, interminable lists of places, and summaries of productions, but with very little philosophical arrangement, and with meagre science. Their use does indeed train the memory, so that the names and positions of lakes, rivers, capes, towns, etc., are remembered; and this is certainly important. Many teachers believe that there is a time, indeed, when the mind of a child has an extraordinary receptivity for geographical nomenclature, and when the finding of places upon the map has all the charm of a game of hide-and-seek. But this learning of place-words and positions is not geography, though it may be "fun."

As a corrective of these defects in existing methods, there have been many recent attempts to introduce new school-books under the inviting name of "Physical Geographies." Some of these, like Herschel's essay, Mrs. Carpenter's compendium, Réclus's brilliant treatises, Ritter's translated lectures, and Lavallée's military geography, though worthy of high commendation, are ill adapted to American schools, and, consequently, are but little used as class-room manuals. Others have been written to order by those who were themselves quite unacquainted with the spirit and modes of modern geographical science, and compiled their works from pre-existing and often antiquated sources of information; so that in many places the mere name of a physical geography is held in abhorrence. In contrast with the English and American geographical manuals, the German school-books and atlases are remarkably good. Writers imbued with the spirit of modern research, and well informed respecting the most recent investigations into the structure of the globe, have provided the German schools with excellent treatises; but they have been so disproportionately full on European, and especially on German, geography, that it has not been worth while to translate them.

Now at length we have an original American treatise, the new 'Physical Geography' of Professor Guyot, which has some noteworthy peculiarities. In the first place, it is the work of one who is a master in his specialty, so that his book is an original treatise, and not a translation or a compilation. We have many excellent geologists among the scientific writers of this country—Agassiz, Dana, J. D. Whitney, Hunt, Le Conte, and others—who may be considered as well qualified as Guyot to present a view of the structure of the globe, from the geologist's point of view; but structure is only one of the aspects which the scientific geographer must regard. The variable as well as the constant must be studied, the laws of temperature and climate, the movement of winds and seas, the distribution of plants and animals, the ethnological characteristics of mankind—everything which makes up the life of the globe, and illustrates the subserviency of the earth to its inhabitants, must be considered, as well as the rocky forms of continent and island. On these varied subjects, in their relation to human society and the progress of culture, Professor Guyot is perhaps the highest authority in the land. He has assiduously devoted his admirable powers to these themes for more than a quarter of a century, first under the best of teachers in Germany, and then as an independent investigator. Before he came to

* 'Physical Geography. By Arnold Guyot.' New York: Scribner, Armstrong & Co.

'First Steps in Geography. Intended to accompany the Atlas of the 'Great Outline.' By Theodore S. Fay.' New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1873.

'Descriptive Hand-Atlas of the World. By J. Bartholomew.' In 26 Parts. Philadelphia: T. Ellwood Zell. 1871-73.

'The International Atlas, consisting of Sixty-five Maps: Thirty-five of Modern Geography, and Thirty of Historical and Classical Geography. By William F. Collins, LL.D., and Leonhard Schmitz, LL.D.' With copious indices. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1873. Imp. 8vo.

this country, his beautiful monograph on the Neufchatel lake-bottom, and his famous investigations respecting the glaciers of Switzerland, had established his place among naturalists. Here he became an early promoter of the meteorological observations of the Smithsonian Institution, and a special investigator of the height and structure of the Appalachian mountain systems, the peaks of which, in the White Mountains of New Hampshire and the Black Mountains of North Carolina, as well as in the lesser elevations of Vermont, the Adirondacks, the Catskills, etc., he accurately measured with the barometer. His studies have always led him to look at the humanitarian side of science—the bearing of natural phenomena upon civilization and the development of races and peoples. His work, moreover, is the result of great familiarity with American schools. Owing to the want of good text-books, and to his great powers of inspiration as a lecturer, he has been a constant speaker on scientific geography ever since he came among us, especially in Massachusetts, Connecticut, New York, and New Jersey. Thousands of teachers from colleges and normal schools bear witness to his excellent influence in showing them how to observe, how to reason, and how to impart what they have seen and thought.

The volume before us corresponds with the expectations which its announcement awakened. It makes no pretences to being a popular reading-book; there is no attempt to magnify the marvellous, or to attract the seeker after "the curiosities" of nature. Its author might say, as Professor Hadley said of his own lectures on Roman law, "They will scarcely find a place in a library of entertaining knowledge." It is a book to be studied, and is written accordingly in a compact, sententious style; clearness and sharpness of statement are among its chief merits; and the fine powers of generalization which were conspicuous in the Lowell lectures upon "Earth and Man," are also exhibited on almost every page. It is at once an atlas and a text-book. Copious diagrams and cuts illustrate its pages, and, whenever required, double-paged maps of the globe on Mercator's projection are introduced. The maps are the result of great research, and are constructed for this work by Messrs. Sandoz & Krumholz. They embody the most recent results of scientific enquiry. On one, the structure of the globe is indicated, with the chief plateaus and plains exhibited in contrasting colors; another shows the distribution of volcanoes and earthquakes; a third, the lines of equal magnetic declination; another, the isothermals; a fifth, the marine currents; a sixth and seventh, the rain-fall and the wind-courses; the other three, the distribution of the useful metals, the useful plants and trees, and the races of men. The maps and diagrams by themselves are an encyclopædia of physical geography—not detailed enough for the study of subordinate regions, but well fitted to exhibit the globe in its entirety.

The careful study of such a treatise as is now offered to American scholars should precede the ordinary scientific and historical studies of a college course. It should be made the basis for examinations for admission, or if that is not possible in the present state of preparatory schools, students should be required to pass an examination upon its chief sections before proceeding to the study of geology, meteorology, natural history, and the higher physics. It is almost equally important as a basis for the study of historical and political science. An admirable collection of wall-maps, for recitation and lecture-rooms, have been prepared as precursors or companions of the volume before us.

Mr. Fay's 'First Steps' is a book of exercises in the study of an atlas already published by him, and from it, he says in his preface, "everything has been removed which could embarrass the most inexperienced teacher, or the young pupil of nine or ten." He adds that it is not "intended exclusively for young children. All persons, young or old, with misty ideas on Geography will find it easy and advantageous to go through the lessons." The mode of instruction employed is the repetitionary instead of the mnemonical, according to Mr. Fay's distinction, and there is no doubt that it is the better of the two. Physical geography forms but a part of the scheme, of course. It is treated in an order and from a standpoint differing considerably from those of Professor Guyot, in the work just noticed, and, whatever it may do for the pupil, will probably be of less service to the teacher himself as a means of enlightenment.

In Zell's 'Hand-Atlas' the maps are neatly and attractively engraved, with full coloring, and will be found sufficiently accurate for common use; and, except for the rapid advances of geographical knowledge in these days, they would probably also be complete enough. The several maps of the United States are about the best feature of the work, which of course recommends it particularly to the American public. Critical examination reveals some imperfections which show that the latest authorities have not always been consulted; as, for example, in the map of Beloochistan, the river Dusti (more properly, perhaps, Deshti, but here printed Dasti) is represented as having a northeast course straight from its mouth, whereas, after reaching the 26th parallel, its course is nearly due east to a point beyond the 64th meridian. There is no indication of the disputed boundary between this country and Persia. Although the Stanley-Livingstone additions to the cartography of Central Africa have not been neglected, we miss Stanley's starting-point, Bagamoyo, opposite Zanzibar; yet, oddly enough, the name is put down in the general index, while wanting both on the map and in the special index to the map of Africa. The scale of this map hardly permitted the introduction of Gerhard Rohlfs' discoveries, and Dr. Nachtigal's are, of course, too recent. Schweinfurth's are tolerably indicated on a map of the Nile basin, between which and the map of Africa we notice several inconsistencies in the spelling of proper names; as, Bahiada and Bayudah; Riadth and Riad; Meraweh and Meroe; Ipsambul and Ipsambool (so Khartum and Khartoom). Schweinfurth's Niam-Niam is anglicized Neam-Neam; then why not (and *a fortiori*) Welle for Uelle? The statistics of this atlas are very condensed, but we have found them generally correct. The latest available census returns have been adopted in many instances, as for Buenos Ayres (1869), Canada (1871), and New Zealand (1871); but the German census of 1867 is given in place of that of 1871 (to be sure, the increase has not been very great), the Greek census of 1861 for that of 1871, and an old census of the Presidency of Bengal for that of 1871–72—involving a difference of 20,000,000 in the total of the population.

Mr. Bartholomew's hand is again seen in the maps of the 'International Atlas' of Messrs. Putnam's Sons. They are mostly smaller than those in the 'Hand-Atlas,' but they have substantially the same character. The treatment accorded to the United States is not much above that of the common-school atlas. The classical and historical maps, if not very minute, answer well enough the needs of the general reader and are conveniently bound up with the modern series. The comprehensive "introductions" of Drs. Collier and Schmitz seem, so far as we have tested them, to be noticeably accurate in their dates, and give added value to the atlas.

Old Rome and New Italy. (Recuerdos de Italia.) By Emilio Castelar, author of 'The Republican Movement in Europe,' now publishing in *Harper's Magazine*. Translated by Mrs. Arthur Arnold. (New York: Harper & Brothers. 1873.)—"This book," the author says in his preface, "is the record of the lively emotions awakened in my soul by the marvellous spectacles of Italy," and certainly the reader will not be likely to complain of the want of liveliness in the emotions. The book contains eleven chapters of a very discursive kind, filled with rhetoric and sentiment of a sort with which we are all very familiar, and which is to us rather uninteresting. In the chapter called "The Great Ruin," for instance, Señor Castelar gives the first impressions produced upon him by his visit to the Coliseum. To see Rome had long been one of the most anxious desires of his heart. "As a boy, the Roman religion spoke to me of God, of immortality, of redemption; of all that enlarges the horizon of the soul, even to the infinite. In youth, the Latin language was my chief study—a study that, to a plastic imagination, showed in high relief the sweet verses of Virgil, the conciseness of Tacitus, and the grander periods of Titus Livius, those heroes of antiquity who lived for liberty and for their country." We have then a time-honored allusion or two to Roman literature and Roman law: to "those hills from whence so much light has shone upon human consciences"; the sepulchres, the illustrious remains in the sepulchres, "the stones embrowned by sun and time, where consul and tribune have carved their names, apostles and martyrs their crosses." Then we have a page or two telling us that, "tired of politics in Madrid, of commerce in London, of gaiety in Paris, and even of nature in Geneva; wearied also with the positive tendencies of our age, visible at every step and every moment," Señor Castelar "took refuge at Rome, in order to spend some happy hours with history, art, and religion," and that even in Rome he could not quite shake off the age, on account of a sinful republican friend who had been living for twenty years "under the Pontifical rod," and who wished to unburden his soul about the condition of that city; then we have a description of some Catholic "sorcery," which the author saw with no sympathetic eye; and then we are invited to "plunge into antiquity as a diver in the sea." We take this plunge, and come to the surface in a sea of rhetoric: "Is it true that we have before us a trembling light, pale and almost imperceptible? Is it like that of the glow-worm—like that which we call an idea? Is it true that with this light we can kindle the material world, dissipate it, and offer it to the spirit as the smoke of a sacrifice?" We have no space to give the answers to these questions in detail, but in general we may say that they are in the affirmative, and, while "protesting with vain reflections against human littleness," we arrive face to face with the Roman Coliseum and vivid recollections of the gardens of Nero, which easily leads us to reflections on the iniquity of religious persecution, and a comparison of Nero to the present Emperor of Germany, who, it seems from Señor Castelar, is even more inhuman in his crimes than his Roman prototype—for, though Nero murdered his mother, he at least "felt on

the sea-shore the grief of Orestes, and heard the murmurs of the Eumenides," and though Nero oppressed humanity, he at least proclaimed aloud, in his last hour, "that he ought to have been an artist, but not Cæsar." Then follows an historico-æsthetic account of the Coliseum, in the course of which occur some passages which in an oration might be really fine, but in a book of recollections sound altogether too grand. The book gives the reader a strong impression of the author's sincerity, and at the same time a strong impression of the great danger there is in an oratorical training for a tourist. Those who have been struck from time to time with the bursts of eloquence which have animated some of Castelar's speeches in the Spanish Cortes, will be forced to doubt the probability of its adding to his fame, particularly as so much is necessarily injured in the translation.

Josh Billings's Farmers' Allminax. (New York: G. W. Carleton & Co. 1874.)—Not only does the revolving year seem to bring to Mr. Billings the same amount of sense that its predecessors brought him; but what is now his stated supply of nonsense also seems to come in regularly, and to be about equal in quality to what it was formerly. His mule, however, we must remark, is in this book neither so ubiquitous, so inscrutable, nor so much a moral agent as we have known him to be; nor is he so efficient as he was in the days when he could hit a gentleman twice in the same place within the space of one second—so "sure-footed" was he. Specimens of the practical wisdom which makes Mr. Billings no contemptible lay-preacher with a hundred thousand or two of people who con his *Allminax*, are the following apothegms: "Trust in God first, your neighbor next, and yourself last"; "There is now and then a man who knows that he is a fool; such a man is a hard man to cheat"; "There is a great deal of genius in the horse-swap business, but few assets"—a most consoling truth, and a truth indeed in the long run; "We all of us take our corn to the rich miller; money makes money"; "Human nature is like cow nature; I have known them both to give a good mess of milk, and then kick it over"; "The only really natural thing about a man is his conscience"; "Enough of good luck will ruin any man"; "Where there is one man obstinate because he is wise, there are 4,695,853 obstinate because they are ignorant"—a saying in which Mr. Billings's figures he probably "quotes entirely from memory," as he did on another occasion, when he set down the total number of rats resident in this country in 1868, and enumerated them to a rat. Of Mr. Billings's nonsense we can only say that it is as powerful as ever, and that the analysis of it we cheerfully leave to other hands. At all events, either the wisdom or the folly of this ephemeris may be said to be "alone worth the price of the volume." We ought, perhaps, to warn the unsophisticated that of the lore commonly found in almanacs—even in some which profess to be funny—there is hardly a morsel to be found in this one. One may learn from it on what day of the week a given day of the month falls; but that is all. And, in fact, on second thought, we do not vouch for so much as this. We do not know *à priori* why the production should contain anything at all of useful information, and *à posteriori* knowledge we have not sought.

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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

OCTOBER 6, 1873.

WE are able to report this week a very decided change for the better in the condition of financial affairs. The Clearing-House certificates, which to the amount of twenty millions were issued upon the pledge of collaterals deposited by the banks with the Loan Committee—the certificates being receivable at the Clearing-House in place of greenbacks in payment of debit balances—have answered well their purposes, and the condition of the banks has so far improved as to admit of the cancellation of one million of them on Friday, followed by another reduction of $1,500,000 on Saturday. At the meeting of the Loan Committee on Saturday, the following resolution was passed:

"*Resolved*, That the Chairman of the Committee request all banks which have taken out loan certificates to return and cancel them from day to day, as early as practicable, that the aggregate may be rapidly reduced."

According to Saturday's advices from Washington, the outstanding amount of legal tenders has been increased from $356,000,000 to $358,000,000. Why is it that the Secretary has drawn upon the $44,000,000 "reserve" to the amount of $2,000,000 at this time, when by doing so two weeks ago, or letting it be *officially* known that he would do so in case of need, it would have done some good? After all Mr. Richardson has said about "keeping within the law," this last act is certainly calculated to make people believe that no dependence whatever can be placed upon what is said by Treasury officials. During the panic, the course of the Treasury Department was marked by ignorance and want of decision.

No bank statement was made public this week, and no statement will be made until the entire amount of loan certificates now outstanding is retired and cancelled. The want of uniformity in the returns is the alleged reason why the statement is not made public; but, most likely, bank managers consider that it would be imprudent, in the present condition of affairs, to publish anything which would show the very low state of the bank reserve.

The action of the savings-banks in hoarding greenbacks at this time is severely criticised, and is hardly conducive to a restoration of confidence, which is really the only thing now required to bring about a complete settlement of business affairs. Several important failures have taken place since our last, among others the following: Northrup & Chick, and George Bird Grinnell & Co., bankers and brokers of this city; the Glenham Woollen Manufacturing Company, Paton & Co., and Peake, Opdycke & Co., merchants. The cause of the failure of Northrup & Chick is the old story of heavy drafts by correspondents, while that of Messrs. Paton & Co. seems to have been the mixing up the business of selling dry goods with that of building railroads. The liabilities of Messrs. Peake, Opdycke & Co. are stated at $2,500,000, all of which the firm proposes to pay in monthly instalments of 10 per cent., beginning December 1. They profess to have a surplus of assets above liabilities of about $500,000. The firm transacted a large dry goods, jobbing, and importing business—one of the largest in the city—and their failure was brought about by the difficulty experienced in making collections. No serious fears are entertained, among those who have the best means of judging, that these failures among merchants will extend to any alarming degree.

The failure of George Bird Grinnell & Co. is an important one as affects Wall Street. On Thursday morning, the firm was served with an order issued by Judge Blatchford, of the U. S. District Court in Bankruptcy, upon the complaint of a creditor to the amount of some $3,000 only, that the firm had refused to pay on demand the balance to his credit with them, and that the firm had become bankrupt. The order is returnable before the court October 11. An injunction was issued by the same judge, restraining all parties holding securities of the firm, as collateral or otherwise, from selling or disposing of them in any manner. The effect of these legal proceedings is to compel the present holders of Grinnell & Co.'s stocks to carry them along, at whatever cost or inconvenience; and as the whole matter bore upon its face the probability that the proceedings were brought about at the instance of the firm itself, the Governing Committee of the Exchange met to consider what action was necessary in the premises. The Stock Exchange members of the firm were summoned to appear before the Committee, and did so, but, under advice of counsel, refused to answer any questions; upon which the following resolution was passed by the Committee:

"*Whereas*, G. B. Grinnell and J. C. Williams have refused to comply with the laws of the New York Stock Exchange; therefore,

"*Resolved*, That they be declared no longer members of the Association."

One of the most cheering signs of the times is that commercial paper has commenced to move, although not very freely as yet. Rates are quoted at 15 to 18 per cent. Money on call has been scarce, but there has been a market for it most of the week, during which time the rates have ranged between 7 per cent. per annum and ⅜ per cent. per diem. At the close of the week, Saturday, the rates fell to $\frac{1}{16}$ per cent. per diem, and at the close of the day money was freely offered at the legal rate.

On Monday, September 29, at a special meeting of the directors, the Bank of England rate of discount was advanced to 5 per cent., but no further advance was made at the regular meeting on Thursday. The Bank lost during the week £1,904,000 in bullion. The Bank of France gained 4,000,000 francs in specie.

The Stock Exchange opened on Tuesday, September 30, and the opening was unaccompanied by any excitement whatever, and with the fluctuations by no means wide, considering that the Board had remained closed for so long a period. The tendency of prices was downward, and the market continued weak until Friday. Investors seemed to have held off, expecting that the sales of stocks made for the purpose of settling up old contracts, in anticipation of the expiration of the three days' time during which the law was suspended providing for the selling out of stocks "under the rule," would carry down prices to a still lower point. But outstanding matters seem to have been pretty well settled up, and very few stocks were sold out "under the rule" on Friday. Parties who had been waiting to buy saw that it was useless to wait, and the last half-hour of the session witnessed very active dealings and a rapid advance in prices. On Saturday, the prices of the day before were not only fully maintained, but the demand for stocks carried up Central 1¼ per cent.; Lake Shore, 3 per cent.; Rock Island, 1⅞ per cent.; Western Union, 3¾ per cent.; and other stocks in proportion. In fact, brokers met with considerable difficulty in filling their orders, in consequence of the scarcity of supply.

Prices of all good dividend-paying stocks are still very low, and we doubt very much if the prices of last week will be seen again for years. No better time than the present will probably offer itself to investors. Speculators have no chance in the present state of affairs, as brokers are unwilling to carry stocks on margins at this time. By the time they are ready to do so, prices will have so far advanced that parties who are now able to make their purchases for cash will be very willing to sell out to the professional speculator at those then current. Foreign capitalists have already seen this, and large purchases of the best dividend-paying stocks were made last week by their agents in this city, and one house with German connections purchased 10,000 shares New York Central and Hudson River stock at about 90. Fluctuations may occur, in consequence of weak parties having to sell out to raise money with which to take up their loans at bank, and prices may go down a little; but for investors it seems to us to be a particularly good time to lay in a good supply.

The following shows the highest and lowest sales of the leading stocks at the Stock Exchange for the week ending Oct. 4:

	Monday.	Tuesday.		Wed'day.		Thursday		Friday.		Saturday.		Sales.
N. Y. C. & H. R....	Board closed.	90	93¼	90	92¼	89	92	91⅜	93⅜	93¼	95⅛	48,309
Lake Shore.....		73	77	71½	75¼	68½	71½	72¾	75½	75¼	78¼	55,800
Erie.....		50¾	52	51	52	51½	....	.....	.....	.....	.....	6,100
Do. pfd...		66	67½	67	69¼	70	70¾	70	....	.....	.....	.....
Union Pacific.....		19¼	21	18¾	21	18⅛	19¾	19¾	20½	19⅞	20⅜	18,300
Chi. & N. W.....		44¼	45	42	44¼	39¾	41¾	41⅜	42½	43	45½	10 900
Do. pfd...		64	68	65	66¼	65	67	67¾	....	68⅜	70	3,300
N. J. Central.....		91¼	91¾	90⅜	92⅜	90	90¾	91	92¾	93½	94	3.000
Rock Island.....		88½	91¾	88	91¾	87⅜	89	91⅜	91½	92¾	95	14,100
Mil. & St. Paul....		32¾	35½	32¼	35	31½	34⅜	33½	38⅜	33⅛	35⅝	9,900
Do. pfd...		56	51½	56	57	54	....	57	....	57½	57½	2,600
Wabash.....		43½	50	43⅜	45	42⅜	44	43	43⅜	43¾	48¾	26,000
D. L. & Western ..		86¾	89	87½	90	86½	87½	90	91	91	91¾	7,800
O. & M.....		28¾	30	27⅜	29½	27	27¾	28¼	29	28⅜	29¾	16,100
C. C. & I. C.....		22	23½	22½	24¾	22	22½	23⅜	23½	23½	24½	5,100
W. U. Tel.....		61	70	63	67⅜	60	63½	64⅜	67½	65⅜	69½	63,700
Pacific Mail.....		32	35	31	33¾	31½	35	35¼	....	34⅜	35	23,500

Dealings in railroad bonds have been light, investors seeming to prefer good dividend-paying stocks, the prices of which have declined to a greater extent than those of railroad bonds. There appears to be plenty of orders in the market, but the limits are considerably below the price at which they can be obtained, the really very cheap bonds in the market having been taken during the time the Exchange was closed.

Gold declined to 109¾ on Friday from 113¼, the opening price on Monday, and has not since advanced more than a fraction, remaining at 110 and under all day Saturday. The large amount of gold now on the way from England exerts a depressing influence on the premium. The Secretary of the Treasury has, as yet, issued no programme for gold sales and bond purchases during the month of October.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 16, 1873.

The Week.

THE President has made public through the Associated Press his views on the financial situation. He finds the panic evidently different from those which have preceded it, because, in former panics, a distrust of the currency in circulation has caused every one in possession of it to run to the banks to change it for gold; in this panic, however, everybody's desire is to get more currency, and the currency is becoming daily more valuable. He asserts that he sees "in passing events" the first steps towards resumption, because of the general prosperity of the country; that the aid rendered by Government in the purchase of an extraordinary number of bonds was "not so much real as moral," inasmuch as it tended to restore confidence in the midst of a general "stampede"; that return to a specie basis cannot be effected except by a "shrinkage of values," which always "works hard" with a large class of people who "keep all they are worth in margins"; that this shrinkage, however, has now taken place. The President wonders, inasmuch as silver is worth no more than currency, why "silver is not pouring out." When it does, his theory is that the country can absorb from $200,000,000 to $300,000,000 of it, which would be a great benefit, as it would supply a market for the product of our mines, "now becoming a drug," and it would take the place of the forty millions fractional currency, and would "become the currency which would be hoarded in small amounts." As to legislation, the President says that if Congress were now in session he should recommend the reissue of the $44,000,000 reserve, "a free banking law, with the same protection to bill-holders as now; a repeal of the clause requiring a reserve for the protection of depositors; a percentage of the other reserve to be in gold, and that increased in a regular ratio, until the whole reserve should be in gold." "This would be solely effected by requiring such institutions to save the whole or a large percentage of the gold interest, paid to banks on their bonds held by the Treasurer of the United States for the protection of bill-holders." He also favored an "absolute prohibition of the payment of interest on deposits." The President is also opposed to "the demoralizing and injurious speculation and gambling" caused by the accumulation of capital in large cities, when it is not needed for moving the crops. The President will probably recommend a post-office bank, to pay four per cent. on deposits, which are to be converted into Governments.

The President has a well-deserved reputation for good common sense, and everybody, whether friendly or hostile to the Administration, must regret that he should injure it as much as he does by his utterances on financial or commercial questions. Many of them, in his messages, like that early one in which he proposed to pay off the National debt with the product of the Western gold mines, have been very strange; but then we were disposed to believe that the political economy of the message was not his own, but was supplied by some of the great lights of the science who form his more immediate circle of adherents. Talks like this last one, however, seem to warrant the belief that he really plumes himself on his financial knowledge and insight; if he did not, so taciturn a man as he is would hardly rush into such dangerous places in company with a newspaper reporter. Apart from their unpleasant effect on the President's reputation, not as an economist, but as a "sensible man," they are objectionable, from the alarm they are calculated to spread at this crisis through the business community. Nobody who recollects how much power the Government has over the money market under our present system, can listen to such talk on the part of its chief officer without great anxiety. A gentleman who insists on our issuing a fresh supply of inconvertible paper as a preparation for a return to specie payments; who wants to bring silver into circulation in order to encourage the silver mines; would prohibit banks from paying interest on deposits, and, at the same time, recommends that the Government go into the banking business on this very system, people hardly like to see connected with the Treasury.

There are some questions relating to the affairs of the First National Bank in Washington, which was brought down by the suspension of Jay Cooke & Co., which have not been asked, one or two of which it would be well for Mr. Secretary Richardson to answer. A receiver of the bank was appointed, and is now in charge of it. He reports that he found only $67,000 in currency of all kinds. Now, the last bank statement showed that the bank held $140,000 in greenbacks of the $300,000 it was bound to hold as reserve. The question is, What became of the difference? and it is suggested by the common belief in Washington that all the influential depositors were paid off before the funds were turned over to the receiver, on the ground that they were "special depositors." Another is, How came the United States to have $287,000 ($187,000 illegally, because without any security) on deposit in this bank when the Treasury vaults are on the other side of the street? Finally, Why, when Section 29 of the National Banking Law forbids any bank to advance more than one-tenth of its capital, or, in the present case, $50,000, to any one person or firm, were Jay Cooke & Co. allowed to become the debtors of this bank for thirteen times this amount?

It would be well to remember in the present fever of indignation against fraud and dishonesty that there is a considerable number of honest men in America. The state of things is bad, no doubt, but then we ought not to lose our heads over it. The cases of dishonesty revealed by the late panic amount to about six all told, which is six too many, and some of them are undoubtedly symptomatic of great looseness of management, as well as of want of integrity. But in lamenting over them, we sometimes talk as if defalcations were so numerous that we could hardly keep count of them, and as if all cashiers and treasurers were under a cloud. This is, to say the least, injudicious. We venture to assert that the defalcations and frauds bear a very small ratio to the trust reposed. Our business is transacted on trust to an unprecedented degree. There is nothing in the world like the way in which vast sums of money pass from hand to hand in this city by nods and verbal promises. The loans made to brokers by the banks on mere parole have been during the past two or three years something stupendous in amount, and yet when the crash came there was just one broker, only one, who had failed to make good his overdraft. Considering, too, the way directors seem to neglect their duty, the small amount of fraud revealed among tellers and cashiers has been something really remarkable. Business doubtless ought not to be done in this way, but we must say we think the revelations of the panic have been on the whole creditable both to human nature in general and the American variety of it. We would add, for the benefit of those rural moralists who roll their eyes in horror just now whenever they speak of a broker or "speculator," that it would be well for a good many of them to be able to say that they had come through one-half the temptations to which brokers and speculators have of late been exposed with so little damage to morals or reputation. The panic is not going to regenerate us, but then we do not need regeneration nearly so much as some people are trying to make out.

Nothing has been heard from the farmers for some time now, principally for the reason that since the panic began they have found the transportation question a more practical one than it was

a little while ago. In the pleasant summer months, when there was little to be done except nominate candidates and promote social intercourse, they discussed the general principles of the subject, and passed resolutions, which were of a very various character, because each farmer had as good a right to his or her general principle, and his or her resolution, as any other farmer; but there was a good deal of harmony throughout the West on one point—that there must be no compromise with the railroads, that the monopolists must be beaten at all hazards. We are glad to be able to say that harmony still prevails, though now it is produced by rather different feelings. The great difficulty in getting the grain to market at all has led the railroads to offer the farmers to transport the crops for them without money, on credit, or receiving their pay in kind, and these offers, we understand, the farmers show no immediate disinclination to accept. There must, however, be some devilish malice about this offer on the part of the monopolists, or they would not make it. Probably they want to get hold of the corn and wheat, and burn it up.

Senator Windom's Transportation Committee has disbanded, owing to the commercial crisis, and will not come together again before the meeting of Congress. This Transportation Committee, as we have repeatedly pointed out, is one of the most monstrous impositions connected with the great transportation reform. It was appointed, at the suggestion of the President, to bolster up a crazy scheme of inland transportation, and at its head was placed Mr. Windom, who was at the time director in the Northern Pacific. Since the collapse of this road it has come out that, two years ago, application having been made to the Union Bank of Vienna, and also to certain capitalists in Berlin, two committees came over to the United States, and made a personal examination of the line of the road, the result of which was that they advised their principals to have nothing to do with the road, for the simple reason that it could not earn interest on its bonds for some years to come. The report of Haas, the Berlin commissioner, has been published, and he conclusively shows—not that the Northern Pacific was bad property, but that as it passed through an unpeopled country, it must require several years to build up a business of $20,000,000 a year, or to bring in emigrants and by sale of lands accomplish the same result. Herr Haas came to the conclusion that the interest must soon fail, and we are sorry to say that the provisions contained in the mortgage of $100,000,000 for the security of the bondholders looked to Herr Haas less like a security for the exercise of their rights "than a troublesome obstacle to the execution of rights guaranteed to the bondholders by the general laws of the United States of America"—a rather natural conclusion from the fact that the bondholders have absolutely no remedy of a practical character until after a failure of interest for three years. As to the land-grant, the report declares it to be very good, and we are glad to take this opportunity of contradicting the story which we have done something to disseminate, that the road runs through a wilderness.

The elections which took place on Tuesday involved no national offices except in Oregon, where, to fill a vacancy in the delegation, a Democratic Congressman, Nesmith, was chosen by a fair majority in a rather close contest. Whether the result of the voting in Ohio was such as to ensure Senator Thurman's re-election by the Legislature, is undecided at this writing. The Democrats appear to have made extensive gains, the vote being generally light, and the tickets heavily scratched; but we still hope it will prove that Gov. Noyes at least has not been defeated, if only because, as the Cincinnati *Commercial* has said, the election of his opponent, Allen, "would encourage false hopes of a Democratic national revival, and destroy the reasonable hopes entertained of the ability of Democratic citizens to make themselves useful outside of their old party lines"—in confirmation of which we may refer to the *World's* head-lines of Wednesday. The elections in Pennsylvania and Iowa were carried by the Republicans—in Iowa embracing an entire State ticket, and polling a large and earnest vote.

We referred last week to the recent events in the St. Louis and Baltimore Post-offices as showing that civil-service reform was making a little more headway. Mr. Dorman B. Eaton has published a letter, in which he once more declares the President to be in favor of the reform, and asks its friends to have patience. There seems good reason to believe that the real state of the President's mind on the subject is this: he finds that the new system in the minor offices is a great blessing, because it relieves him of responsibility, and also of importunity. As to the greater offices, he approves of it in principle, but finds it inconvenient in practice, because it sometimes interferes with the appointment of his friends and dependents. This, however, though spoken of in certain quarters as a bad sign, shows a distinct advance in the reform, when we compare its position now with its position two years ago. Then the system was new, and even among the civil servants themselves it had few friends. Now it is at least in working order, and has commended itself to the President by its saving of time, and to the employees by relieving them of an onerous tax. Congress is its great foe now, but then Congress is the common enemy, we were about to say, of mankind.

The Evangelical Alliance closed its sessions on Saturday evening with undiminished éclat. We have elsewhere noticed the modifications revealed by the discussions in the theological view of Darwinism, or the development theory. The other noteworthy feature of the proceedings was, as we remarked last week, the participation of some of the Episcopal clergy in the communion service at Presbyterian churches. This has called forth a vigorous protest, addressed to Bishop Potter, by Dr. Tozer, a missionary bishop of the American Church, apropos of the Dean of Canterbury's course. Another missionary bishop, Dr. Cummins, has replied in the Dean's defence, and acknowledges that he himself was guilty of the same offence, if offence it be, at Dr. John Hall's church. Bishop Potter, we believe, declines to interfere; but it is hardly likely that the controversy will end here, or that it will not embitter the quarrel between the High and Low Church, especially in England. The Alliance was the subject of a vigorous assault for its narrowness from Dr. Bellows, on behalf of conservative Unitarianism, on Sunday night, and he made one suggestion which is not likely to be adopted, namely, that in country districts in which not the church only but all religious expression is rapidly declining, the various sects should unite in one organization, adopting the form of worship of the majority as the best, and it may prove the only, means of resisting a much more formidable foe than the heterodoxy about which the Alliance is so much occupied, viz., blank indifference to all 'doxy. The Catholic Church, through Fathers Lake and Flattery, treated the Alliance to the usual allowance of sorrowful pity.

A savage attack has been made on Comptroller Green by Mr. John Foley and a number of gentlemen who were a year or two ago reformers, and are now what we may call reform politicians. The charges against Mr. Green are, 1st, that he has left some $6,000,000 of the city money on deposit with banks which were not asked for any interest; and, 2d, that he employed two gentlemen, Nelson J. Waterbury and Dexter A. Hawkins, to lobby before the last Legislature, ostensibly to protect the interests of the city, but in reality to keep Mr. Green in office. There does not seem to be any foundation for these charges, which have been laid before the Mayor, and every one knows that the object of Mr. Foley and his friends is simply to get Mr. Green out of office and some one else in. The prospect of the city treasury being again made the football of the politicians is not at all pleasing, and it is extremely unlikely that the charges will come to anything. Mr. Green is not a model man in all respects, but he is an angel of light compared with his enemies, the deadliest of whom, Mr. Van Nort, came into office, it will be remembered, as the protégé and substitute of Wm. M. Tweed.

By the annexation of Charlestown, Brighton, and West Roxbury, Boston increases its population by about forty thousand people, and as the business of the city is continually increasing, and the burnt district is built over and better built than before, Boston now justly looks on herself as an amazing proof of the wonderful bounty of Providence and the industry and morality of her own citizens. It is hardly more than five years since men who took a lively interest in the welfare of the city believed Boston to be a decaying port, soon to rival in the downfall of her commerce the decline of the long since ruined ports of Salem and Marblehead, and yet Boston is to-day perhaps the most prosperous city in the United States. Notwithstanding this, the city government is declining in quality with the growth of the place, in accordance with what seems to be almost a law of American development. The latest evidence we have of this is that the fire of last year has as yet produced no change in the administration of the Fire Department, the city government occupying itself with reports and debates, while the incompetent officials, or at least, many of them, remain securely in office.

France is still occupied with preparations for the approaching struggle between the Monarchists and Republicans, and the latter draw considerable encouragement from the winning of three seats in the Departments of Puy-de-Dôme, Loire, and Nièvre by heavy majorities. M. de Rémusat has got in among others. These Departments returned Conservatives at the last election, and it looks as if the machinery was somehow out of order, or that the Comte de Chambord is a bad candidate. Nothing is easier than to frighten the peasants with threats of the return of the old régime. A deputation of the majority has gone to Salzburg to visit the Count, and will make a report to the bureaux of the Assembly. His letter, to which we alluded in our last, to the Vicomte de Rodez-Benavent, has been published, and in it he denies solemnly the truth of the reports which attribute to him a desire to restore feudal rights, religious intolerance, clerical supremacy, or to engage in a war with Italy. He evidently grows prudent or liberal as he gets near the throne. The trial of Marshal Bazaine is progressing slowly, several days having been consumed in reading the old reports of M. Rivière. He is now under examination by the Duc d'Aumale, the president of the court, and the report of the result will be very interesting. The most damaging charges produced thus far are those based on the condition of the supplies in Metz when he surrendered. The enquiry will probably injure the Bonapartists badly, by casting fresh light on the Emperor's incompetency. They are now throwing their influence in favor of the provisional government, in order to give their heir time to grow up.

The long-impending fight between the Republican and the Intransigente fleet has come off in Spain, and the insurgents have been worsted. Admiral Lobo having got possession of the two iron-clads captured by the British, went back to Cartagena, and was promptly attacked by the Intransigente commander, whatever his title may be, who was forced to put back after a two-hours engagement. One account says that the action was brought on by an attempt of the rebel iron-clads to escape from the harbor. The insurgents fought their ships with great gallantry, but not much skill. It is now announced that a combined attack by sea and land will be made on the town, and, as the garrison is doubtless in great straits, a surrender may at last reasonably be looked for. From the Carlist war there is no very trustworthy news. A report of a bad defeat is afloat, but then these terrible defeats and victories do not seem to do either side much harm or good. The mere failure to have made good their footing south of the Ebro by this time is, however, fatal to the Carlist hopes for the present winter. They will have to go into winter quarters, in default of a lodgment on the plains, but the spring will doubtless see them as active as ever.

At a recent meeting of the Société d'Economie Politique in Paris, some very interesting information with regard to the character and economical causes of the insurrection in Spain, was given by Messrs. Figuerola and Etchegaray, both of them members of the Cortes and Ministers of Finance under King Amadeus. M. Figuerola said that the socialism of the great towns like Malaga and Cadiz was the real French article with which everybody is familiar—a mixture of envy, with dislike of regular labor, and utopian dreams as to the possibility of "reorganizing society." The rural communism is, however, a different thing altogether, and is confined to particular provinces. In Catalonia and Galicia, and the north generally, it does not exist. There the land is very much subdivided among peasant proprietors, as in France, and there, as in France, the instinct of property is pushed to fanaticism, and the people are passionate and frugal cultivators. In the south, on the other hand—in Andalusia and Estramadura, which were conquered at a comparatively late period from the Moors, the soil was bestowed in large grants on the nobles who distinguished themselves in the wars, or chanced for any reason to be the king's favorites, or on churches and convents. It is accordingly held now in immense estates by absentee proprietors, and the scanty population, not over twelve to the square mile, is massed in a few large towns or villages. In fact, it consists wholly of great land-owners and laborers; and the laborers, who rarely see their masters, as soon as a revolution breaks out seize on the farms. In doing this, however, they are by no means instigated by communistic ideas. They do not mean to share with everybody, but simply to oust the legal owners and take their places. Sometimes they have been left in possession by the frightened nobles or monks, and then they have, in default of the means of working the land, sold it out for a trifle.

M. Etchegaray added that, in fact, a general seizure of the large domains and of all Government property, such as the forests and salt-works, has long been in these southern provinces an ordinary accompaniment of a political revolution at Madrid, and the intruders have always held them a few months, until the new government got sufficiently established to send down troops to dispossess them. The result, of course, is that the very notion of law as a means of security, and of prescription as the foundation of title, and of revolution as a means of improving the machinery of government, has vanished from the people's minds. A political upturning is to them a means—not, as with the city socialists, of setting up a new social system—but of getting hold of rich people's goods and enjoying them. Both gentlemen throw much light on the popularity of the Federal movement, by showing that it was due not to a desire to protect local franchises, but to prevent the interference of the central Government with these little redistributions of property made by local majorities. A good land law, breaking up the large estates by heavy taxation, would probably work a cure in a very few years. But the political cure in Spain must begin down among the people, and, until it has been effected, it will matter little what the chief officer of the Government is called.

The reports by mail of Victor Emanuel's reception at Vienna and Berlin show it to have been in both cities most hearty and enthusiastic, particularly at Berlin, where the public greeting partook in no small degree of the nature of an anti-Papal and anti-clerical demonstration. The streets were densely thronged, and the hurrahs plentiful and loud, and the *Re Galantuomo* was flattered by the prodigal sale of broadsides containing his portrait and biography, with verses of welcome and encouragement in the German alliance:

> "Halt fest zu uns, Galanter! Käm Frankreich dir zu nah',
> So schreibe nur an Kutschke, im Umdreh'n sind wir da!"

Bismarck was not on hand at the first meeting of the two sovereigns at the railway station. Francis Joseph's attentions at Vienna were of a sort to stir bad humors among the Ultramontanes, especially the toast which he offered at the first banquet to his "illustrious host, brother, and friend." The French, who read this with no pleasant feelings either, had at least the satisfaction of remarking that the toasts on this occasion were in the language of Paris.

THE PRESENT DILEMMA BETWEEN GOVERNMENTS AND CORPORATIONS.

WE have before us an address by a member of Congress, who is both a Democrat and a distinguished lawyer, the first part of which advocates most earnestly the wisdom of restricting government to the narrowest limit of express powers; the latter part of which denounces corporations as "monsters licensed by government," having "no natural rights," contrived by "the folly or the wickedness of men." There are a great many persons in the community who will agree to the first part of this address as "good, old-fashioned Democratic doctrine," a departure from which has brought down upon the country all of its official corruption; and there are, in the present ferment of the public mind, a great many other men who will applaud the latter part as a true explanation of all the commercial immorality and financial unscrupulousness that now abound in business circles; and there are not a few who will unite, like our member of Congress, in heartily abusing both private corporations and paternal governments.

However soothing this may be to one's excited feelings, is it any more wise than for a child to kick the chair against which he stumbles, and to express in vigorous, unphilosophical language his belief in the total depravity of all inanimate things; or for a sailor to hope vehemently that his ship will go to the bottom because his own carelessness has caused her to lurch badly? With neither a paternal government nor private corporations to carry on those affairs of society which are beyond the scope of individual fortune, can any one tell us what our modern society is to do? Corporations mean combination—the combination of a great number of small amounts of capital into an effective mass or concentration, ordinarily with the condition attached that the money embarked in the venture shall be the limit of the investor's personal responsibility. Does any one mean to maintain that such combinations have been as a whole injurious to this country, or that without them it could have reached any comparable state of development and material wealth? It must be generally conceded that the love of money is the root of the frauds, embezzlements, briberies, and general corruption with which our American body-politic is at this time cursed; but does any one so thinking break out in tirades against a medium of exchange, or seriously propose to do away with money?

For the last thirty years it has been the fashion in this country, especially among our older, richer, and busier Eastern communities, to get rid of political difficulties by the simple process of running away from them. In this State, for instance, prior to the constitution of 1846, the machinery of government was found to work with too much friction; whereupon the very popular doctrine was preached that the world is governed too much, and that the less government we have the better. Some of the radical newspapers of that day even went so far as to hold that the Post-office was a too paternal institution for the Government to have under its charge, and that the business of running the mails, and the end of attaining cheap postage, had better be handed over to Adams Express or some other company. At a time when it cost six cents to send a single sheet of paper through the mail from Albany to New York (a route a little less than 150 miles), and twelve cents to send the same sheet from Troy to New York (a route then supposed to be a little more than 150 miles), if any one had predicted that an improved mail service would enable a man to send three sheets of paper in one envelope from New York to Oregon for three cents without ruining the Government, he would have been thought insane. Indeed, we are not sure but that if the art of constructing giant corporations had been understood then as well as it is now, some of the Congressional manipulators would have persuaded the public that the only way to get cheap postage in this country would be by giving over the Post-office to such a corporation. In other words, when American society retreated from the line of governmental difficulties, it fell back upon corporations as a means of protection and relief.

But now, in the year 1873, the line of corporations, once deemed impregnable, and extolled as "associated individual enterprise," has become untenable. "Associated individual enterprise" is regarded as an admirable thing for enterprising individual managers, and a very bad thing for everybody else. Not only is our mercantile community now laying the blame of the recent panic upon corporations, and our great agricultural community at the West attributing to them all its woes, but through the Eastern rural districts there is a much greater degree of irritation against them than is generally supposed. We can, for instance, point to two New England villages, only fourteen miles apart, which have to pay forty cents for sending from one to the other a telegraphic message of ten words. They contrast this and the double expressage exacted by the ingenious combination and division of routes by the express companies with the cheap, effective daily service of the United States mail, and they believe unanimously in throwing the telegraphs into the hands of the Government. Tell them that a government should not be paternal; that the business of telegraphy cannot be carried on by it as economically as by a private corporation; that in the hands of the Government it would not be self-supporting; and that by the change all legal means of redress would be taken away from them, and they answer that they know better, that the Post-office shows them the contrary every day of their lives, that as to a deficit of a few millions a year, it is nothing compared with the exactions they now suffer, that when they make complaints they are treated with more attention and civility by the officers of the Government than by the agents of the great corporations, and that as to a legal remedy for a delayed telegram or damaged freight, it is practically worth nothing, and no sensible man would ever go to law with a powerful corporation. In short, the forgetful part of the community is now making ready to beat another retreat, and screwing its courage up to the pitch of going back to the very position which the preceding generation declared to be one of the greatest of evils, and into which, it was asserted, mankind on this continent had become too wise ever again to fall.

But the question which every sensible man may as well begin to ask himself and his neighbors, is whether American society has not reached a point from which there is no further line of retreat—whether we are not now upon a line where we must fight out the battle, which should have been fought before this, for the maintenance of decency, morality, and public and private integrity. Fortunately, in the march of recent evils, Government and corporations appear too closely side by side to countenance the idea of our flying to the one as a protector against the other. In public estimation, "Government" means unscrupulous politicians, "corporations" unscrupulous capitalists, and nobody pretends that either can be long used merely as an antidote for the other. It is most desirable that the public mind should be taught to drop the old idea that the Government is a bane and corporations are an antidote, and to shut out the new idea that it is the corporations which form the bane and the Government which may prove to be the antidote; and, instead of these ideas, assume the simple fact that both governments and corporations are merely instrumentalities, absolutely essential to our modern civilization, but which can be and must be controlled, limited, and directed, so that they shall not be detrimental to public morality and shall effectively promote the general welfare.

The lesson to be learned at this time, for it is a lesson which recent experience peculiarly teaches, is that neither governments nor corporations are machines which can be trusted to run alone; and that if society means that they shall be controlled and guided, society cannot abandon the control and guidance to paper constitutions and charters, or to a class called professional politicians, or to another class called kings, emperors, and tyrants. Whenever the public apathy is such that society can skulk away from the duties and difficulties of governing, it is inevitable that a class of persons will assume control who will manage matters exclusively for their own benefit; and it makes little difference whether the place be France or America, and whether the class be self-made politicians or hereditary rulers. The great—and it is an inestimable—advantage which our country possesses, is that our form of government enables society at any time, by peace-

ful and constitutional means, without force, and with a minimum of disturbance, to reassume the control of its governmental affairs, and consign its temporary dynasty to the harmless occupations of private life.

Our Government is not an instrumentality which can be adapted to the making of shoes at the public expense for the public feet; it is an instrumentality admirably adapted to the making of just and beneficent laws, and the thorough and efficient enforcement of them. But so long as a State like Massachusetts asserts the principle of prohibition, and then hands over the task of prohibiting to the classes that are to be prohibited; or so long as Congress goes through the form of making laws against its own corporations, and then practically allows corporations to do what they please with the statutes, we cannot delude ourselves into the belief that society is really using its own instrumentality of government. Legislation, as we all know, is a cheap prescription, generally purchased by a little public clamor. But beyond legislation there is work to be done, and a price to be paid. Of this we have a striking illustration at the present time. In a previous number of the *Nation* (No. 411), when endeavoring to account for the growth of corporate and the decline of governmental power, we asked: "Is not the United States District Attorney in each of the two largest cities on the continent a comparatively young and inexperienced lawyer, whom no corporation would entrust with the control of its legal affairs, but who is entrusted with all the law business, civil and criminal, of the Government? Contrast the array of counsel in the Crédit Mobilier Railroad cases—Mr. Curtis, Mr. Evarts, Mr. Cushing, and Mr. Bartlett—with the Attorney-General and his two juniors. Contrast, too, the liberal fees that will be paid to these really leading counsel with the salaries of the Attorney and Solicitor Generals. Manifestly, society, as represented by Government, is beaten whenever it comes in contact with the great corporations, because society has allowed these corporations to secure as agents men who can outgeneral, outwork, and in any ordinary fight overcome the men who are the agents of the Government." And now we read in the Hartford *Courant* that in the recent argument of those cases, the Government lawyers were no match for those retained by the defence; that their tame and incompetent performance "was painful to all friends of the Government"; that it is clear that they will be "outwitted and outgeneralled" at every point; and that nothing "like a complete investigation or a fair trial can be had under the direction of the present counsel for the Government."

THE WAY BACK TO SPECIE PAYMENTS.

THE denunciation of irredeemable paper money during the last ten years has been so loud that it is not surprising that some of it should have been baseless or extravagant. The world has suffered so much from the substitution for coin of promises to pay which nobody was bound to keep, that when we, with all this experience before our eyes, determined to enter on the same dangerous path, it was not unnatural that many of those who undertook to warn us should have occasionally been betrayed into vehement exaggeration. Accordingly, a great many of our economists have talked as if there was in paper *per se* some occult quality which made it totally unfit for a circulating medium, and which made any resort to it a sure road to national ruin. It has been even inveighed against as a fruitful source of crime and immorality, and as in fact a probable cause of most of our frauds and defalcations. Indeed, we have among us one or two economists who have worked themselves up to the point of believing that nearly every evil by which political or social life is beset in the United States at this moment is due to the use of greenbacks.

Now, the misfortune of this sort of talk is that it diminishes or destroys at critical moments the legitimate influence of those who have made it their business to study the financial experience of the civilized world, and leads plain people to agree with our friend Mr. Boutwell that there is no such thing as a science of finance at all, and that every government can make its own currency to suit its own fancy, and carry on trade in entire independence of the rest of mankind. We are suffering at this moment from the effects of this unqualified or extravagant declamation. The paper money which has been so much denounced is steadily rising in value, and, in fact, enjoys the absolutely unprecedented honor of being hoarded by a panic-stricken community, and at this most critical period in our financial history, when a single step may take us out of the slough of despond, or sink us in irretrievably, we begin to hear people say that, since greenbacks are so good and so scarce, all we have to do to cure us of our present woes is to issue more of them, and that the "theorists" will prove as much mistaken as to the effects of this new issue as they have proved with regard to the effects of the first.

Now, the only objection to paper money for which experience offers any warrant is the uncertainty which, in the absence of redeemability in coin, will always exist as to the relation of its quantity to the wants of the community. Apart from this, it is the best currency possible, inasmuch as it costs little, and is easy of carriage, and it plays a large and daily increasing part in the business of all civilized societies. In England and America, the two leading commercial nations, it plays the leading part. Redeemability in coin is mainly important, not because of any hidden virtue in coin, or any taint of sin in paper, but because it offers the only means of keeping the quantity of the circulating medium in its proper relation to the business of the community and to the circulating medium of other countries; because, in plain English, only in this way do the people retain any control over their instrument of exchange. When paper is redeemable, the entire community decides how much of it shall circulate; when it is irredeemable, half a dozen bankers, or a Secretary of the Treasury, or a dozen needy and ignorant Congressmen, may decide how much of it shall circulate. When paper is redeemable in coin, if the Government or banks issue too much of it, prices at once begin to rise, or, in other words, the country discovers that it has more of the circulating medium of the world than it needs or is entitled to. Money then will, it is seen, purchase more commodities abroad than at home, and, as paper cannot be sent abroad, people carry it back to the bank or the Treasury, and draw out gold for exportation. In this way the volume of the currency is again rapidly diminished, prices fall, and the equilibrum is restored. When irredeemable paper is issued and made a legal tender, all the gold in the country, being of no further use, is sent abroad and sold, and will never come back till room is again made for it by the withdrawal of a portion of the paper, or, what is the same thing, by the inadequacy of the quantity of the paper in existence for the demands of internal trade.

Now, it is the opinion of many of the keenest observers at this moment, and the facts of financial history seem to justify it, that we have gradually gained the effects of contraction by our abstinence from all expansion of the legal-tender currency since 1862. That is, the growth of the community in wealth, which has been enormous, and the increased multiplicity of transactions, which has also been enormous, have gradually rendered our currency inadequate to the transaction of our business, and are producing a steady fall in prices, that of gold included—a fall which has been within the last month precipitated by the panic. Now, if this theory be sound, all we have to do is stand firm, and let the currency alone, and the operation of financial laws will gradually make it profitable to export gold to this country, as, indeed, it is at this moment, and make it profitable to keep it here to meet the demands of internal business. Currency enough people must have; and, if they cannot have more greenbacks, they will provide themselves with gold and silver. This, however, will be a gradual process. It will not be possible for the banks, or perhaps for the Government either, to resume specie payments the day or the month in which greenbacks touch par, but, assuredly, a period of low prices and restricted currency cannot last very long without making it as easy for them to pay coin as paper, because, when people have become familiarized with the idea that nothing is to be gained by exchanging a greenback for

gold or silver, the danger of a run for coin on either the banks or the Treasury will be over.

In this state of facts, nothing can well be more mischievous than even the sign of willingness on the part of Congress or the Treasury to tamper once more with the currency. Mr. Richardson's issues of his "reserve" are, apart from the question of their legality, highly objectionable, because they create and keep alive in the public mind a feeling of uncertainty as to the future, which prevents the restoration of confidence and the return of trade to its ordinary channels. He claimed, last fall, the power to issue greenbacks when he pleased to "move the crops." He did issue $5,000,000, and then suddenly withdrew them. In other words, he inflated and contracted the currency out of his own head within the space of half a year. Naturally, therefore, when the late panic occurred, he was called on to inflate once more. If, it was argued, he could inflate to "move the crops," he can inflate also to save the banks and the mercantile community from bankruptcy. But he then totally denied the possession of that discretion which he had so lightly used in the previous autumn, and pleaded the want of legal authority to touch the "reserve." Within two short weeks, however, he suddenly disregarded this legal prohibition, and issued $3,000,000 of the "reserve," and, at this writing, leaves it uncertain whether he will not issue the whole $44,000,000, thus plunging the community in doubt as to the future of prices, and stimulating the reluctance to engage once more in commercial operations which constitutes the essence of the present panic. Nothing could illustrate more clearly the real vice and danger of irredeemable paper money. It is money of which, as we have before said, one or a dozen weak or inexperienced or dishonest men can change the quantity when they please, thus altering the value of all property and disarranging the financial relations of the country with the rest of the world; and nothing could better illustrate, too, the necessity of having a cool and proved financial head in charge of the treasury of a Government which has any control over the currency, or is in receipt of a large revenue from a commercial community, than Mr. Richardson's performances during the last six months.

It is not wonderful, too, in view of the Treasury performances, that a cry should be going up at the West, or should be likely, as is said, to find vent in Congress in December, for what is called "an elastic currency"; or, in other words, a currency which somebody can inflate at pleasure. Greenbacks being scarce and valuable, the West naturally would like more of them, and, seeing Mr. Richardson issuing them, thinks it would be an excellent idea to start the Government in the business on a larger scale. But there is no such thing as an "elastic currency" which is neither coin nor redeemable in coin. Elasticity is the quality of stretching out when needful, and contracting when the need is past. This redeemable paper possesses, but irredeemable paper does not and cannot. Redeemable paper is drawn from the banks whenever there is a temporary demand for more currency, and the banks are careful not to issue more than is plainly called for by the condition of business, and, when the demand is satisfied, it goes back again to the banks, either under a prudent restriction of discounts or under a demand for gold for exportation. Irredeemable paper once out does not go back, and therefore is not "elastic." There is no use in returning it to the banks; and it cannot be sent abroad. So it stays in circulation, raises prices, and leaves the pressure for money as great as ever. In other words, when it is stretched it stays stretched. If we only have the grace now to let the currency alone, gold will have to come into circulation before long, and then, if there be wisdom enough in Congress to order the Government to begin in some manner, and at some time certain, the redemption of their notes in coin, we shall have "specie payments" again, and with them an amount of experience which it is to be hoped will never be suffered to drop out of mind. But the notion that there will be "resumption" without somebody's doing something about it is a curious hallucination.

LESCURE'S SAINTE-BEUVE.

PARIS, Sept. 25, 1873.

SAINTE-BEUVE holds such a high place in the French literature of this century, and his works are so clearly destined to survive, that all details concerning his person and his long career offer a positive and permanent interest. Lately, several works have been published on him: 'Les Jeunes Années de Sainte-Beuve,' by Morand; 'Sainte-Beuve,' by Jules Levallois. I will only notice to-day 'Sainte-Beuve, from an inedited correspondence,' by M. de Lescure. This last writer is a sort of literary *raffiné*, who never grasps any vast subject, but is fond of looking into all the dark holes of past or contemporary history. He was fortunate enough to excite the curiosity and to win the favor of Sainte-Beuve; he is now preparing the 'Memoirs of a Political Apprentice,' and his relations with the great critic are only a chapter of the work which he announces.

The first works of M. de Lescure were a memoir on the once famous 'Philippiques' of Lagrange Chancel, a poetical pamphlet directed against the Regent Orléans, and various articles on the too famous ladies of the time of the Regency. He sent these to Sainte-Beuve and added a little book called 'Eux et Elles; Histoire d'un Scandale.' This last pamphlet was a sharp critique of the revelations made by Madame Sand on Alfred de Musset, of the retort of Paul de Musset against Madame Sand (Madame Sand's novel was called 'Elle et Lui,' and the reply by Paul de Musset 'Lui et Elle'). As Madame Louise Collet had seized the opportunity to write a sensational book called 'Lui,' the public soon became disgusted with these personal revelations, and gave its verdict in the short sentence "Ni lui, ni elle." Sainte-Beuve shared this sentiment, and wrote to M. de Lescure: "I have read your clever denunciation of all the *lui* and *elle*. I have admired your sagacity in discerning the true from the romantic, as I know the things of that time, and *that thing* in particular [alluding to the relations between Madame Sand and Alfred de Musset] better than anybody, having had the honor of being the confidant of both parties." This was the beginning of a literary correspondence. M. de Lescure asked Sainte-Beuve to help him in his researches on the relations of Racine with an actress, Mlle. du Parc, and Sainte-Beuve kindly looked for him among what he called his "Port Royal chips." Sainte-Beuve helped M. de Lescure again when the latter published the 'Memoirs of Mathieu Marais on the Regency'; they both liked these modest witnesses of history whom D'Argenson calls "minutists." "Can you come to me Sunday, at twelve?" writes Sainte-Beuve, one day; "I shall afterwards go to my shop (the *Constitutionnel*) to correct proof-sheets; my mind wants some tonic." He was truly fatigued with the great labor he had undertaken, the famous 'Causeries du Lundi.' A few days afterwards, he writes again to M. Lescure, who showed himself somewhat too impatient to have his 'Mathieu Marais' reviewed:

"Let me describe to you, since you are interested in it, my literary situation, not as it is seen from the outside, but as I see it from the inside. It would be a great mistake if my friends took me for a personage who has any authority, and who holds the rod in the republic of letters. I am, on the contrary, dependent upon the public. I regret often not having such moderation in my desires as would make me contented with my poverty, and allow me to choose my boon subjects. I feel like an actor obliged to play when he ought to retire, and who sees no limit to his engagement. I will confess it very low, I am a little angry; not with the public, which is only too good to me, but with society, such as it is, when a man who has been working and printing for forty years (it is the exact number) sees himself obliged to go on indefinitely, and nobody suspects that every week he makes a *tour de force*. . . . I descend into a well every Tuesday morning, and I only emerge from it on Friday evening at a late hour. I cannot give a day to my friends; I cannot go to the Academy, for want of time. I was asked to dinner by a distinguished Englishman, a member of Parliament, and I wrote to him that I could not accept his invitation; that I was not a monsieur, nor a gentleman, but a working-man by the piece and by the hour. With all this, I enjoy the advantages of my situation as I suffer from its disadvantages. I have no remorse; I break through social exactitude and regularity, and sometimes through politeness, in the rudest manner, and I do what the working-men do on the day they are paid: when I have a quarter of an hour, I amuse myself."

There is, perhaps, a little want of dignity in such complaints. Many a man has worked as hard as Sainte-Beuve, and has never accused society. Physical or mental labor is the common lot of humanity. Sainte-Beuve really thought that the state owed to a man of his eminence something which would give him *otium cum dignitate*, such as a senatorship. Some time afterwards we find him quite angry with his young friend for having written a severe censure of the heroes of the French Revolution in his 'Panthéon Révolutionnaire démoli.' This book had been highly praised by Veuillot, the head of the Clerical party, in a letter sent by Veuillot to M. de Lescure, and shown in confidence to Sainte-Beuve. Veuillot's letter seems to have put Sainte-Beuve quite beside himself. He defends Lafayette and Bailly and Madame Roland; he accuses Lescure of injustice, of falling into the common error of confounding what ought to be kept separate. "I declare to you in

my soul and conscience, you have not spoken of the men of those times as they ought to be spoken of. France needs not to *repent*, even if she has committed wrongs. A nation which goes on its way towards its destiny must not repent. Nothing is so implacable as history." What would Sainte-Beuve have said if he had seen the Commune and witnessed the execution of his friend Bonjean, and been obliged to turn back to the dynasty condemned in 1789 and in 1830?

It was still some time afterwards that Sainte-Beuve was named a senator. M. de Lescure himself accepted an office in the home department, which placed him in constant communication with some of the most important personages of the Empire, and he became also one of the confidential friends of Princess Mathilde, who had taken upon herself the patronage of the men of letters and of the artists. "We both," said M. de Lescure, in alluding to these new circumstances, "thought ourselves happy for a little while, and afterwards how often we both regretted the time when we were so unhappy." The melancholy of Sainte-Beuve appeared almost as soon as he had entered his political fetters and ceased to be a mere journalist. Sainte-Beuve made his maiden speech before the Senate in the year 1866, on the question of literary property. The Empire was still in its full power; but the Mexican campaign and the triumphs of Germany had thrown a shadow over the glories of the Crimea and of the Italian campaigns. Sainte-Beuve was a strong advocate of authority. He would have liked the Emperor to be the Louis XIV. of a new dynasty. His liberalism only revived in whatever touched the clerical question; he made two speeches in the Senate on the question of primary education, and, in the face of the bishops, he defended the university and the principle of lay education. One of his colleagues brutally interrupted him with these words: "You were not sent here for that." Sainte-Beuve was painfully sensitive, and resented this insult too keenly. He would not be looked on as a mercenary senator who was paid to vote with the Government. From that moment he began to be uncomfortable. He defended in the Senate the liberty of the press in May, 1866; spoke again in favor of the university; in his letters shows himself uneasy and discontented. "I am not a doctor, I am a part of the malady; I am a little alarmed, and I complain. I am like a man who feels the fever coming. Many feel like me." He complains of the Government, he complains of the nation. "This nation is not reasonable. The same men who would be the first sufferers if the nation followed their lead, and who have suffered once before, begin the same game over again. We pay ourselves with words."

Sainte-Beuve did not believe that the men who had been the supporters and framers of a dictatorial Empire could be good leaders in a liberal Empire, and he was afraid of the sterility of the country, of the absence of new men, of new political leaders. "The feeling and the consciousness of a great force and of an immense popularity had produced a general neglect of individuals, taken one by one." He calls the Emperor "the head of bronze," and asks what there is in it. Napoleon, who lived in a land of dreams, was, so to speak, hedged in by all the men of the 2d of December, and the publication of the papers found at the Tuileries has shown that the Government's largesses to letters and the arts were directed by those men into the most ignoble hands. Sainte-Beuve was a senator, but he had no influence. He writes once to M. de Lescure:

"My dear friend, you are near to the most powerful minister (Rouher). I do not leave my room; but I look out, and I hear and I observe. Tell your minister that, if nothing is done, all things are rapidly dissolving, and then everything will be at the mercy of the first event. Do not shake your head and smile, and seem reassured; all the powers which have fallen have done so till the eve and till the very morning of their fall. The Empire is very sick. . . . How, after the period of glory, have we entered the period of contempt? Why not boldly name a constitutional cabinet? I would not have advised it a few years ago; but now, it is perhaps our salvation. And let us quickly renew the Chamber, which is worn out, and which no longer feels the current of public opinion. In one word, to act, to act is the important thing."

M. Rouher alone read this letter, and said not a word in answer. M. de Lescure compares him to the Duc de Guise, who threw away at Blois a letter informing him of his projected assassination, saying: "They would not dare."

After he had left the *Constitutionnel*, Sainte-Beuve had published his 'Causeries' in the *Moniteur Officiel*. The managers of this paper, which since 1789 had received the communications of all governments, had a quarrel with M. Rouher, and lost their privilege. A new *Journal Officiel* was created, and the Minister asked Sainte-Beuve to remain on his staff. Sainte-Beuve refused, and, to show even better his independence, he went over to an Opposition paper, called the *Temps*. This was thought scandalous, and Sainte-Beuve fell into open disgrace. Princess Mathilde, however, did not abandon him, though she scolded him a little:

"Your eminent minister," writes Sainte-Beuve to M. de Lescure, "said some time ago that I was a man who could not be lived with. He must think and say it all the more now. He does not understand, with all his talent, what a man of letters is; with such a man the dignity of senator (since it is a dignity) is only an accident, a noble and useful accident, very essential when it arrived (as I was overworked), but something which does not touch the vital principle and the vital nerve. The official paper, as it has been reconstituted, may please others; I decided from the first day not to enter it; I have opinions, convictions, and, on some points, they are deep and fierce."

Sainte-Beuve did not long survive this rupture. only, towards the end, sent cards to M. de Lescure, with words of encouragement, while he was himself slowly dying. His funeral took place on the 13th October, 1869; he was followed to his tomb by Madame Sand, by Dumas the father and Dumas the son, by Taine, by Prévost-Paradol. He fell before the lamentable events, which brought the Empire to an inglorious end, before the siege of Paris, before the Commune. He was conscious of the coming danger, but he did not witness the catastrophe. His glory would be more pure if he had remained to the end a mere "man of letters"; his place was not among the members of an obedient senate. His natural love of truth saved him from servility, and he vindicated to the end the rights of free thought, of science, of philosophy.

Correspondence.

THE FINANCIAL FUTURE.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: Writing upon finance is a good deal like the crackling of thorns under a pot, without, as Scott in another connection pithily observes, serving any such useful purpose as the boiling thereof. Still, there is one point of view which may be instructive. It is safe to say that there are not ten men, perhaps not two men, in the country who would agree as to the details of a scheme for the management of our currency. As you justly say, the advocates of expansion and contraction, of free and restricted banking, of greenbacks and national-bank currency, are equally ardent, and each interprets every event as conclusive in favor of his own theory. There can be no question that such artificial and complex machinery will never regulate itself, and as little that with the extensive and powerful private interests at work it will never, under the present system, be regulated in the interest of the whole country. The other day I met our Vice-President in the cars, and heard a plan which he had thought out to his own satisfaction as fully adequate to the case. I evaded comment by saying that the difficulty was much less what to do than how to get it done—an objection of which he was obliged to admit the force, and, moreover, that it was not provided for in his plan.

What would become of an army in which all the officers and half the privates had independent plans of campaign, and claimed the right to put them in practice? It is necessary to give one general-in-chief the absolute command, and, when he fails, to try another. This is the method we pursued during the war, and, blundering and costly as it was, I venture to say that no government or people on earth could, from a time of peace and the entire absence of military organization or recognized military talent, have more quickly found and applied the right man. The financial situation is exactly analogous. Some one mind must be trusted with the initiating power, subject, if you please, to the control of Congress, and ultimately of the country, and when he fails another must be tried. Of course, if the process is not to be infinite, it must not be at random, but with a training-ground like a battle-field, on which the claims of aspirants may be developed. The chief financial officer of the Government, the Secretary of the Treasury, is the mind, and Congress is the training-field on which the battle must be fought out. It is no matter whether the system is English or Mongolian; whether it is unconstitutional (which it is not), anti-republican, or anti-American; whether the traditions of Congress or the interests of the lobby are opposed to it. It is the only way, and the one haven which the country, when sufficiently tossed with financial tempests, will ultimately be obliged to seek.

G. B.

Boston, Oct. 11, 1873.

THE COST OF CARRYING GRAIN—ON PAPER.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: Pending the calling of another meeting on the "Transportation Problem," to inform us with whose money that great freight railroad to Chicago is to be constructed, it may do some good to lay before the public an illustration of the reckless and extravagant way in which this matter is discussed.

A prominent speaker, at a recent meeting for the discussion of the cheap transportation question, is reported to have said that the freight on grain from Chicago to New York must be reduced to 14 to 16 cents per bushel. Now, let us endeavor to ascertain by reference to the results of experience the probabilities of reaching "a consummation so devoutly to be wished." The nearest approximation to a "freight" road of which we have the data is that of the Philadelphia and Reading Railroad Company, whose sworn report to the Auditor-General of Pennsylvania, for 1872, furnishes the following facts, viz.:

The cost of the road and equipment is represented by capital stock	$34,236,175 28
And by bonded and other debt	29,342,169 00
Total	$63,578,344 28
The tonnage for the year in tons of 2,000 lbs., was of coal	6,927,686 tons.
Iron ore, stone, merchandise, etc.	2,891,400 "
Company's materials, passengers, baggage, etc.	1,162,571 "
Total	10,981,657 tons.

Not including taxes, rents, interest, and cost of renewing rails, the proximate average cost per ton per mile to transport freight other than coal was $\frac{98}{100}$ of a cent, and the cost per ton per mile to transport coal was $\frac{78}{100}$ of a cent.

The grade of this road is with the load going to tide-water, so that it is said that a locomotive can take down as many loaded cars as it can take back light. It would be impossible to construct a line from Chicago to New York having such advantage of grade. About $\frac{7}{11}$ of the tonnage of the road is coal, and the *cost of transportation* has been reduced, it is believed, to the lowest possible limit under ruling rates for labor and materials.

Excluding the odd $\frac{3}{100}$ of a cent per ton per mile, and assuming that wheat can be transported as cheaply as coal, let us see what it would cost, at the rate of ¾ of a cent per ton per mile, to transport a ton of wheat from Chicago to New York.

The distance is (in round numbers) 1,000 miles; ¾ of a cent per ton per mile for 1,000 miles equals $7 50 per ton through. At 60 pounds per bushel, or 33⅓ bushels to the ton, $7 50 per ton is equivalent to 22½ cents per bushel. To reduce the cost of transportation to 15 cents per bushel, the cost per ton per mile for labor and materials must be reduced *one-third; i. e.*, the $3 per day man can be paid but $2, the $1 50 per day man but $1, and so on. This might be done, perhaps, if there could be a general return to *ante-bellum* prices, but otherwise not, as those who supply the labor and materials composing the cost of transportation could not submit to such a reduction unless their wants could be supplied at corresponding rates. In this fall in prices, grain would of course be included, and thus the reduction would bring no benefit.

It must be borne in mind that we are not now discussing the cost of roads or providing for dividends on stocks, either watered or representing merely the actual expenditure to construct the roads they represent; that is another branch of the subject, affecting another class of interests—a class, however, which must be recognized before the coveted "freight road" can be built, and a fair allowance for which must be added to the 22½ cents per bushel to compensate for use of capital, risks, taxes, renewal of rails, etc.

The lowest *contract* rates for the transportation of coal in large quantities, by rail, of which we have information, are those of the Erie Railway Company, which average fully 1½ cents per ton per mile, exclusive of the cost of loading and unloading. This is at the rate of about 45 cents per bushel of 60 lbs. for 1,000 miles.

The *cost* per ton per mile, for freight carried by the Pennsylvania Railroad Company in 1872, is reported to the Auditor-General of Pennsylvania as having been $\frac{886}{1000}$ of a cent, equal to $8 86 per ton for 1,000 miles, or $26\frac{58}{100}$ of a cent per bushel of 60 lbs. The tonnage of that road is given as 7,844,779 tons for 1872, and its capital and debt, representing the cost of the road and equipment, as $86,000,000.

Referring to the experience of a company transporting large quantities of coal by water, we find that the Delaware and Hudson Canal Company, which last year transported 1,400,000 tons, nearly, over its canal, is now paying its boatmen 90 cents per gross ton for 108 miles, exclusive of loading and unloading, equal to $\frac{833}{1000}$ of a cent per ton per mile, or nearly 22½ cents per bushel of 60 lbs. for 1,000 miles. This sum simply pays the boatmen's wages and running expenses, together with the repairs and wear and tear of the boat. It affords nothing for interest on cost of canal or for canal repairs and superintendence.

In view of these facts, we think it may reasonably be inferred that it will be many years before the *cost* of transportation of a bushel of wheat from Chicago to New York can be reduced as low as 20 cents, much less to 14 to 16 cents.

M. D.

New York, Oct. 10.

Notes.

G. P. PUTNAM'S SONS have in press 'The Challenge Cup,' a nautical poem descriptive of the five races for the international cup of 1851, won by the yacht *America*. It will be illustrated with photographs of the contesting yachts and diagrams of the races, and will make a handsome quarto volume.—On Tuesday, the 21st instant, there will be dedicated at Lafayette College a new building erected for the Scientific Department, and called Pardee Hall, after the founder of that department, Mr. Ario Pardee. The cost of this edifice exceeded $250,000, and the greatest pains appear to have been taken to make it commodious and attractive.——A. D. F. Randolph & Co. have in press Dr. Samuel Irenæus Prime's new volume of Continental travel, entitled 'The Alhambra and the Kremlin—the South and the North of Europe.'

—A reader of the *Nation* having lately asked of us a reference to some authoritative statement of the height of Napoleon I., we present the following extract from M. de Bourrienne's 'Memoirs of Napoleon Bonaparte' (vol. i., p. 7, English edition; Glasgow: Blackie & Son). Bourrienne was a fellow-student with Bonaparte at the military school of Brienne, concerning which Marshal Ségur, when Minister of War in 1783, made this record (MS. Coll., art. School of Brienne): "State of the king's scholars eligible from their age to enter into the service, or to pass to the school at Paris; to wit, M. de Buonaparte (Napoléon), born Aug. 15, 1769, in height 4 feet 10 inches 10 lines [5 feet 6½ inches English]; has finished his fourth season, etc." It is clear that the translator, in reducing the French to the English measure, has made an error, as the result gives a stature not noticeably short. The old French foot was nearly the equivalent of 1·066 English feet; there were twelve inches to the foot, and twelve lines to the inch. This ratio shows the height of the Little Corporal to have been only 5 feet 2·7 inches, which answers very well to the common idea of him.

—Some complaint has been made because the Metropolitan Art Museum just opened offers but one free day to the public, instead of several, or instead of being wholly free. That the public has no reason to be dissatisfied with the present arrangement, however, a glance at the finances of the institution will show. It has, with the exception of the sale of admission tickets, absolutely no source of revenue with which to defray the charges for rent, heating, watching, and fire insurance (a very heavy item). The fitting-up of the Museum, the purchase of cases, etc., required a large outlay of money; and, up to this time, the whole expense has been borne by the subscribers, with the exception of $15,000 appropriated by the Board of Apportionment, but expended almost in advance in preparing the new building. In like manner, the paintings of the old masters have been purchased out of the funds subscribed for the establishment of the Association, while the greater part of the modern paintings and art-objects lent to the Museum for exhibition belong to members of the board of trustees, some of whom were amongst the most liberal subscribers to the original fund. The public can hardly expect these gentlemen to go on for ever emptying their pockets and, even more liberally, bestowing their time on the enterprise—how liberally, only those know who have been intimately connected with it. There are other citizens of equal means, and not more actively engaged in business, who may properly be urged to share the generous burden, and hasten the time when the directors of the Museum can make it, as they would have it, practically free to all. The city authorities are lending their hearty co-operation to the erection of the permanent buildings in Central Park, but it must of necessity be several years before they can be made ready for occupation. Meantime, the temporary quarters on Fourteenth Street can be turned to excellent account as an educational storehouse, if the needed support is forthcoming. We doubt if it is generally understood that the Cesnola Collection is still the individual property of one of the trustees of the Museum, whose prompt and generous action secured it for this country. Yet such is the fact, and very little progress has been made towards raising the amount required to repurchase it, although the relinquishing of such a prize is not to be thought of, and the Museum should by all means be enabled to avail itself of the further discoveries of General di Cesnola in the same line, he having returned to his excavations in Cyprus.

—The first art college established in an American university took being on the 18th ultimo, when a Fine Arts Department was opened at Syracuse. Two courses are organized at present, architecture and painting, with which the faculty will undoubtedly find their hands full; sculpture is not yet talked about, nor is room made for any fine art addressed to the ear, except "elocution." The scheme, thus restricted to principles of design, includes those studies which give scope and intelligence to design, such as chemistry and photography, mathematics, history, æsthetics, and languages. It is truly

cheering to be promised a breed of artists who shall not be remarkable for complete ignorance of things connected with a liberal education, and Syracuse is invoked by a quack-ridden world to make all convenient haste in supplying a few practitioners with brains developed all around, like those of the great Italian painters, or, failing that, to produce a man capable of putting up a simple iron building on Broadway without any solecisms. The architectural course, we are a little surprised to observe, seems to start upon a German basis, no consciousness being betrayed of what we take for a proved fact, that the literary sinews of architectural study are in the French language *par excellence;* the Freshman, Sophomore, and Senior years are to be passed, it seems, without any French, the lessons in which tongue only occur two or three times a week in the Junior year. A corresponding hesitation in adopting the fruits of French study is seen in the painting course; and we imagine the college will find this attempt to pursue art-culture with economy of French to be a little like trying to climb a mountain with economy of air. The whole experiment, however, is a novelty. It will be watched with deep interest; and we think it not unreasonable to hope that, especially in the department of architecture, some solid results will follow upon skilled training; it is, of all the arts, most like a science, and has the largest ingredient of calculation and common sense. In painting, the institution will have, if it succeeds, a yet greater and more unexpected triumph. Though we have not a grain of faith in the divine ignorance of the artist as a condition of the sublime, yet we wait for the issue here with some little shade of scepticism which we shall be glad to see the future remove. Pedantry, dear to science, is most insupportable in art, and nothing would be gained by the bursting upon the world of numerous painters always ready to execute as it were prize poems with their brushes. American youths, as the practical comparison with foreign schools will show, are fully as apt in design as those of any country. It remains to be seen whether rigid college study is the due preparation for an exquisite art-sense—a preparation which is not so much like hammering to a highway as like sunshine to a plant. Tieing the mind to the difficult æsthetic thread, so elusive and so hard to trace, is what we take to be the true method in art-study, not confidence in rules, which leads to a bad state of intellectual repose. The successful European schools depend above all upon the personal magnetism of the great artists who conduct them. It is surprising how adroitly these men of genius shun the college tendency to rest in pedantry, precedent, boredom, and ennui. They watch their classes with pride and care, in the hope of founding a propaganda, working for nominal salaries, to the detriment of their personal affairs. The art-idea springs up quickly between them and their pupils, as a language springs up between babe and nurse. There are not observable among the professors at Syracuse men who have made a mark in the practice of art, but doubtless they are selected for their competency. We observe with admiration that landscape and portrait are taught by one gentleman, irresistibly carrying the thoughts back to Titian, the last painter known to have excelled in those branches equally. The Dean of the Faculty is George F. Comfort, A.M., an enthusiastic student of æsthetics for many years. To him and his fellow-professors belongs the critical task of proving what has not yet been proved: whether a college, that capital machine for teaching a science, is a good machine for teaching an art.

—The discussion of "Darwinism" by the Philosophical Section of the Evangelical Alliance, if not brilliant, is in some respects satisfactory. It shows that the divines are beginning to perceive what they ought to decry, and what not. When President McCosh declares "it is useless [he might have said foolish] to tell the younger naturalists that there is no truth in the doctrine of development, for they know that there is truth, which is not to be set aside by denunciation"; when he intimates that religion may have neither title nor interest to insist that species have not developed from other species, in an advance from age to age, from lower to higher forms—and by his silence leads us to infer the same of science; and when again such a champion of orthodoxy as Dr. Hodge, of Princeton, pertinently affirms that "the great question which divides theists from atheists, Christians from unbelievers, is this: Is development an intellectual process guided by God, or is it a blind process of unintelligible, unconscious force, which knows no end and adopts no means?" we may safely conclude that the time draws nigh when scientific hypotheses of the origin of species will be left to stand or fall upon their own merits, or at least be denounced with discrimination and some regard for the consequences. Dr. Hodge got his answer from a divine of his own denomination, who is also a botanist, a Rev. Dr. Brown, grandson of the doughty John Brown of Haddington—whose praise is in all the Calvinistic churches. He informed the audience that he unhesitatingly accepted the theory of development as a working hypothesis, and succinctly gave the reasons for doing so; and that he none the less held "the views advanced in the Shorter Catechism issued by the Westminster Assembly of Divines," enumerating the thirteen principal points in succession, adding that, while he did not hold "that God created all things out of nothing in the space of six days," the development doctrine was not responsible for the abandonment of that dogma. Finally, he ventured to anticipate "that the confirmation or general adoption of the hypothesis of development will ultimately exercise a beneficial influence on religion." The only note of a contrary tenor, so far as the daily report shows, was from Dr. Dawson, who appears still to hold that the Darwinian theory logically leads to atheism; that, "as regards varieties, Darwin is well enough; but, as regards species, I don't believe in it, because it comes in contact with the Bible." He has to draw the line somewhere, so he draws it at species. As to natural selection, "it is not science at all—only a bad philosophy." This is said of what an older naturalist (as quoted in another article, in which we have already referred to Dr. Dawson's view) declares to be neither a theory nor an hypothesis, but the expression of a necessary fact.

—The *Saturday Review* has collected a number of prophecies as to mundane affairs made by well-known characters which have been actually verified by the event, and suggests that a general collection of such prophecies might be brought together in a book, to be called "Secular Prophecy Fulfilled." Arthur Young, like Rousseau, predicted the French Revolution (which Dr. Moore, the author of 'Zeluco,' who travelled in France just before its outbreak, did not foresee at all). Lord Chesterfield made the same prophecy. Cobbett predicted the secession of the Southern States. Most remarkable of all, Heine predicted not only that France and Germany would fight, but that France would be utterly put down; that the line of fortifications which Thiers was at the time of the prophecy building around Paris would draw to the capital a great hostile army which would crush the city, and that the Communists would some day get the upper hand in Paris; that they would strike in a spirit of fiendish rage at the statues, the beautiful buildings, and all the other tangible marks of the civilization they sought to destroy; and that they would throw down the Vendôme Column. As the *Saturday Review* points out, these predictions, though they seem almost a proof of inspiration, are really only remarkable evidences that the men who made them thoroughly understood the strength of certain tendencies of their times. There are always a number of men in every generation who have this gift of prophecy, which seems to the vulgar mind miraculous now, just as the prediction of an eclipse seemed miraculous in the days of Columbus. In the early ages of the world, the gentlemen who had this gift went about lifting up their voice and prophesying, or delivering oracles, or attuning their voices to the lyre. Now, as the *Saturday Review* points out, they edit newspapers, and vaticinate more voluminously, more confidently and explicitly, than Jeremiah or Isaiah. They do, indeed, interfere more directly than the early seers in the daily life of their fellow-citizens; but they also do it more beneficently, as in the recent instance of the depression of gold, produced by the efforts of the *World* and the *Evening Mail*. We may notice, also, the fact that the *Liberal Thinker* prophesied, two years ago, the present financial difficulties, and even was able to predict the explosion of the Northern Pacific bubble. George Francis Train predicted both even more circumstantially. An almost equally interesting collection might be made of unfulfilled prophecies made by men of real sagacity—as, for instance, that the United States could not keep together more than a generation (which, if we remember right, was the privately expressed opinion of the elder Adams); that gold would never fall below 150, which was the belief of a number of prominent financiers in this country a few years ago, and so on. The failures as well as the successes can be explained on rational principles—they being generally caused by forgetfulness of some general tendency which, after the event, is manifest enough.

—It seems a little singular, considering what a genial disposition we generally exhibit towards foreign celebrities, that Mr. Gerald Massey's arrival on these shores has attracted so little attention. The public, perhaps, does not know who and what Mr. Gerald Massey is, but certainly ought to know, if we may rely upon the glowing account of him lately given in the columns of the *World* by one Byron Webber, who wrote to herald his arrival. Mr. Massey is a bard who, as early as the fiery days of 1848, in the pauses of the conflict between might and right, compelled men to listen to his burning words, and gave evidence that beneath these there were depths whereof his rivals gave no hint. In 1851, Dr. Samuel Smiles placed a high estimate upon his work, but Mr. Webber doubts whether Dr. Smiles "had even an approximate conception of its potentiality." Besides this, he is a *Quarterly Reviewer;* he has triumphantly solved the mystery of Shakespeare's sonnets, "and his place among the English essayists is by the side of Lamb and Hazlitt, and Macaulay and Ruskin." Mr. Webber says that, "just to begin at the beginning," he will mention that Mr. Massey was born at Tring, in Hertfordshire, in 1828. Fortunately for the world, he had a hard life as a child, and burst into song at the age of nineteen. The tyranny he

had undergone and witnessed as an errand-boy, Mr. Webber says, gave a political bias to his studies, and he became a bard of the people—a Red Republican and a Christian Socialist. This was in the fiery days of 1848. Still, it was a rough struggle with Mr. Massey for many years, till one day a happy accident occurred. One wet morning, as Mr. Hepworth Dixon, editor of the *Athenæum*, was walking along Gray's Inn Lane, he saw in a window a copy of a paper called the *Red Republican*, the letters of the heading, most vigorously and artistically drawn by W. J. Linton, being composed of daggers, spikes, and spears. These implements of death so fascinated Mr. Dixon that he stood in the wet, his eyes riveted upon the sheet (edited by Julian Harney), and in the last corner of the last page he found a poem called "The Song of the Red Republican," by Gerald Massey, beginning with the glowing words:

> "Fling out the red banner, its fiery front under
> Come gather ye, gather ye, champions of right!
> And roll round the world with the voice of God's thunder
> The wrongs we've to reckon, oppressions to smite."

This was a fortunate day for Mr. Massey; for Mr. Hepworth Dixon had discovered a new poet, and when 'Babe Christabel and other Poems' appeared, he blazoned forth the fact to the world in seven columns of the *Athenæum*. Douglas Jerrold also reviewed 'Babe Christabel' enthusiastically in *Lloyd's Newspaper*. Mr. Massey was, however, unfortunate in his publishers, and his being a Spiritualist was against him; but his acquaintance with Mr. Dixon ripened into close literary friendship and association. He joined the staff of the *Athenæum*, and "for about ten years of Mr. Dixon's editorship wrote the greater part of the reviews of poetry which appeared in that journal." The instructions as to reviewing which he received from Mr. Dixon deserve to be written in letters of gold; they were, "Be just; be generous; but when you do find a deadly ass, sling him up." Mr. Massey is now engaged on what he hopes to make his *magnum opus*. He has for some time past "been diving down to the origin of symbolism, and making out the meaning of the myths." He finds that "a great deal supposed to be lost can be reidentified, and thinks he has touched bottom in the fore-world, and found a bit of pavement which must have been laid by the earliest thinkers who created the myths." The title of the book is to be 'Myths and Mysteries Interpreted for Men.' Recent writers, Mr. Webber says, who have been exulting in the supposition that Mr. Massey's republican and revolutionary ideas have vanished, know nothing about the matter. Of course he is not likely to go over the old ground of 1848; but his future work is likely to be as much stronger than the older "as twenty-five years of grasping, intensifying rootage during that time is bound to make it."

—Perhaps some of our readers who recall a notice of an anonymous translation from the Persian of Omar Khayyam into English verse which appeared in our columns rather more than two years ago (in No. 322), may care to hear that copies, at that time very scarce, are now to be had from the publisher, Bernard Quaritch, Piccadilly, London. A third edition of this remarkable poem has been issued. On comparison with the second, we find certain verbal changes, most, though not all, being improvements. The arrangement of the quatrains, too, has been slightly altered. A certain number have been omitted; for instance, those numbered XIV., XXVIII., XCIX., CVII. Of the alterations, this may serve as a sample; it is No. CVI. in the old edition, where it read as follows:

> "Oh! if the world were but to re-create,
> That we might catch ere closed the book of fate,
> And make the writer on a fairer leaf
> Inscribe our names or quite obliterate!"

which, as amended, stands:

> "Would but some wingèd angel ere too late
> Arrest the yet unfolded roll of fate,
> And make the stern recorder otherwise
> Enregister, or quite obliterate!"

This is hardly an improvement. Another case of change without bettering is in this version of No. XLIX. of the former edition:

> "A moment's halt—a momentary taste
> Of BEING from the well amid the waste—
> And lo! the phantom caravan has reached
> The NOTHING it set out from—oh! make haste!"

As it stood it was much more impressive; it then ran:

> "One moment in annihilation's waste,
> One moment of the well of life to taste—
> The stars are setting, and the caravan
> Draws to the dawn of nothing—oh! make haste!"

We may, however, admit that these are improvements if made, as they apparently were, in order to bring out more clearly and exactly the meaning of the original, even with a consciousness of diminishing the beauty of the poetic imagery.

—The most notable of recent Italian publications is certainly Gen. La Marmora's 'Un po' più di luce sugli eventi politici e militari dell' anno 1866.' We purpose reviewing it hereafter at some length, and need only remark now that it is the product of the wounded susceptibilities of the author, which have not been spared by the Germans, and that in his attempt to throw light on the events of 1866 and vindicate his generalship and his loyalty at Custoza, he publishes private letters and telegrams which will render it extremely difficult for some of Italy's representatives to remain at or to return to certain foreign courts. The battle of Custoza and the preliminaries of the war of 1866 have also been treated in a very thorough and painstaking manner by Captain L. Chiala, the last part of whose work ('Cenni storici sui preliminari della guerra del 1866 e sulla battaglia di Custoza') appeared just after La Marmora's pamphlet. The high praise which the 'Cenni storici' has received is qualified by doubts as to Chiala's accuracy in computing the number of troops on either side, and the losses; the disparity of forces having probably been in favor of the Italians and not of the Austrians, as he represents. Perhaps we should say his method is questioned rather than his accuracy, for when we come to the actual numbers engaged, the defeat cannot be called inglorious for Italian valor. The previous stage in the liberation of the peninsula has been treated in a new Life of Cavour, which was to have been published October 1, the day of the unveiling of the Cavour monument at Turin. The author, Massari, was an intimate friend of the great premier, and formerly editor of the official *Gazzetta Piemontese*. The biography has been written with some reserve, out of regard for the living. Von Treitschke's 'Count Cavour' has been translated into Italian by A. Guerrieri-Gonzaga. Prof. Angelo De Gubernatis appears once more as an industrious and learned archæologist in his popular account of Indo-European funeral rites ('Storia popolare degli usi funebri indo-europei'). An Eastern sketch-book ('Ricordi d'architettura orientale, presi del vero') by Giuseppe Castellazzi, a meritorious pupil of the Academy of Architecture at Venice, gives the fruitful results of a year's excursion among Oriental monuments, in lithographic drawings from the author's own hand. An interesting monograph on one of the most eventful battle-grounds in all Italy, perhaps in Europe—Treviglio and the adjoining territory, in which every village has given a name to a battle—is Dr. Carlo Casati's 'Treviglio di Ghiara d'Adda e il suo territorio.' Higher up on the river Adda is Sondrio, the headquarters of the Italian Alpine Club, of which a learned committee has prepared a 'Guide to the Valtellina and its Mineral Waters,' with historical and scientific notes, making a work of no common order. A somewhat ponderous but valuable and not uninteresting contribution to the early history of Genoa is Giacomo Lumbroso's 'Sulla storia dei Genovesi avanti il MC.' The mention in it of a public seal stamped *Januensis civitas*, recalls the Anglicized form of "Janway" for "Genoese" in use as late as the time of Henry VIII. (*v.* p. 337 *Nation*, vol. xii.) Finally, we may notice the publication at Rome of a weekly *Giornale delle Colonie*, whose establishment marks the extent and importance of Italian emigration. It is a singular fact that while the growth of the German marine is directly traceable to emigration, particularly to the United States, Italy has no corresponding advantage to show for peopling other lands. Indeed, her commerce has gained no appreciable development from the opening of the Suez Canal and the piercing of the Mt. Cenis—works in which Italians performed the heaviest labor; and but for the activity of the Riviera of Genoa, the navigation statistics of the kingdom would present exactly the same aspect as in 1859.

THE ATTITUDE OF WORKING NATURALISTS TOWARDS DARWINISM.*

THAT homely adage, "What is one man's meat is another man's poison," comes to mind when we consider with what different eyes different naturalists look upon the hypothesis of the derivative origin of actual specific forms, since Mr. Darwin gave it vogue and vigor and a *raison d'être* for the present day. This latter he did, not only by bringing forward a *vera causa* in *the survival of the fittest* under changing circumstances—about which the question among naturalists mainly is how much it will explain, some allowing it a restricted, others an unlimited operation—but also by showing that the theory may be made to do work, may shape and direct investigations, the results of which must in time tell us whether the theory is likely to hold

* 'Histoire des Sciences et des Savants depuis deux Siècles, suivie d'autres études sur des sujets scientifiques, en particulier sur la Sélection dans l'Espèce Humaine, par Alphonse De Candolle.' Genève: H. Georg. 1873.

'Addresses of George Bentham, President, read at the anniversary meetings of the Linnean Society, 1862-1873.'

'Notes on the Classification, History, and Geographical Distribution of Compositæ. By George Bentham.' Separate issue from the Journal of the Linnean Society. Vol. XIII. London: Williams & Norgate. 1873.

'On Palæontological Evidence of Gradual Modification of Animal Forms, read at the Royal Institution of Great Britain, April 25, 1873, by Prof. W. H. Flower.' (*Journal of the Royal Institution*, pp. 11.)

'Memoir presented to the National Academy of Sciences, January, 1865, abstracted in the *American Journal of Science and the Arts*, 1866, etc.'

'The Story of the Earth and Man. By J. W. Dawson, LL.D., F.R.S., F.G.S., Principal and Vice-Chancellor of McGill University, Montreal.' London: Hodder & Stoughton; New York: Harper & Brothers. 1873. Pp. 403, 12mo.

good or not. If the hypothesis of natural selection and the things thereto appertaining had not been capable of being put to useful work, although, like the 'Vestiges of the Natural History of Creation,' it might have made no little noise in the world, it would hardly have engaged the attention of working naturalists as it has done. We have no idea even of opening the question as to what work the Darwinian theory has incited, and in what way the work done has reacted upon the theory; and least of all do we like to meddle with the polemical literature of the subject, already so voluminous that the German bibliographers and booksellers make a separate class of it. But two or three treatises before us, of a minor or incidental sort, suggest a remark or two upon the attitude of mind towards evolutionary theories taken by some of the working naturalists.

Mr. Darwin's own expectation, that his new presentation of the subject would have little or no effect upon those who had already reached middle-age, has—out of Paris—not been fulfilled. There are, indeed, one or two who have thought it their duty to denounce the theory as morally dangerous, as well as scientifically baseless; a recent instance of the sort we may have to consider further on. Others, like the youth at the river's bank, have been waiting in confident expectation of seeing the current run itself dry. On the other hand, a notable proportion of the more active-minded naturalists had already come to doubt the received doctrine of the entire fixity of species, and still more that of their independent and supernatural origination. While their systematic work all proceeded implicitly upon the hypothesis of the independence and entire permanence of species, they were perceiving more or less clearly that the whole question was inevitably to be mooted again, and so were prepared to give the alternative hypothesis a dispassionate consideration. The veteran Lyell set an early example, and, on a reconsideration of the whole question, wrote anew his famous chapter and reversed his former and weighty opinion. Owen, still earlier, signified his adhesion to the doctrine of derivation in some form, but apparently upon general, speculative grounds; for he repudiated natural selection, and offered no other natural solution of the mystery of the orderly incoming of cognate forms. As examples of the effect of Darwin's 'Origin of Species' upon the minds of naturalists who were no longer young, and whose prepossessions, even more than Lyell's, were likely to bias them against the new doctrine, two from the botanical side are brought to our notice through recent miscellaneous writings which are now before us.*

Before the publication of Darwin's first volume, M. Alphonse De Candolle had summed up the result of his studies in this regard, in the final chapter of his classical 'Géographie Botanique Raisonnée,' in the conclusion that existing vegetation must be regarded as the continuation, through many geological and geographical changes, of the anterior vegetations of the world; and that consequently the present distribution of species is explicable only in the light of their geological history. He surmised that, notwithstanding the general stability of forms, certain species or quasi-species might have originated through diversification under geographical isolation. But, on the other hand, he was still disposed to admit that even the same species might have originated independently in two or more different regions of the world; and he declined as unpractical and unavailing all attempts to apply hypotheses to the elucidation of the origin of species. Soon after Darwin's book appeared, De Candolle had occasion to study systematically a large and wide-spread genus—that of the oak. Investigating it under the new light of natural selection, he came to the conclusion that the existing oaks are all descendants of earlier forms, and that no clear line can be drawn between the diversification which has resulted in species and that which is exhibited in races and minor varieties.

And now, in the introductory chapter of the volume of essays before us, he informs us that the idea which pervades them all, and in some sort connects very diverse topics, is that of considering this principle of selection. Of the principle itself, he remarks that it is neither a theory nor an hypothesis, but the expression of a necessary fact; that to deny it is very much like denying that round stones will roll down hill faster and further than flat ones; and that the question of the present day in natural history is not whether there be natural selection, or even whether forms are derived from other forms, but to comprehend how, in what proportions, and by what means hereditary deviations take place, and in what ways an inevitable selection takes effect upon these. In two of these essays natural selection is directly discussed in its application to the human race; the larger one dealing ably with the whole subject, and with results at first view seemingly in a great degree negative, but yet showing that the supposed "failure of natural selection in the case of man" was an unwarrantable conclusion from too limited a view of a very complicated question. The article abounds in acute and fertile suggestions, and its closing chapter, "on the probable future of the human species" under the laws of selection, is highly interesting and noteworthy. The other and shorter essay discusses a special point, and brings out a corollary of the law of heredity which may not have been thought of before, but which is perfectly clear as soon as it is stated. It explains at once why contagious or epidemic diseases are most fatal at their first appearance, and less so afterwards: not by the dying out of a virus—for when the disease reaches a new population, it is as virulent as ever (as, for instance, the small-pox among the Indians)—but by the selection of a race less subject to attack through the destruction of those that were more so, and the inheritance of the comparative immunity by the children and the grandchildren of the survivors; and how this immunity itself, causing the particular disease to become rare, paves the way to a return of the original fatality; for the mass of such population, both in the present and the immediately preceding generation, not having been exposed to the infection, or but little exposed, has not undergone selection, and so in time the proportion liable to attack, or to fatal attack, gets to be as large as ever. The greater the fatality, especially in the population under marriageable age, the more favorable the condition of the survivors; and by the law of heredity, their children should share in the immunity. This explanation of the cause, or of one cause, of the return of pests at intervals no less applies to the diminution of the efficacy of remedies, and of preventive means, such as vaccination. When Jenner introduced vaccination, the small-pox in Europe and European colonies must have lost somewhat of its primitive intensity by the vigorous weeding out of the more susceptible through many generations. Upon the residue, vaccination was almost complete protection, and, being generally practised, small-pox consequently became rare. Selection thus ceasing to operate, a population arises which has not been exposed to the contagion, and of which a considerable proportion, under the common law of atavism, comes to be very much in the condition of a people invaded for the first time by the disease. To these we may infer vaccination would prove a less safeguard than to their progenitors three or four generations before.

Mr. Bentham is a veteran systematic botanist of the highest rank and widest knowledge. He had not, so far as we know, touched upon questions of origination in the ante-Darwinian era. The dozen of Presidential addresses delivered at anniversary meetings of the Linnean Society, from his assumption of the chair in the year 1862 down to the current year—each devoted to some topic of interest—and his recent 'Memoir on Compositæ,' summing up the general results of a revision of an order to which a full tenth of all higher plants belong, furnish apt examples both of cautious criticism, conditional assent (as becomes the inaugurator of the quantification of the predicate), and of fruitful application of the new views to various problems concerning the classification and geographical distribution of plants. In his hands the hypothesis is turned at once to practical use as an instrument of investigation, as a means of interrogating nature. In the result, no doubt seems to be left upon the author's mind that the existing species of plants are the result of the differentiation of previous species, or at least that the derivative hypothesis is to be adopted as that which offers the most natural, if not the only, explanation of the problems concerned. Similar conclusions reached in this country, from a study of the relations of its present flora with that which in earlier ages occupied the arctic zone, might also be referred to.

An excellent instance of the way in which the derivative hypothesis is practically applied in these days by a zoölogist is before us in Professor Flower's modest and admirable paper on the Ungulata, or hoofed animals, and their geological history. We refer to it here, not so much for the conclusions it reaches or suggests, as to commend the clearness and the impartiality of the handling, and the sobriety and moderation of the deductions. Confining himself "within the region of the known, it is shown that at least in one group of animals the facts which we have as yet acquired point to the former existence of various intermediate forms, so numerous that they go far to discredit the view of the sudden introduction of new species." "The modern forms are placed along lines which converge towards a common centre." The gaps between the existing forms of the odd-toed group of ungulates (of which horses, rhinoceroses, and tapirs are the principal representatives) are mostly bridged over by palæontology, and somewhat the same may be said of the even-toed group, to which the ruminants and the porcine genus belong. "Moreover, the lines of both groups to a certain extent approximate, but, within the limits of our knowledge, they do not meet." "Was the order according to which the introduction of new forms seems to have taken place since the eocene then entirely changed, or

*Since this article was in type, noteworthy examples of appreciative scientific judgment of the derivative hypothesis have come to hand: 1. In the opening address to the Geological Section of the British Association, at its recent meeting, by its president, the veteran Phillips, perhaps the oldest surviving geologist after Lyell; and, 2. that of Professor Allman, President of the Biological Section. The first touches the subject briefly, but in the way of favorable suggestion; the second is a full and discriminating exposition of the reasons which seem to assure at least the provisional acceptance of the hypothesis as a guide in all biological studies, "a key to the order and hidden forces of the world of life."

did it continue as far back as the period when these lines would have been gradually fused in a common centre?"

Facts like these, which suggest grave diversification under long lapse of time, are well supplemented by those which essentially demonstrate a slighter diversification of many species over a wide range of space—whether into species or races depends partly upon how the naturalist uses these terms, partly upon the extent of the observations or luck in getting together intermediate forms. The researches of Professor Baird upon the birds of this continent afford a good illustration. A great number of our birds which have been, and must needs have been, regarded as very distinct species, each mainly with its own geographical area, are found to mingle their characters along bordering lines; and the same kinds of differences (of coloration, form, or other) are found to prevail through the species of each region, thus impressing upon them a geographical facies. Upon a submergence of the continent, reducing these several regions to islands sufficiently separated, these forms would be unquestioned species.

Considerations such as these, of which a few specimens have now been adduced (not general speculations, as the unscientific are apt to suppose), and trials of the new views, to see how far they will explain the problems or collocate the facts they are severally dealing with, are what have mainly influenced working naturalists in the direction of the provisional acceptance of the derivative hypothesis. They leave to polemical speculators the fruitless discussion of the question whether all species came from one or two, or more; they are trying to grasp the thing by the near, not by the further end, and to ascertain, first of all, whether it is probable or provable that present species are descendants of former ones which were like them, but less and less like them the further back we go.

And it is worth noting that they all seem to be utterly unconscious of wrongdoing. Their repugnance to novel hypotheses is only the natural and healthy one. A change of a wonted line of thought is not made without an effort, nor need be made without adequate occasion. Some courage was required of the man who first swallowed an oyster from its shell; and of most of us the snail would still demand more. As the unaccustomed food proves to be good and satisfying, and also harmless, we may come to prefer it. That, however, which many good and eminent naturalists find to be healthful and reasonable, and others innocuous, a few still regard as most unreasonable and harmful. At present, we call to mind only two who not only hold to the entire fixity of species as an axiom or a confirmed principle, but also as a dogma, and who maintain, either expressly or implicitly, that the logical antithesis to the creation of species as they are is not by law (which implies intention), but by chance. A recent book by one of these naturalists, or rather, by a geologist of eminence, the 'Story of the Earth and Man,' by Dr. Dawson, is now before us. The title is too near that of Guyot's 'Earth and Man,' with the publication of which popular volume that distinguished physical naturalist commenced his career in this country; and such catch-titles are a sort of trade-mark. As to the nature and merits of Dr. Dawson's work, we have left ourselves space only to say: 1. That it is addressed *ad populum*, which renders it rather the more than less amenable to the criticisms we may be disposed to make upon it. 2. That the author is thoroughly convinced that no species or form deserving the name was ever derived from another, or originated from natural causes; and he maintains this doctrine with earnestness, much variety of argument and illustration, and no small ability; so that he may be taken as a representative of the view exactly opposed to that which is favored by those naturalists whose essays we have been considering, to whom, indeed, he stands in marked contrast in his spirit and method, being greatly disposed to argue the question from the remote rather than the near end. 3. And, finally, he has a conviction that the evolutionary doctrines of the day are not only untrue, but thoroughly bad and irreligious. This belief and the natural anxiety with which he contemplates their prevalence may excuse a certain vehemence and looseness of statement which were better avoided, as where the geologists of the day are said to be "broken up into bands of specialists, little better than scientific banditti, liable to be beaten in detail, and prone to commit outrages on common sense and good taste which bring their otherwise good cause into disrepute"; and where he despairingly suggests that the prevalence of the doctrines he deprecates "seems to indicate that the accumulated facts of our age have gone altogether beyond its capacity for generalization, and, but for the vigor which one sees everywhere, it might be taken as an indication that the human mind has fallen into a state of senility."

This is droll reading, when one considers that the "evolutionist" is the only sort of naturalist who has much occasion to employ his "capacity for generalization" upon "the accumulated facts" in their bearing upon the problem of the origin of species, since the "special creationist," who maintains that they were supernaturally originated just as they are, by the very terms of the doctrine places them out of the reach of scientific explanation. Again, when one reflects upon the new impetus which the derivative hypothesis has given to systematic natural history, and reads the declaration of a master in this department (the President of the Linnean Society) that Mr. Darwin "has in this nineteenth century brought about as great a revolution in the philosophic study of organic nature as that which was effected in the previous century by the immortal Swede," it sounds oddly to hear from Dr. Dawson that "it obliterates the fine perception of differences from the mind of the naturalist, . . . destroys the possibility of a philosophical classification, reducing all things to a mere series, and leads to a rapid decay in systematic zoölogy and botany, which is already very manifest among the disciples of Spencer and Darwin in England." So, also, "It removes from the study of nature the ideas of final cause and purpose"—a sentence which reads curiously in the light of Darwin's special investigations, such as those upon the climbing of plants, the agency of insects, etc., in the fertilization of blossoms, and the like, which have brought back teleology to natural science, wedded to morphology and already fruitful of discoveries.

The difficulty with Dr. Dawson here is (and it need not be underrated) that apparently he cannot as yet believe an adaptation, act, or result to be purposed the apparatus of which is perfected or evolved in the course of nature—a common but a crude state of mind on the part of those who believe that there is any originating purpose in the universe, and one which, we are sure, Dr. Dawson does not share as respects the material world until he reaches the organic kingdoms, and there, possibly, because he sees man at the head of them—of them, while above them. However that may be, the position which Dr. Dawson chooses to occupy is not left uncertain. After concluding, substantially, that those "evolutionists" who exclude design from nature thereby exclude theism, which nobody will deny, he proceeds (on p. 348) to give his opinion that the "evolutionism which professes to have a creator somewhere behind it" . . . "is practically atheistic," and, "if possible, more unphilosophical than that which professes to set out from absolute and eternal nonentity," etc.

There are some sentences which might lead one to suppose that Dr. Dawson himself admitted of an evolution "with a creator somewhere behind it." He offers it (p. 320) as a permissible alternative that even man "has been created mediately by the operation of forces also concerned in the production of other animals"; concedes that a just theory "does not even exclude evolution or derivation, to a certain extent" (p. 341); and that "a modern man of science" may safely hold "that all things have been produced by the Supreme Creative Will, acting either directly or through the agency of the forces and materials of his own production." Well, if this be so, why denounce the modern man of science so severely upon the other page merely for accepting the permission? At first sight, it might be thought that our author is exposing himself in one paragraph to a share of the condemnation which he deals out in the other. But the permitted views are nowhere adopted as his own; the evolution is elsewhere restricted within specific limits; and as to "mediate creation," although we cannot divine what is here meant by the term, there is reason to think it does not imply that the several species of a genus were mediately created, in a natural way, through the supernatural creation of a remote common ancestor. So that his own judgment in the matter is probably more correctly gathered from the extract above referred to and other similar deliverances, such as that in which he warns those who "endeavor to steer a middle course, and to maintain that the Creator has proceeded by way of evolution," that "the bare, hard logic of Spencer, the greatest English authority on evolution, leaves no place for this compromise, and shows that the theory, carried out to its legitimate consequences, excludes the knowledge of a Creator and the possibility of his work."

Now, this is a dangerous line to take. Those defenders of the faith are more zealous than wise who must needs fire away in their catapults the very bastions of the citadel in the defence of outposts that have become untenable. It has been and always will be possible to take an atheistic view of nature, but far more reasonable from science and philosophy only to take a theistic view. Voltaire's saying here holds true: that if there were no God known, it would be necessary to invent one. It is the best, if not the only, hypothesis for the explanation of the facts. Whether the philosophy of Herbert Spencer (which is not to our liking) is here fairly presented, we have little occasion and no time to consider. In this regard, the close of his article No. 12 in the *Contemporary Review* shows, at least, his expectation of the entire permanence of our ideas of cause, origin, and religion, and predicts the futility of the expectation that the "religion of humanity" will be the religion of the future, or "can ever more than temporarily shut out the thought of a Power, of which humanity is but a small and fugitive product, which was in its course of ever-changing manifestation before humanity was, and will continue through other manifestations when

humanity has ceased to be." If the philosophy of the unknowable of the Infinite may be held in a merely quasi-theistic or even atheistic way, were not its ablest expounders and defenders Hamilton and Dean Mansel? One would suppose that Dr. Dawson might discern at least as much of a divine foundation to nature as Herbert Spencer—might recognise in this power that "something not ourselves that makes" for *order* as well as "for righteousness," and which he fitly terms supreme creative will; and, resting in this, endure with more complacency and faith the inevitable prevalence of evolutionary views which he is powerless to hinder. Although he cannot arrest the stream, he might do something towards keeping it in safe channels.

We wished to say something about the way in which scientific men, worthy of the name, hold hypotheses and theories, using them for the purpose of investigation and the collocation of facts, yielding or withholding assent in degrees or provisionally, according to the amount of verification or likelihood, or holding it long in suspense; which is quite in contrast to that of amateurs and general speculators (not that we reckon Dr. Dawson in this class), whose assent or denial seldom waits, or endures qualification. With them it must on all occasions be yea or nay only, according to the letter of the Scriptural injunction, and whatsoever is *less* than this, or between the two, cometh of evil.

MR. BAGEHOT'S DESCRIPTION OF THE MONEY MARKET.*

PROBABLY not one per cent. of the reading public know what is meant by the "money market" of which they hear so much, or understand the process by which every few years disturbances in it endanger their fortunes or curtail their comforts. What it is, and in what manner its operations affect the community at large, Mr. Bagehot undertakes to explain in the volume before us, and he selects the London money market as his illustration, because it is by far the largest and most active in the world. Now, what constitutes the money market? Simply the collection together in one place of all the capital of the country which is not actually engaged in industrial enterprises, and is therefore available for loans; and in no place is the amount of this capital so large as in London. By far the greater portion of the spare money—that is, the money which people are not using—finds its way to London in small streams, and is there lent by the great money dealers. Individuals deposit it in the country banks, and the country banks send up whatever they are not using in their own business to the Bank of England, which thus becomes the great depository of the spare cash of the nation; and the Bank of England lends it out right and left, sometimes to those who actually use it in production, but also to those who themselves lend it again. The sum available for lending in this way on deposit was,

In London, in December, 1872	$600,000,000
In Paris, February, 1873	63,000 000
In New York, " "	200,000,000
In the German Empire	40,000,000

It will thus be seen how enormously the "loan fund" of England, as Mr. Bagehot calls it, exceeds the loan fund of any other country. In fact, the promoters of great enterprises in nearly all countries go to England to borrow the money, and if the enterprise give even a tolerable prospect of success, they never fail to get it. It is the way in which this loan fund is accumulated and managed that Mr. Bagehot seeks to make plain to us.

It is managed by all the banks and the bill-brokers, but especially by the Bank of England. The private and joint-stock banks receive deposits, and make loans; the Bank of England receives deposits, makes loans, and issues paper money; and the bill-brokers borrow money from the banks at one rate of interest, and lend it on mercantile paper at another. Not only all of the London banks and bill-brokers, but the country banks all over England and Ireland, keep their "reserves," or the money of which they have no immediate need, on call at the Bank of England, and the Bank of England lends out about three-fifths of it. In other words, the reserves of the whole country eventually find their way into the Bank of England, and are used in large part by the Board of Directors of that institution in their daily business, so that the responsibility devolving on the Bank is in Mr. Bagehot's opinion almost frightful. The superstructure of credit created on this London loan fund is enormous, and when a panic comes, as it does in every ten years, the Bank of England has to bear the brunt of it. The private banks and the joint-stock banks run to it to draw out their reserves; the bill brokers run to it to borrow, and so do the merchants, so that the amount of "accommodation" it has to supply, besides the drain on its deposits, is very great.

Taking the pound roughly at five dollars, the loans on "private securities" increased,

In 1847, from	$90,815,000 to $102 045,000
In 1857, from	102,020,000 " 156,750,000
In 1866, from	92,535,000 " 167,235,000

Now, the Bank of England has, ever since 1844, been restricted by law from issuing more than $70,000,000 in notes, except on the security of an equal amount of bullion. On each of these three occasions, however, the panic would have "broken" the Bank if the Government had not suspended the law and permitted the issue of as much paper as might be necessary to allay the prevailing terror.

This state of things fills Mr. Bagehot with alarm. He thinks that since the Bank of England is allowed to hold the ultimate reserves on which all the other banks have, in times of trouble, to fall back, there should be a clear understanding, which at present there is not, "that the Bank will replenish this reserve in times of foreign demand as fully, and lend it in times of internal panic as freely and readily, as plain principles of banking require," and he is a firm supporter of the rule that the bank should look carefully after this reserve, and should early, at the smallest sign of a drain on its bullion, stop the outflow, and draw in a fresh supply from other countries by raising its rate of interest. This caution is rendered all the more necessary by the fact that London is now more than ever the great monetary centre of Europe. Paris used to divide the honor and responsibility, but the late war has shaken confidence in the Bank of France, and now all the great sums for which individuals or governments on the Continent have no immediate use are sent to the Bank of England to be deposited on call. The German Government left a large portion of the French indemnity there in this way, and the French sent it there by paying in bills on London. In fact, there now flows from all corners of the Old World a steady stream of spare wealth to the London loan fund, to be drawn on as it is needed by bills of exchange.

The Government interferes with the money market in England by having made the Bank of England its financial agent for nearly two centuries. It keeps its money there on deposit, and in return the Bank is expected to make it loans when it wants them. The result is that it is identified with the Bank in the eyes of the world, becomes responsible for it in great commercial crises, and seems to share its credit or discredit. The system is, Mr. Bagehot thinks, a bad one; but it is now too late to abandon it and attempt anything else. It has become rooted in English political habits and traditions, and this constitutes in England a consideration of the highest order of expediency. The importance attached by the commercial world to the rate of interest charged by the Bank of England, and which causes it to be telegraphed everywhere, leads many people to suppose that the Bank has some peculiar power or authority to regulate the value of money in the London market. But the fact is that the power of the Bank over the rate is simply that of the largest dealer. When the Bank lowers its rate, the smaller lenders are forced to lower theirs. When the Bank raises its rate, the others do not always follow its example immediately, but they are pretty sure to do so soon, because their own supply is rapidly exhausted, and they are themselves compelled to resort to the Bank for more. But the Bank is prevented from making the rate too high, and keeping it up too long, by simple consideration of the effect on its business, because, like other banks, it seeks to make money by lending money. In fixing the rate, it is usually guided by the amount of bullion in its vaults.

Mr. Bagehot's chapter explaining "why Lombard Street is sometimes dull and sometimes excited," contains the rationale of commercial panics. After a commercial crisis there is a period of considerable depression, during which money in great quantities lies idle in the banks, and is offered at low rates of interest, and nothing new is undertaken in trade and industry, and people in general restrict their expenditure. After a time confidence begins to revive, and if along with its revival comes a good harvest, the revival rises into buoyancy of spirits; the money is all drawn out of the banks, and once more set to work. Prices begin to rise; the demand for commodities increases, and everybody gets into the highest spirits, and even the most cautious extend their operations, and everybody, in the general increase of confidence, is ready to trust everybody else. At last, it is found that the more hopeful and buoyant, who have been producing most actively, and trusting most largely, either begin to find difficulty in getting purchasers for their wares, or find that the persons to whom they trusted in the belief that they would produce, have not produced, and are unable to repay, and a general panic ensues. During the period of the pressure, there is a glut of money in Lombard Street, and low rates of interest. During the buoyant period, there is great activity and high rates of interest. In other words, the money market is moved by almost regularly recurring psychological cycles. Mr. Bagehot is a firm believer in the theory that panics are largely, not wholly, mental phenomena, and that they can be allayed by remedies addressed to the imagination, that is to say, by a plentiful supply of money to frightened people by the banks at the first outbreak.

* 'Lombard Street. A Description of the Money Market. By Walter Bagehot.' New York: Scribner, Armstrong & Co. 1873.

The book is in the main descriptive. Mr. Bagehot does not discuss theories of banking or currency. He simply describes and explains phenomena which everybody has every day before his eyes, and which in our day everybody ought to understand, and he explains them with wonderful lucidity. Considering the ruin which is wrought and the unhappiness which is caused in the complex commercial societies of our day by great financial errors and misfortunes, it is safe to say that there is hardly any agency just now more likely to contribute to the general well-being, than a widely diffused knowledge of the causes and marks of financial folly and unsoundness. The ignorance of the general public on all these matters is now most deplorable and most dangerous. We do not refer to the nonsense which has been poured forth by newspapers and stump-orators during the last few years about the currency and the national debt, but to the blind and barbarous terror into which loss of confidence plunges the community. The run on the banks, which attends the outbreak of every panic, by depositors who well know that no bank keeps its deposits always on hand, is one of the disgraces of our civilization. A century or two hence it will be looked back upon as one now looks back on witch-burning. To make such displays of unreasoning selfishness impossible ought to be the earnest desire now of every lover of his kind, and nothing can do this but knowledge of the nature of the great machinery of exchange and credit, and, though Mr. Bagehot's book is confined mainly to the exposition of the conditions of the English market, no one who wants to familiarize himself with the elements of financial science can do better than read it.

A New Biographical Dictionary. By Thompson Cooper, F.S.A. (New York: Macmillan & Co.)—The preface to this compact little volume (of 1,211 pages) states that the object of the work is "to present in a compendious form biographical memoirs of distinguished personages of all ages and countries, and more particularly of eminent natives of Great Britain and Ireland." And further: "Without making any invidious comparisons, it may be confidently asserted that this dictionary is the most comprehensive work of its kind in the English language, and that it comprises memoirs of hundreds of persons whose names are not to be found in any other general or special collection of biography." Mr. Cooper's language is much too unqualified. So far is he from embracing in his scheme the famous men "of all ages and countries" (excluding the living), that all the proper names of Scripture are omitted; and as for fulness, we have compared his list, from *A* to *Abruzzo*, with Dr. Thomas's 'Biographical Dictionary,' and find that the latter gives 271 titles to his 111—a superiority of at least two to one, even if we leave out of count the Scriptural and living names. Moreover, it is perfectly clear that "the hundreds of persons whose names" occur in Mr. Cooper's collection only, are not fairly to be called "distinguished personages"; and, as they constitute the sole and peculiar merit of the dictionary, the author might have been content to say of it, as we now say, that it will be found more than commonly full in British biographies, including many not heretofore thought entitled to a place in similar works of reference, but desirable to have on that very account. More than this we cannot say, and, while conceding the dictionary a place in almost any library, we must point out the defects which prevent our recommending the use of it unless controlled and supplemented by some other authority.

Our examples will mainly connect themselves with this country, but they will at the same time afford a test of the feature in which this dictionary chiefly differs from others. To begin with, there is no mention, under Henry Hudson, of his discovery of the river which bears his name, and the consequent founding of the metropolis of the Western world. Another enterprising Englishman, his contemporary, Captain John Smith, cut a sufficient figure in exploring and settling America to deserve, one would say, a larger space or greater consideration in these biographies. However, he fares better than Governor John Winthrop of Massachusetts, who is not named at all; neither is his son John, although he, too, was a New England Governor, and, what is more, a founder of the Royal Society of London. John Harvard we meet with, dying at Charles*ton* (instead of Charles*town*), Mass., and in 1688 instead of 1638. Sir George Downing, a native of London, but a graduate of Harvard College (1642), is wrongly stated to have been the son of Calybute Downing, in place of Emanuel, of Salem, Mass. Mr. Cooper's treatment of him will be thought very inadequate by those who regard him as one of the foremost of English statesmen, who, as a confidential member of Cromwell's staff, as his minister to Holland, as prompter if not author of the Navigation Act, and instigator of the capture of New Netherlands, as Secretary of the Treasury (giving his name to Downing Street), and as the originator under Charles II. of the practice of confining appropriations to the objects for which they were asked, and compelling estimates to be furnished in advance, indissolubly connected his name with some of the greatest events in the history of the Anglo-Saxon race and of modern civilization. (Even Thomas, we observe, omits this notable if not very admirable character.) William Goffe, the regicide, who lay concealed many years in Connecticut and Massachusetts, we confidently expected to find in Cooper among the "hundreds of persons," etc.; but he does not appear, nor does his companion and father-in-law Whalley. The two Anglo-Americans, Lindley Murray and Copley, are not overlooked; neither is Count Rumford, whose family name, however—Benjamin Thompson—is not given, and no allusion is made to his having planned and founded the Royal Institution. Of John Paul Jones it is not remarked that his real name was John Paul.

Neglect of the Englishmen who won for the crown and for the dominant race and language of the world this vast continent, prepares us for the neglect of their predecessors, the French and Spanish explorers: not a word of De Soto, for instance, nor of La Salle, Joliet, Marquette, or Frontenac. Champlain, it is true, is remembered, but the Lake named for him is said to be in Canada; and whereas his first voyage to Canada was undertaken in 1603, he is said to have been born in 1600! The true date, according to Parkman, is 1567. We can but think that if the independence of the United States may excuse the omissions we first pointed out, the relations of Canada to the mother country are still such as to make it only proper for Mr. Cooper to have paid more attention to the early history of this province.

Ueber das Wesen und die Geschichte der Sprache. Von Prof. W. Rösch. (Berlin: Carl Habel; New York: L. W. Schmidt. 1873.)—Number 172 of the collection of popular scientific expositions edited by Virchow and Holtzendorff, Berlin, is an essay by Prof. W. Rösch, sketching in a lively way the current views of the origin of language and the nature of its growth. A German who has any vein of rational psychology in him—and what German has not who writes about the origin of language?—is confronted at the start by a difficulty almost unknown to Anglo-Saxons. We are used to thinking that we are conscious of all our mental states, and that all men pay more or less reflective attention to themselves; but it seems to be a fixed fact of German scientific common sense that mankind were at first without reflective consciousness, and that infants are so now, and that it is a primary problem for psychology to find the way out of this original, unthinking, sensitive condition into the region of apperceptions. The number and ingenuity of the German solutions of this problem are something surprising. That language somehow does the business they are pretty well agreed, but exactly how they cannot agree. Prof. Rösch, after pecking about a little, chips the shell with a figure. As a sleeper who cries out in his dreams, and wakes himself by the noise of his cry, so, he puts it, the speechless man, as yet without reflection or knowledge of self, is moved by impressions about him to utterance, and wakes himself by his cry to reflective consciousness. Speech seems to presuppose reason, reason seems to presuppose speech; there must have been an incipient stage from which both developed with equal steps and mutual dependence.

Of what nature are the first words? Imitations of the noises made by external objects, says the bow-wow theory. Natural cries, says the pooh-pooh theory. And there is truth in both. The incipient speech is to be classed, not with mere involuntary cries, but with the partly voluntary expressive movements, like laughter, weeping, and the like. For a proper word implies something more than feeling. Words are thought; and since thought ranges so far away from sound, how can sound express it? By using analogies and resemblances, it is commonly said, between sounds, sights, tastes, and other qualities of matter and mind. But one of the latest German scholars, the too-early-lost Geiger, to whom Prof. Rösch pays a kindly and graceful passing tribute, has another theory, not yet become commonplace. He emphasizes the fact that sight plays the largest part in the development and direction of thought, and he seeks for a point where sight and hearing combine. This he finds in the movements of the human face. Language is a growth in society, and begins in an imitation, by one person, of the expression and movements of the face of another, including the vocal organs. This imitation gives vocal sound, at once reflective, voluntary, and significant, and that is speech. These sounds are simple and vague in meaning, and are made more definite by variation of tone and by gestures, till monosyllabic roots are established.

Our essayist goes on to describe the growth of language in the monosyllabic Chinese, the agglutinating and the inflecting speeches, all in the orthodox fashion. Whether all spring from a single parent speech he knows not. He magnifies the exploit of discovering the parent speech of the Indo-European family; and closes by describing the parent tribe of the Indo-Europeans as constructed by modern science. All this, and plenty more, is in thirty pages, to be had for five groschen, and makes an acceptable number of this valuable series.

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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

OCTOBER 13, 1873.

THE situation in financial affairs continues to improve slowly but surely; greenbacks are gradually returning to the proper channels of trade, and it is understood that the banks are receiving considerable amounts, although it cannot, of course, be ascertained to what extent, owing to the non-publication of the regular weekly bank statement by the Clearing-House.

The savings-banks still hold on to the currency received from the Treasury in payment for the 5-20's sold by them, and this is the principal drawback to the banks' again undertaking to pay legal tenders and National bank-notes on checks. It is urged that the savings-banks should go into the market and repurchase their 5-20's, and thus put afloat the currency which they have locked up; but the advice does not seem likely to be followed.

The National Trust Company resumes business to-day, and the Trustees of the Union Trust Company are considering the subject of resumption, which rumor says will be brought about soon.

The money market has been comparatively easy, considering its condition for the past month; rates during the week have ruled from 7 per cent. per annum to ⅛ per diem. Towards the close of the week the tendency of rates was downward, and on Saturday loans were made quite freely at 7 per cent., and ½ commission added. The improved condition of affairs is marked by the decline in the premium on legal tenders, which, at the beginning of the week, were in active demand at 1 to 1¼ per cent. premium against certified checks, while at the close they were quoted at ¼ to ½ per cent.

Two failures are reported since our last: Messrs. Wylie & Knevals, sugar brokers, and Messrs. Gibson, Casanova & Co., bankers. The latter firm came to grief through advances made to a new railroad; their business was principally with Cuba, where the firm was well known and highly respected.

Commercial paper moves rather more freely, with rates quoted at 15 to 24 per cent. per annum. We hear of sales of good names at 18 per cent.

No change was made in the Bank of England rate of discount on Thursday, which remains at 5 per cent. The Bank lost £617,000 in bullion during the week.

The committee appointed by the Stock Exchange to investigate the transactions of John Bonner with the Bank of North America has made its report, which we publish, as it may prove interesting in showing the manner in which the banks have been in the habit of over-certifying brokers' checks, and the danger of so doing. The following is the report:

"By the evidence submitted to your Committee in the matter, the following summary of facts appears to be established:

"About 12:30 o'clock on Saturday, the 20th of September, John Bonner was sent for by a banking-house, to whom he had paid a check certified by the Bank of North America for a loan, and told that there were rumors in circulation unfavorable to the bank, and they desired him to take back the check and return the securities. This he was unable to do, and they notified him that they would hold him responsible for the check if it was not paid by the Bank of North America, through the Clearing-House, on Monday. On his return to his office, he found other parties waiting, demanding the return of their property, and insisting on his taking back the certified checks which he had given. Mr. Bonner proceeded to the Clearing-House, and was informed that the Bank of North America had not effected its clearances of the day before, and that the Vice-President was endeavoring to borrow $200,000. He determined not to pay out any more checks of this bank, more of which he held certified, but returned them at once to the teller, and refused to receive any more stocks from other parties. Mr. Bonner had checks certified by the bank that morning for about $356,000; he had deposited early about $124,000, which, with a balance of $60,000 to his credit, made his overdraft about $172,000. He took legal advice, and found that he would be held responsible for all the checks he had drawn that day if the Bank of North America should be unable to make good its clearances on Monday morning. He then determined to raise the money for the overdraft and deposit it with Mr. Leverich, of the Clearing-House Committee, in trust, to be paid to the Bank of North America, at the Clearing-House, on Monday, in the event of their paying the checks they had certified for his account. Had the Bank of North America been unable to protect their certified checks, the money in the hands of Mr. Leverich was to be applied towards payment of Mr. Bonner's checks, so far as it would go. After making this arrangement, he called on Mr. Donaldson, and notified him of the step he had taken. Under no circumstances could the Bank of North America lose money by Mr. Bonner's transaction. On the ensuing Monday, when the clearances were made, the Bank of North America charged the Bank of New York, on its clearing ticket, with $172,000, which was duly paid over, and the transaction closed. On a careful consideration of all the circumstances, the Committee have come to the conclusion that Mr. Bonner should be exonerated from any dishonorable act or intent."

The trouble experienced by the Bank of North America, together with the great dissatisfaction expressed by merchants at the custom of Wall Street banks in allowing brokers to overdraw their bank accounts, will undoubtedly lead to a discontinuance of the practice and the establishment of a stock clearing-house organized somewhat upon the plan suggested by Mr. Groesbeck, mentioned in these columns some weeks ago.

The stock market has been quite active during the week, and, at times the fluctuations were wide, indicating an unsettled feeling and the belief that the rapid advance of the previous week in the prices of nearly everything on the list would not hold. This turned out to be true as the week advanced. Prices gave way, and towards the close the market had fallen heavily below the prices current on Monday. The result of the bankruptcy proceedings in the case of George Bird Grinnell & Co., before Judge Blatchford, was eagerly looked for by Wall Street, as upon this decision important business transactions depend, and it is not unlikely that a new interpretation will be given to the bankrupt law, seriously affecting the interests of parties who have made loans upon collaterals to the firm in question, and which threatens to leave them in no better condition than those who have unsecured claims. Judge Blatchford, after hearing the arguments of the lawyers representing both sides, reserved his decision till next Saturday, when the case comes up again, though he has modified his injunction so far as to permit the sale of certain securities held as collateral. The final disposition of the matter, however, is still anxiously awaited by the "Street."

The following shows the highest and lowest sales of the leading stocks at the Stock Exchange for the week ending October 11:

	Monday.		Tuesday.		Wed'day.		Thursday		Friday.		Saturday		Sales.
N. Y. C & H. R..	94⅛	96	93⅛	95	91¼	93¼	90⅛	92½	90⅜	92	90¾	91¾	49,200
Lake Shore.....	77⅛	80¼	74⅞	78	72⅜	75⅞	70¼	73⅝	71¾	72½	69¾	72½	92,400
Erie.....	49¼	50	47⅞	49⅝	47¾	49	47⅜	49⅛	47⅞	48¼	46½	47⅝	16,200
Do pfd.....	70¼	70⅝	64⅞	69¾	69	....	68¼	....	....	....	....	....	.....
Union Pacific....	20½	21⅜	20¼	20⅝	19	20¼	19	19⅝	19¼	20	19⅛	20¼	29 200
Chi. & N. W.....	45¼	46	44⅝	46	44	45½	41¾	44	42⅜	43¼	42	43⅝	9 300
Do. pfd..	....	71	69¾	71	69	69¾	67	69	65½	....	65	65½	2,900
N. J. Central.....	....	95	93½	94	93	94	92	93½	9 ½	....	92	92½	800
Rock Island.....	94½	97	94	96	92½	95	88¼	92	89	90¼	90⅞	91⅞	24,200
Mil. & St. Paul...	34⅜	35½	33⅜	34⅞	33¼	34⅜	31	33	31⅜	32⅛	31	32	12 300
Do. pfd..	58½	....	59½	61	58	59½	57	59¼	56	....	55	55⅜	1,500
Wabash.....	47⅞	49½	46¼	48⅜	45	47¼	43	45⅝	44⅛	44⅞	43⅜	45¼	87,900
D., L. & W.....	92⅜	93⅜	91½	92⅞	90	91⅜	89	90	89¼	89⅝	89⅜	90¼	6,600
O. & M.....	24½	30⅜	28⅜	30	28	29¼	26	28⅛	26¼	27⅛	26⅜	27⅜	21 600
C., C. & I. C.....	24	21½	23⅜	24	22⅛	23¼	21⅜	23⅜	21¼	....	....	....	4,900
W. U. Tel.....	69½	73½	68⅜	72¼	67¾	71⅜	58	68½	69	62	61¼	65	186,800
Pacific Mail.....	35⅞	37¼	34⅝	35⅞	33	35¼	32	33½	33⅜	32⅞	32⅜	33½	20,600

Government bonds show a considerable falling off in prices, as compared with quotations early in the week, which is attributable to the decline in gold. Besides this, many holders have been selling and investing the proceeds in good railroad bonds and stocks, as the latter have declined very much more than Governments, and the exchange offers a very good margin for profit.

Gold has steadily declined during the week, and the lowest price since the war has been reached. The market opened at 110 on Monday, and on Tuesday the highest price was reached—110⅜. The price commenced to decline from this point, until on Saturday the indicator marked 108⅛. The arrival of between $3,000,000 and $4,000,000 in specie from Europe, with the prospect of considerable further receipts, has been the main cause of the decline in the premium. There was no "bull party" to support the market; and unless the demand for foreign exchange increases, there is at present no real cause for any important deviation from current quotations.

BOOKS BY MAIL.

Orders for books will be filled by the *Nation* subject to the following conditions, which must be strictly observed:

1. That the money be forwarded in advance whenever the price is known.

2. That enquiries as to price or other particulars be accompanied by a *stamped* and addressed envelope for the reply. (These enquiries should be as *specific* as the knowledge of the writer will permit. It is presumed that in most cases the name of the work, of the author, or of the publisher can be given.)

3. That both money and books shall pass through the mails at the risk of the purchaser.

THE NATION,

5 Beekman Street,

P. O. Box 25. New York City.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 23, 1873.

The Week.

THERE has been a rumor during the week—since denied, however—that Jay Gould was about to retire from Wall Street, owing to impaired health and other causes. If it were true, it would cause the press considerable embarrassment. Jay Gould has long served as the great newspaper devil, who puts rival editors up to all manner of wickedness, besides causing all the trouble in the financial world. Sometimes he makes stocks too high, at other times too low, besides "locking up gold and currency," and raising the rate of interest in wicked defiance of the usury laws, and inspiring our youth with the spirit of gambling. In fact, if we are to believe half what we hear, his day is passed somewhat as follows: Rising early, he creeps out and waters the milk of his neighbors, and steals the morning papers from their front door; and, as he goes down-town, passes off counterfeit money in small amounts in the more crowded stores. On reaching his office, he makes his combinations for running up whatever stocks rise during the day, and depressing those that fall, and for making corners in gold and greenbacks. He then goes out and tries to induce cashiers to speculate with the bank funds, and confidential clerks to forge checks and run off with the proceeds, and, returning to his desk, writes elaborate directions to the editors of the *Times*, *Tribune*, and *World* for their financial and stock articles on the following day, with criticisms on the mode in which they have carried out his directions of the previous day, enclosing, when he is well satisfied, a small douceur. Towards night, he spreads reports that the Pennsylvania Central, the United States Trust Co., and perhaps the Bank of England, are going to fail, and goes calmly up-town to Delmonico's, picking pockets all the way, and, after a gluttonous and solitary repast, reaches his home, and retires to bed cursing and blaspheming.

Henry Ward Beecher delivered a lecture on Monday evening which ought to do good, if the preaching of common sense in exciting times ever does any. He maintained, contrary to the cant which always begins to fill the air after a financial panic, that it is a good thing to get rich, if one can do so honestly; that, when one is rich, it is right and proper to surround one's self with beauty and comfort. In fact, the history of civilization in its best sense, as everybody ought to remember, even when Rock Island is selling at 90, is the history of the efforts of great numbers of men to make money. The great triumphs of art and literature and science have all been achieved in communities successfully striving after wealth, and not among people who lived on black broth and carried iron coins. He also made some useful remarks on the old doctrine that it is only among farmers that honest men are found, and that there is a necessary and constant connection between green fields and virtue. He said, and said truly, that of all the members of our legislatures farmers are the easiest to buy and the readiest to be seduced. Their denunciations of the railroad men as thieves and swindlers when they want them to carry their grain for a trifle are, therefore, at least immodest. There is probably more temptation withstood successfully in Wall Street in a single day than "the bone and sinew of the country" resists in ten years. There is no time when it is more necessary for us to clear our heads of cant—which is at all times one of man's first duties—than when stocks are very low and money tight. The cheap, sick-bed morality of a panic is anything but strengthening. We ought not to have to look at the money article of our morning paper in order to decide whether we shall be good through the day.

The *Economist* thinks that it is hardly possible to overestimate the good effect, in calming the panic, of telegraphic communication with Europe. It is only fair to admit, of course, that there is a drawback at times in the "echoing power" of the Cable—each money market being troubled by bad news of the other, and the bad news tending to accumulate; but the telegraph works against panics in two important ways. It has, in the first place, materially shortened the time within which assistance can be rendered; the failure of Jay Cooke & Co. was almost immediately followed by the shipment of gold from England. But, in the second place, the shipment of gold has an effect before it arrives, because the telegraph announces it, and the mere knowledge that gold is on its way is likely to allay panic and revive credit. In 1857, the crisis broke out about the end of September, but the news did not reach England till the middle of October, and this country had a whole month to live without receiving help, or knowing of its probable arrival.

Some time since, the firm of F. R. Sherwin & Co., 78 Broadway, issued confidential circulars announcing that they had opened the business of forming "syndicates" of $5,000 each, on the same principle as those which had become so popular on the different bourses of Europe, enabling persons of small means, and those who desired only to risk a certain specific amount, to take their chances on the stock market, and at the same time to limit their losses to the amount of their shares. Each syndicate was to be composed of 100 shares at $50 a share, and when all the shares were taken operations were to commence immediately, and to continue for a period of three months, when the syndicate would be closed, a statement made to the shareholders, and the amounts due them held on deposit and subject to their order. At or before this time, one Charles H. Phelps was engaged in the "railroad, telegraph, and express business" in the South and Southwest. In 1871, he came to New York, went into the "commission business" under the name of "Charles H. Phelps & Co.," opened two stores, at 238 Front Street and at No. 33 Peck Slip. The only thing known about the character of his business, which lasted two months, consists of an extract from reports of certain commercial agencies to merchants, "Use great caution; on all goods sold them, or sent for sale, cash down should be had before delivery"; and the following "record," also from commercial agency books: "August, 1871, store and offices well filled up, but no stock. October, swindling concern, and closed." Mr. Phelps next reappeared as cashier in the State Treasury at Albany, and, availing himself of the "banking facilities" afforded by F. R. Sherwin & Co., has robbed the State of some $150,000, by the simple process of stealing drafts and depositing them to his own account, for which offence he is now on trial.

In politics, Phelps had once been a weigher in the Custom-house, in which position he was honorably acquitted of the charge of selling offices, was removed from office by Thomas Murphy for political reasons, and was for a few months "in the Chief Clerk's office at Police headquarters." He was appointed cashier by Raines, the State Treasurer, on the usual recommendation from a "large number of prominent citizens" of his own county. The manner in which the public business at Albany is conducted may be inferred from the affidavit of Deputy-Treasurer Paul, who swears that he signed the endorsements of two drafts prepared for him by Phelps, without looking to see to whom they were made payable. The endorsements were to one Hudson, cashier of Sherwin & Co., and Mr. Paul says he "supposed" that they were to one of the State depositaries. To make such a mistake as this without "criminal negligence" appears to us to be a physical impossibility.

The railroad question in Minnesota has been solved by an opinion of the Supreme Court of that State deciding that the legislature has the full right to fix the rates of tolls, and that it may make them reasonable or unreasonable as it pleases. What the legislature grants to a railroad is a right to take "some toll"; but if this means, as is commonly supposed, "reasonable tolls," then, the Court asks, what becomes of the right to regulate transportation, which every one admits is vested in the legislature? "The State has conferred upon the defendant (the Winona and St. Peter Railroad Company) the right to make some charge—*i. e.*, to take some toll—not any specified rate of tolls, nor to take tolls within any designated limits, nor to take reasonable tolls. The right conferred is simply to take tolls." This is a wholesome decision, but it does not seem to us to go far enough. The country will never have any real repose until we have a double-track, steel-rail freight-road laid down from every man's door to deep water, a constitutional amendment limiting the rates on a bushel of corn from Chicago to New York to 14 cents, and all holders of "watered stock" condemned to hard labor for life.

We were wrong, it seems, in saying last week that the Senate Transportation Committee had disbanded. The Committee is still holding meetings, and its latest enquiries have been into the "terminal facilities" of New York. For the purpose of getting to the bottom of the subject, the Committee has examined the Hell Gate excavations, and explored the submarine chambers which General Newton has been making in that part of the East River. The bed of the river has been at this point almost completely undermined, and, when the work is finished, the supporting rock is to be blown away, the bed to fall, and the channel to be thus deepened. According to the newspaper reports of their visit, each member of the Committee was furnished with a torch, and, with Senator Windom at their head, they went through the chambers, and were much struck with what they saw in them. On their return to the sunlight, the reports all agree that "the talk reverted easily and naturally to terminal facilities and cheap transportation." We notice a disposition on the part of some of our contemporaries to ridicule the proceedings of this Committee, because it seems to have no definite object in view; but what of that? Its members are earnest, thoughtful, and enquiring men, and they probably understand one important branch of the cheap transportation question—that of getting themselves cheaply transported—as well as any men in the country.

The trouble which has for a long time been hanging over the farmers' movement has at last broken out in the shape of a quarrel with the Boston Grange. It was noticed at the time of the formation of this Grange that there were suspicious circumstances connected with it, and its managers are now accused of making use of its organization for political ends, an alliance with the "Loring wing" of the Republican party being suspected. This, however, is the inevitable end and catastrophe of all such movements. It has come very early in Massachusetts, because Massachusetts is not an agricultural State; but it must come in the Western States, as the farmers will discover when the legislatures meet, and the gentlemen who have been figuring during the summer as farmers' candidates take their seats at the various State capitals as full-blown politicians.

The Treasury has insisted upon it that the square flat-bottomed boats or scows carrying coal on the canal between the Pennsylvania mines and the port of Wilmington, are boats requiring to be furnished with enrolments and licenses, and the Custom-house officials have seized several boats belonging to poor men, and subjected them to heavy expenses. The matter has been carried into the Federal district courts, where the Government has been beaten in three several cases in three different courts; taken up to the circuit court on appeal, where the Government has been again beaten, with costs. Nevertheless, the following extraordinary order to the Custom-house has been issued from the Treasury: "The Department has been informed that the judges of the district courts of the United States for the eastern district of Pennsylvania and the district of Maryland have decided that canal-boats are not required by law to be provided with enrolments and licenses. This Department *does not acquiesce in their decisions*, but holds that such boats must be provided with the documents in question, or pay 'alien tonnage tax' of one dollar per ton, under Section 6, Act of February 18, 1792, upon coming out of a canal into the navigable waters of the United States." In other words, the Secretary of the Treasury formally announced his intention to disregard the decisions of the courts of law, and continue to levy a tax which they had pronounced illegal. The counsel for the boatmen, thereupon, prepared articles of impeachment against him, and reported him to the President, reminding the latter that he had felt called upon to overturn the State government of Louisiana by force of arms, through reverence for the orders of a drunken Federal judge in New Orleans—orders, too, which a majority of the Judiciary Committee of the Senate had pronounced unauthorized and void. This brought out Mr. Richardson with a disavowal of the letter, which he said was the work of a subordinate, and unauthorized by him. This, of course, ends the matter; but the public will hardly be satisfied with the excuse. That a Treasury subordinate should, in the absence of his chief, dare to declare that the Department did not "acquiesce" in the decisions of the United States courts, and order Custom-house officers to disregard it, seems most extraordinary; but, besides giving one a queer idea of Treasury discipline, it is another natural consequence of the glaring disregard of law of which both Mr. Richardson and Mr. Boutwell have from time to time been guilty in their administration of the national finances.

When the Samana Bay Company acquired its franchise in San Domingo from President Baez, last winter, we predicted (Jan. 23, 1873) that "the next thing would be to get the United States in some manner involved in the affair, so as to compel it to take possession of the Dominican Republic." We confess, however, that we had no idea that the "next thing" would occur so soon. It now appears that Baez, the patriot who was ready to sell his country to the United States two years ago, has not even the power to defend the Company to which he has granted such wonderful privileges. The barbarous population of the interior are now in arms against him, and threaten to descend on Samana Bay and "clean out" the intruders, as they regard them, to whom he has conveyed so much of Dominican soil. Nothing is more natural, and we were going to say more proper. Were we Dominicans, we should, during the fruit season, harass the Company incessantly. But the Company not unnaturally resists this interference, and Dr. Howe, and Mr. Fabens, and Mr. O'Sullivan have come to Washington to urge the Government to protect them. We trust there is no occasion to protest against the Government doing anything of the kind. We have neither men nor money to spare for any such enterprise. The Company well knew what its risks were when it took its charter. Moreover, it obtained among other concessions from the Baez Government the right to maintain an army and navy. It is fair to expect, therefore, that it will imitate its great prototype, the East India Company, and defend itself against the barbarians sword in hand. If it does, we shall all be proud of it. A very small force of enlisted men, under another Clive, would soon send the enemies of the Company flying through the palms and flowers, over the "ever-flowing brooks," and even drive them into the "ever-tepid crystal seas," which Dr. Howe described to us in his letter announcing the formation of the Company. Indeed, Clive would have been up in the mountains by this time after the enemy, in light marching order, full of yams and bananas and fight.

Apparently, the official count of the vote will be required to determine whether Mr. Allen or General Noyes is elected Governor of Ohio, but as we write, the probability seems to be that General Noyes is defeated by a handful of votes, running a little behind his ticket, the rest of which is now believed to be elected, while Mr. Allen runs a little ahead of the other Democratic candidates. This result has caused some surprise, and explanations are naturally numerous. The truth appears to be that a very large number of voters who usually act with the Republican party have been so much disgusted with the revelations of the past few months that they would not go to the polls. In the public conduct of the party magnates from President Grant and Mr. Jay Cooke down to Mr. Charles H. Phelps, there has been nothing to incite citizens to take trouble for the purpose of keeping the party in power. The voters therefore stay at home in large numbers, and in the districts where the Republican majorities have been heaviest the falling off is the plainest to be seen. As to how much of a Democratic revival this is to be called, there is a wide difference of opinion, our own, we are free to say, being that the question is one hardly worth discussing; but that there will be some abatement of Republican insolence it is quite safe to predict. A result of this contest which will not be regretted by many people outside of Ohio is that, the Democrats having got control of the Legislature, Mr. Thurman will be retained in his seat in the Senate, where, as is generally admitted, he does good service. The effect on our New York politics of General Noyes's defeat and the reduction of the Republican majority in Iowa and its total disappearance in Oregon, will probably be seriously damaging to the Republican candidates.

Stokes is being tried a third time for the murder of Fisk, and there seems a greater probability now of his escape than ever. The good effect of delay in a trial of this sort was well illustrated by the appearance on the stand of a new witness for the defence, one Patrick Logan, a Catholic policeman, who had been discharged from the police force in 1871 for refusal to do his duty during the Orange riots, and who was consequently nominated by his friends for the Assembly. He swears that some of the principal witnesses for the prosecution confessed to him that they were tampered with, and he tells his story in a straightforward way, but it does not seem really to amount to much, for it consists simply in the fact that the witnesses learnt their testimony by heart, which is not an uncommon thing for witnesses of a low order to do, and that they "expected" to get a great deal of money, though it does not appear that they were ever promised any. Still, the evidence makes a great deal of impression. If the trial lasts long enough, we may reach a point where it will be doubted whether Fisk ever was killed at all.

The Opposition in Canada have gained a great victory in the Pacific Railway scandal, and forced the Government to throw up the contract out of which the scandal grew. Considering the amount of money involved, and the magnitude of the political interests bound up with the Pacific Railway scheme, this victory deserves to be recorded in brass as a monument, even in these latter days, of the power of public opinion when founded on justice and truth. The Government appointed the court of investigation, subpœnaed the witnesses, and conducted the examination, strenuously denying the charges throughout. We observe that it is now said the abandonment of the contract was a foregone conclusion from the beginning, but there are always such foregone conclusions at the end of a battle. The English press has generally denounced the corruption practised by the Dominion Government, and the *Saturday Review* has again drawn upon itself, in consequence of its denunciation, the old reproach of being a "cynical Tory organ." As troubles never come single, Sir John Macdonald will be embarrassed at the next session by the presence, as a delegate from Manitoba, of M. Louis Riel, who some three years since was the head of a rebellion in that region, and as such put to death a British subject, and thus caused a price to be put upon his own head. He has since been nominally an outlaw, although the Opposition press have long affirmed that Sir John Macdonald was bound by a private agreement, made with the French party, to condone Riel's offence. This Sir John has denied, even appealing publicly to the Searcher of all hearts to bear him witness that he very much wished to catch the Provisional President, so-called, and bring him to trial for "foully murdering Thomas Scott after a mock trial." But it is now confessed that, at the time of making this appeal, Sir John, the late Sir George Cartier, and the Government generally, were under a pledge that Riel should not be harmed. Altogether, Canadian politics do not improve on inspection, however we look at them.

Castelar is doing all that he can do to restore order in Spain. He has not only "called out the reserves," which may mean something or nothing, but has fixed death or perpetual imprisonment as the punishment of mutiny, and he has restored all the artillery officers who resigned on account of the Hidalgo affair to their old rank in the service. His proposal to convert the public debt by substituting six per cents at forty for the present bonds, has been rejected by the Committee of Spanish bondholders in London, who ask for security. In the meantime, the insurgent fleet continues its antics along the coast. The Government squadron, under a new admiral, has retired before it, and at the date of the latest advices it was off the harbor of Valencia, threatening the town with bombardment, and troops were going from Madrid to assist in the defence. The foreign admirals, however, insist on ninety-six hours' notice to enable foreign residents to make their escape, and it is hardly probable that Contreras, the Intransigente leader, will either feel that he can wait so long, or that it would be safe to begin sooner. The last despatches make it likely that he will take his departure, if he can get supplies from the shore.

There is a variety of opinions about the chances of the Monarchy in the French Assembly. M. Léon Say, who is a knowing man, says the Republicans will have a majority, while M. John Lemoinne, who is also a knowing man, predicts the restoration as certain on the opening of the Assembly. M. Lemoinne's opinion, however, seems on the whole more likely to be correct. The Monarchists declare they are sure of their game, and they would hardly push forward their arrangements with so much boldness if they were not. There is also a variety of stories about these arrangements. One is, that the crown will be offered to the Comte de Chambord, who will accept it, and with it a constitution and the tricolor, and pending his arrival will appoint MacMahon Lieutenant-General with full powers. Another is, that if modern ideas are more than the Count can swallow, he will abdicate immediately after his arrival at Versailles, and the Comte de Paris take his place. In the meantime, the Duc d'Aumale, who is popularly, and probably correctly, supposed to be the guiding mind of the Orléans family, is, as our politicians say, "laying low"; and he is, in appearance at least, wholly absorbed in the Bazaine court-martial, of which he is president, and apparently takes no part or interest in the monarchical movements. In the meantime, he presses poor Bazaine hard in that cross-examination to which every French culprit is subjected, and probably is none the less zealous for the fact that he is probing Imperialism as well as convicting the Marshal. The latter stands the cross-examination badly, and in fact, if the telegraphic summary is to be believed, has already admitted that during the siege political considerations weighed a good deal with him in making his military plans, and in particular the consideration that the Government at Paris was what he called "an insurrectionary government." But there is the testimony of Marshal Lebœuf that his (Bazaine's) responsibility did not begin till August 12; that is, that up to that date the Emperor was in command.

THE APPROACHING ATTEMPT TO RID US OF AN ELECTIVE JUDICIARY.

THE people of the State of New York will be asked at the next election to say whether the experiment of an elective judiciary which they set the example of trying twenty-seven years ago has proved satisfactory, and whether they are now willing to go back to the old method of appointment. The question is perhaps as important a one as has ever been submitted to them, but it is a curious and instructive fact that neither of the political parties now in the field says one word about it in its platform. It is all the more curious and instructive because the doings of the Republican Convention were substantially regulated, and the platform drafted or approved, by Senator Conkling, who is talked of as a candidate for the Supreme Court of the United States, and whom his followers have of late been exhibiting to the public as a model politician. When the expediency of prolonging the terms of the judges was submitted to the people two years ago, the political managers in like manner abstained cautiously from lending it any countenance, and in this city absolutely failed to supply ballots for a vote on it, and would have defeated it in other parts of the State if they had not overestimated the popular indifference to it. There is nothing very surprising in this, when we remember that the election of judges for short terms has made an enormously valuable addition to the "spoils" which each party has to divide after the victory, and that the removal of the judges from the arena of party would considerably diminish the excitement and attraction of the politician's trade.

In the absence of all support from the regular party machinery, of course the zealous attention of the mass of good citizens who have no interest in spoils to the proposed amendments is all the more necessary for their success, and to this class Mr. Dorman B. Eaton appeals in a pamphlet on the history and results of the election of judges in this State, which ought to be in everybody's hand, and which we cordially commend to the perusal of every thinking man. The story Mr. Eaton tells is familiar enough to most inhabitants of this city at least, but there are some points in it which are both novel and suggestive. One is the manner in which the change in the mode of selecting judges was brought about in 1846. It was one of the greatest changes in the political history of the race, for it threw aside that ideal of the judicial position which had for four centuries been one of the most prominent objects in the great movement for limiting the authority of the crown, out of which nearly all of what are called constitutional principles have grown; and it even promised, as the commonest experience of human nature must have told everybody, to produce very startling modifications in the relations of the courts to the community at large. Nevertheless, the portion of the report devoted to it only occupied two pages, and the reporter, Mr. Ruggles, only said a few words about it. The most eminent members of the Convention opposed it, but the politicians did not even give themselves the trouble to debate it. It was carried on a pure theory evoked from a few Jeffersonian breasts, and so exactly adapted was it to the peculiar needs of managers and wire-pullers, that here in New York, where its evils have almost disgraced human nature, the Democratic managers now openly oppose any return to the older and better system, and the Republicans scarcely say a word in its favor. The *World* inveighs against any change. The *Tribune*, of the leading city papers, is left almost alone to advocate a recurrence to the mode of selecting judges which made the New York bench one of the glories of American law and letters—and this in just one year after the conviction of Barnard, the death of McCunn, and the flight of Cardozo. So lightly does our shame sit upon us, and so little impression has been made by one of the plainest experiments ever tried by a political community.

If everything that has been said in favor of an elective judiciary were true, there would still remain these two inherent evils in the system—first, that it inevitably tends to the selection of second-class instead of first-class lawyers for the bench; second, that it makes the same man a poorer judge than he would have been if he had not been dragged through the mire of a political convention and the dust and turmoil of a popular election. It is asserted, and it cannot be denied, that in some portions of the State the judicial nominations have been controlled by the bar, that no gross abuses have happened, and that generally very respectable gentlemen, of unquestionable legal ability, have been placed upon the bench. Hence it is an easy inference to the local reasoner that "the system seems to work well." Conceding that it does, we concede nothing more than that in those judicial districts where litigation is least in amount and least in importance—where, in short, the judiciary is the least tried—there the elective system does in a measure approximate to the old system, which died in 1846 with a reputation not only unblemished but exalted. The fact remains that the tendency of the present system—that is to say, the tendency of a political convention—is to select candidates for the bench from among the pretentious, the plausible, the obtrusive, the speech-making members of the bar, and to overlook those quiet, diligent, unobtrusive characters which are peculiarly the material out of which judges should be made. The additional fact also remains that the best members of an elected judiciary would be better judges—more independent, fearless, and impartial, so far as their individual character is involved—more respected and influential, so far as their official functions are concerned—if they had not been subjected to the officious zeal of personal friends, the condescension of political managers, and the calumny and detraction and criticism that make a part of every election. In every country, and in none more so than in our own, it is essential to the usefulness of the judiciary, to its moral power, and, in matters of right, to its controlling influence, that it be composed of good men, who, in addition to their subjective merits, shall be invested with the official attribute of being believed in. It is beyond the powers of human nature to allow its politicians of the baser sort, its Bohemians of the press, to pelt the candidate with mud during the campaign, and then believe that his new ermine will for ever remain unsullied because he had the most votes, and succeeded, notwithstanding the mud, in getting upon the bench.

The selfishness of human nature is probably nowhere more clearly illustrated than in the local selfishness of communities. It was this selfishness of locality which was the chief impediment in the framing of the Constitution, and which came so near defeating the consummation of the Union. It is the same selfishness which to-day is endeavoring to dishonor the State by keeping up a system which directly degrades her judiciary, and which has proved a grievous wrong to three-fourths of her people. There are men really thinking themselves upright and respectable, proud of being citizens of so great a State, yet who are ready to connive at maintaining a system which, more than all other things, has tended to make the name of New York infamous throughout the civilized world, and who have no other justification to offer than that the evil does not directly affect themselves. Of course such reasoning is fallacious, and demonstrates not only a moral turpitude but a logical obtuseness. No district can isolate itself and be long independent of a prevailing evil. The degradation of a part of a community cannot be confined to the part for ever. And when the part thus affected really embraces a majority of the population, three-fourths of the judicial business, and all of the centres of trade, commerce, and manufactures, it is very clear that the remotest district must catch something of the contagious influence. After the frightful warning we have had, the judicial ordeal through which we have passed, and the cruel wrongs that have been inflicted by that branch of our State government which all civilization designates as the bulwark against wrong and oppression, any man who from fancied isolation can say that the evils of an elective judiciary are no concern of his, has certainly something wrong in both intellect and moral nature.

So far as facts are involved, it is idle to rehearse them. Facts, such as have not disgraced our Anglo-Saxon civilization for two or three hundred years, if there was ever a parallel to them, have been spread before the public everywhere by the press, and authenticated by official investigation. We may, however, say that while the evil

was intensest in this city, and was brought out by a persistent bar and a powerful metropolitan press, it has not been confined to the city. It is true that here the abuses actually reached the enormity of becoming a system, but weak judges, improper influences, and a partial administration of both civil and criminal justice, have occurred elsewhere under our elective system, and so frequently and to such an extent that the system is properly chargeable with them. How hard it is to establish such charges, how tardy and timorous the bar is about making them, we have all seen demonstrated here, where the burden had become unbearable. But how many wrongs have fallen in isolated cases upon the weak and the poor and upon the community where criminal jurisprudence is involved, nobody can surmise. We all believe that there have been bad judges upon the bench out of the First Judicial District, but not bad enough or bold enough to arouse the necessary storm which seems a condition precedent to official punishment.

If any man can persuade himself that "what has been" is exclusively the fault of this community, and not of the elective system, and that it need not happen again, let him seriously look at the inherent advantages and disadvantages of the two systems. First let him apply to them the tests of success and failure. The old system gave us sometimes great jurists and always good judges. Such men as Livingston and Kent and Spenser, it is true, are not to be found every day by any system, and will be regarded by most persons as peculiarly men of their time. No system can be expected to create great men, and we can ask nothing more than that it shall select the best. This the system by appointment did, its latter days showing no decadence, but yielding judges to whom the bar now looks back with reverence, of whom it will be sufficient to name Jacob Sutherland, Samuel Nelson, Greene C. Bronson, and Reuben H. Walworth. The new system has not only given us Barnard and Cardozo, but Fisk and Tweed and Mills and Carlton and Phelps. The crop of embezzlements and defalcations and frauds which we are reaping flourishes, as it always has done and always will, under the favoring influence of a weak or corrupt judiciary, to say nothing of the vulgar crimes committed by ward politicians and men of "influence." By the elective system we notify the rogues in the community that the judiciary is weak; that they have a certain hold upon it; that they may bestow favors, which is tantamount to expecting favors; and that "men of influence" who make judges will in case of necessity be able to say something to them. That such expectations are absurd in the majority of cases does not mend the matter. If we build the judicial system so low that every vagabond in the community by merely reaching out his hand can directly touch it, we make it more or less accessible to men who ought to look up to it as something altogether beyond their reach.

In the next place should be considered the matter of reappointments. Since the elective system began, now about twenty-five years, the ablest judges in the State, with hardly an exception, have been dropped from the judicial roll. Some have been defeated in conventions, others at elections, and a few have been too much disgusted with a first election to submit to a second. Such losses have always been a matter of regret to the better portion of the community, but a matter beyond control. An individual responsibility in selecting would go a great way toward preventing such losses in the future. The moral power of the community will reach a Governor when it will be a harmless blank-cartridge for a convention.

We may next note the fact that conventions, although imbued with all the wisdom of all the people, are not deliberative bodies. Assuming that every delegate leaves home with the most patriotic emotions in his heart, and the best of candidates in his mind's eye, it is still possible that when he reaches the convention he will find his candidate withdrawn, or objectionable to the majority, or unknown to everybody but himself. There is no time then for consideration or enquiry; an immediate choice is necessary; he cannot go home and write letters to the leading lawyers for their opinions before he decides; and it follows that he takes the candidate whose "friends" are most active and numerous. Finally, the Governor and Senate are in this matter a responsible somebody. Conventions are the nobodies of political life. They come and go, doing much political mischief, but never can be held to a responsibility reaching beyond the next election. Individual responsibility for a bad judge is a load which no man will lightly put upon his own shoulders. But responsibility shared among a mass of men we all know to be worthless; and experience indicates that conventions are as soulless as corporations.

THE PAYMENT OF INTEREST ON DEPOSITS.

NOW that the public has time and inclination to study the causes of the late disastrous financial panic, it is well to ask if the investigation shows any defect in our national-bank system which Congress can properly be requested to correct. It is evident that such a defect, susceptible of correction in such a way, can be at once named: it lies in the custom of allowing interest on deposits in national banks made by persons or by other banks; and the remedy is the prohibition by Congress of the payment of such interest.

The Comptroller of the Currency, in his report for 1872, has so clearly stated the matter (pp. xix.–xxi.) that we cannot do better than to quote his words—words which seem almost prophecies in the light of the events of the past month:

> "The act requires that the country banks shall hold an amount of reserve equal to fifteen per cent. of the entire amount of their deposits and circulation, three-fifths of which reserve may be on deposit with national banks which are their agents in redemption cities. The national banks in the redemption cities must hold a reserve of twenty-five per cent., one-half of which may be on deposit with national banks in New York City."

The reserves of the national banks out of New York have been so largely held in that city that these New York banks held deposits during most of the year 1872 equal to more than one-fifth of the capital of all these outside banks. These deposits are "attracted thither largely by the payment of interest" on them. As the Comptroller adds:

> "The banks in the city have no legitimate outlet for these funds, and are therefore threatened with loss. . . . The Stock Board takes advantage of this condition of affairs, speculation is stimulated by the cheapness of money, and a market is found for the idle funds upon doubtful collaterals, and the result is seen in the increased transactions at the Clearing-House, which, during the past year, exceeded thirty-two thousand millions of dollars, or an average of more than $100,000,000 daily, not one-half of which was the result of legitimate business; the total amount of transactions being greater than that of the Bankers' Clearing-House of the city of London."

We have cited the Comptroller as being the highest authority, and also with the intent to recognize the fact that he has already pointed out this radical error; later, we will speak of the remedy he suggests. The danger, he foresaw, was in the dealings between banks. Thus, a bank in Boston or Philadelphia ought to keep a reserve in greenbacks equal to twenty-five per cent. of its liabilities. But on this amount it can earn no interest. The law now allows it to put one-half of these greenbacks on deposit with a New York bank, which will allow it generally four per cent. interest. The receiving bank must, however, lend this money to obtain wherewithal to pay the interest to its depositor, and so it places three-quarters of it among its other loans. The Boston bank, therefore, instead of holding a reserve in greenbacks equal to one-quarter of its liabilities, has but one-eighth *sure*, and the other one-eighth is loaned through its agent. That is, if the New York bank does no other business, it is useless to call this reserve a real one; and if the New York bank does receive other deposits and do other business, the Boston bank must take its chance with the other creditors.

Undoubtedly, the provision of the law was supposed to refer primarily to money kept by outside banks in New York for the redemption in greenbacks of their own particular bank-bills. Experience has shown that this supposed necessity of redemption does not exist. As a rule, every one is as well satisfied with a national bank-bill as with a greenback, and no redemption is asked. But this bait of the payment of interest on the reserve has served to draw all the unemployed money of the country to New York, since the system of payment has been extended to all other deposits. We will, therefore, look at the larger question of the payment of interest by the banks to their individual depositors. In all the larger cities this custom

has gained ground rapidly during the past two years. An ambitious bank president aims to earn more than seven per cent. for his stockholders. He desires large deposits, because his bank receives the profits on the loans based upon them. But with competition between the banks there comes the necessity of dividing earnings with the depositor by allowing him some interest on his money, and then, as we shall see, the functions of the bank are radically changed. Very soon, indeed, the margin of profit is passed, and the banks make no money by thus obtaining deposits. If they have paid their depositors four per cent. on the whole, and could loan only three-quarters, they have paid really 5⅓ per cent. on the part they could loan. Their profit was only on the difference between 5⅓ per cent. and the rate at which they made loans—say 7⅓ per cent. In other words, if a depositor left $100,000 with them for one year, they ran all the risks of employing it for $2,000, out of which must come taxes and expenses. The result of this system has been to prepare the way for just such a panic as we have seen. The depositors, receiving a very reasonable rate of interest, have allowed their money to lie in the banks, which have been obliged to force their loans upon their borrowers in dull times, and, consequently, to take dubious securities in order to earn the interest they had covenanted to pay. When the crisis of a panic came, these large depositors saw chances for investments, and so called in their loans, or were themselves panic-stricken, and rushed in for immediate payment, so as to hoard greenbacks.

In point of fact, by the payment of interest on deposits, the national banks had become "savings-banks for capitalists" on a large scale. Unfortunately, they were not protected by those wise rules which prevent an ignorant multitude from making a run on "savings-banks for small deposits," and, moreover, their modes of investment were far more dangerous than those employed by the regular savings-banks. In truth, during the September panic, the populace behaved with a judgment and decorum most creditable to them, when the millionaires were precipitating a general ruin in the attempt to draw *their* deposits from *their* savings-banks. Now, there is clearly no necessity for the national banks to take up the savings-banks' department. They earn enough money without trying to gain more by borrowing money to lend again. So much for *their* rights in the matter. Again, it is not a matter of necessity that they should take this agency branch of business as a public benefit. If the capitalist could not obtain interest on his deposits from his bank, he would make his own investments, or he could easily obtain a proper agent. With ordinary savings-banks the case is different; the earnings and savings of the poor must be collected and combined before they amount to enough to afford to pay the agents who invest them. But the depositors in national banks are not of this class; they can obtain agents elsewhere, and in no sense *need* to employ these banks for this purpose. It is, too, for the public interest that all the natural increment of property should be invested in substantial property; and this is usually best done by its employment in fostering local improvements and constructions, or in aiding legitimate manufactures and commerce. In simpler words, it is better that Brown's surplus means be employed in building houses or in aiding his neighbor's trade or manufacture than in margins on Wall Street. Besides, as the banks are entrusted with the important and delicate duties not only of distributing capital among proper borrowers, but of maintaining the popular confidence in our circulating medium, it is unwise, imprudent, and highly reprehensible for them to undertake other functions, as those of savings-banks, either for the pecuniary gain to themselves or for the convenience afforded to the capitalist.

Is there any doubt, therefore, not only of the impropriety of this custom, but of the right method of its prevention? A brief amendment to the existing law, and one certainly within the powers of Congress, can stop it at once. If the national banks be prohibited from allowing any interest on any and all deposits, the banks in the large cities will keep their whole reserve at home in greenbacks, and the capitalist will find some mode of investment without invoking the aid of the local banks. This one amendment to the law will go a great way towards curing the defects of the system. The Comptroller, indeed, says that this payment of interest on deposits is "an old-established custom, which cannot easily be changed by legislation." This objection can have little weight, since our national banks are peculiarly the creatures of legislation, and since there can hardly be any strong ground of objection to the abolition of this custom. The remedies proposed by the Comptroller are, either to limit the loans of banks to thrice their capital, or to have part of the reserve kept in Government stock at a low rate, say three per cents. The first is surely a more violent remedy than the one we propose, and we doubt if it would be as efficient. The other, of course, has no bearing upon our dangers in panic times, as what is wanted then is a reserve of greenbacks, not bonds.

We may fairly say, then, that Congress has a duty to perform when it meets again, and that is to prohibit at once the payment by national banks of interest on deposits. In other words, it has to admonish the national banks that they are not savings-banks, and cannot be allowed to try to act as such.

Correspondence.

SOME LITERARY COINCIDENCES.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: On turning over the leaves of Mary Clemmer Ames's recently published 'Ten Years in Washington,' I was struck by the remarkable coincidence between the style and matter of certain chapters thereof and sundry magazine and newspaper articles on the same topics which have from time to time appeared. The resemblance is doubtless purely accidental, as there is no acknowledgment of Mrs. Ames's indebtedness to the authors of these articles in the preface to her book, nor the customary use of inverted commas in the chapters where the coincidences occur. As most persons have a strong zest for "literary coincidences," I venture to lay before the readers of the *Nation* some of the most striking of those to which I have referred:

From 'The United States Treasury Department.' By Colonel Thorpe, in *Harper's Magazine* for March, 1872.

"The first official act of the Treasury Department of national interest, dated at Washington, was one of great prospective importance. It directed that the Secretary should make an annual report to Congress of the state of the finances of the nation, embracing estimates of the public revenue and expenditures, as well as plans for improving and increasing the revenue." (Page 490.)

"The Administration of Albert Gallatin was distinguished by a series of reports regarding the best method of cancelling the national debt, the proper policy of disposing of the public lands, and the legality and necessity of establishing a national bank." (Page 491.)

From 'An Hour among the Greenbacks.' *Scribner's Monthly* for April, 1873.

"Through this division, and under these skilful fingers, has passed every note, whether legal-tender or fractional, which has been issued by the United States since the beginning of the rebellion—every note which we have ever handled or seen—as well as all the gold notes, and many millions of imperfect bonds and notes which were never put in circulation. . . . The notes, after having been counted, are securely put up—the legal tenders in strong paper wrappers and the fractional currency in stout paper boxes—sealed, placed in a capacious hand-cart, and trundled away to the vaults of the cash divi-

From 'Ten Years in Washington.'

"The first official act of the Treasury Department of national interest, dated at the national capital, directed that the Secretary should make an annual report to Congress of the state of the finances of the nation, containing estimates of the public revenue and expenditure, as well as plans for improving and increasing the revenues." (Cap. XXXIX., page 294.)

"Albert Gallatin marked his Administration by a series of reports regarding the best method of cancelling the national debt, the proper policy of disposing of the public lands, and the legality and necessity of establishing a national bank." (Cap. XXXIX., page 295.)

From 'Ten Years in Washington.'

"Through the fingers of these ladies has passed every note—legal-tender or fractional—which has been issued by the United States since the beginning of the war of the rebellion. Every note ever touched or seen, with all the gold notes and the millions of imperfect bonds and notes never put in circulation—every one has passed through these same deft fingers. . . . As soon as the new money is counted, it is again put away—the legal tenders in strong paper wrappers, the fractional currency in paper boxes. All are sealed, put on a hand-cart, and rolled off to the vaults of the cash division,

sion, whither we will now follow them." (Pages 659, 660.)

FROM 'WHERE THE MONEY GOES.' BY S. M. B., IN THE CHICAGO *Inter-Ocean*, JULY 30, 1873.

"After the dreadful days of October, 1871, 203 cases of burnt money were sent to the Treasury from Chicago, aggregating, according to owners' valuation, $164,997 98 legal-tenders, National, State banks, and fractional notes, bonds, certificates, and coupons, internal revenue and postage stamps burned . . . all so shrivelled, charred, and defaced, that the fragments crumbled at the touch, and defied unaided eyesight. A committee of six ladies was selected to identify these notes. Infinite patience, extreme care, experience, and good sight, made sharper by long practice, were the requisites, and their success was the best proof of their qualifications."

"To this furnace, lined with shavings beforehand, the boxes, sealed in the Register's and Secretary's bureaus, and those sent by the committee of three, are brought. Here, in presence of the burning committee, the seals are broken, the complicated locks opened, and the packages are thrown in, each 'lot' being called and checked off by the committee, the average being about $1,500,000 every other day. Besides the cancelled money, internal revenue and postage stamps, checks, and new money defectively printed, are all burned in this furnace. About $100,000 National bank-notes are burned in another, smaller and separate."

whither we still, you and I, pursue our little dollar." (Cap. XXXII., page 328.)

FROM 'TEN YEARS IN WASHINGTON.'

"After the great Chicago fire, in 1871, cases of money to the value of one hundred and sixty-four thousand nine hundred and ninety-seven dollars and ninety-eight cents were sent to the United States Treasury for identification. They consisted of legal-tenders, National State bank [*sic*] and fractional notes, bonds, certificates, and coupons, internal revenue and postage stamps, all so shrivelled and burned that they crumbled to the touch, and defied unaided eyesight. All these charred treasures were placed in the hands of a committee of six ladies for identification. What patience, practice, skill were indispensable to the fulfilment of this task, it is not difficult to conjecture." (Cap. XXXIV., page 351.)

"To this furnace, filled with shavings in advance every day, comes the 'burning committee,' bearing the boxes of doomed dollars, sealed finally in the Register's and Secretary's bureaus. . . . In their presence the final seals are broken—the complicated locks of the furnace opened. Then the packs are thrown into the flames, each 'lot' being called and checked by the committee, the amount averaging about one million five hundred thousand dollars every other day. At the same hour, about one hundred thousand dollars in National bank-notes are burned at another and smaller furnace. Besides cancelled money, internal revenue and postage stamps, checks and defective new money are all consumed in this furnace." (Cap. XXXII., pages 337, 338.)

And so on, with greater or less similarity, for three or four chapters. I have not explored current literature in this direction sufficiently to say whether the same remarkable parallelism extends to any other articles on the subjects of which the book treats; but enough has been quoted to prove either some very wonderful "literary coincidences" or that the acknowledgments in Mrs. Ames's preface should be considerably extended.

SARTOR RESARTUS.

WASHINGTON, D. C., October 13, 1873.

THE DISTRIBUTION OF THE MONEY PAID UNDER THE GENEVA AWARD.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: You have recently referred with approval to the article in the last number of the *American Law Review* containing a strong argument in support of the claims of insurance companies and others to the money recently paid to our Government by Great Britain under the Geneva Award. When the question is argued as in that article, and previously in other articles in your own columns, upon the legal principles which would apply in an analogous case between individuals, the position of these claimants would seem to be unassailable. But in the consideration of this question we are not necessarily confined to legal principles or legal analogies. The rules of law, though originally devised in the interests of justice, do not always lead in their application to the most equitable results, and I have been led seriously to doubt whether in this matter the legal view be the true one, and whether a less technical and more rational treatment of the question may not lead to an answer very different from that given in the articles above referred to. With the parties who have advocated the retention of the fifteen millions in the national treasury, and with the arguments advanced by those parties so far as they have come to my knowledge, I have felt but little sympathy; but it has seemed to me that there were other arguments, hitherto, so far as I know, not clearly and fully presented, which may show the position taken by those parties to be sounder and more respectable than it has hitherto appeared to be, perhaps even to themselves. At all events, whether the arguments which I present be sound or fallacious, it is fair to presume that the cause of truth will be promoted by an honest statement and consideration of them.

The large majority of the original losers by the depredations of the *Alabama* and the other vessels for whose doings Great Britain has been held to be responsible, having been insured, and having recovered indemnity from their insurers, it has been generally admitted that in all such cases the original loser has lost his claim to share in the distribution of the fund. But when it is proposed, in accordance with legal analogies, that the insurer shall succeed to the rights of the original owner of the vessel or cargo destroyed, whose loss he has made good, it is strongly urged in opposition that the effect of this course would simply be to pay over the greater part of the fund to parties who are not in fact losers by those depredations. The insurance companies went into the business of insuring against the risks arising from the rebel cruisers on ordinary business principles. They graduated their premiums according to their ideas of the character of the risk. They intended to fix those premiums at such a rate that the sum total of all the premiums received should be sufficient to pay all the losses and leave a handsome surplus for their own compensation, and most, if not all of them, undoubtedly succeeded in securing a profitable result. If the damage caused by the rebel cruisers had been covered by the ordinary policies, and if that damage had happened suddenly, without warning, and without any opportunity being afforded to insurers to anticipate it and to graduate their premiums accordingly, in such case the insurers would indeed have been losers by the depredations of those vessels; but as the facts really stand, those vessels were to them merely the cause of an *increase of business*, and, it is fair to presume, of a consequent *increase of profits*. Under these circumstances, their *equitable* claim to pocket the greater portion of this large fund would seem to be decidedly weak.

It is urged, however, that if the claims of the insurers are not good in equity, the parties who paid to those insurers the premiums for the war risks are the real losers, and, as such, the legitimate claimants of this fund. But a slight consideration will show that the extra cost of insurance paid by owners of vessels and cargoes was merely an item which served to increase the price of the charter of a vessel and the rate of freight of a cargo, and thereby to increase the cost of an imported cargo when landed on our shores, and to diminish the price which an exporter could afford to pay for a cargo to be sent to foreign countries. Here, at last, however, we seem to find the clue by which to trace to the real sufferers the losses caused by the rebel cruisers. These sufferers were in fact the great mass of the people of the United States, who, by reason of the increased risks to which commerce was subjected, were compelled to pay higher prices for their tea and their coffee and for all other foreign articles, and to accept smaller prices for the grain and flour and other things which they produced or manufactured at home.

If, as the foregoing considerations would seem to show, the great mass of the people of the Union are in fact the parties to whom the loss caused by the rebel cruisers is in the final analysis to be traced, then the fifteen millions paid by Great Britain have already in the United States Treasury reached their proper destination, and need no further distribution. The value of the vessels and cargoes destroyed was, in this view of the matter, properly presented to the Tribunal at Geneva as affording the best evidence and the most accurate measure of the damage inflicted. The money compensation received by the Government on account of that damage ought certainly by every principle of justice and honor to be paid over so far as possible to the parties who actually suffered the damage; but when we endeavor to find out who are to-day the real sufferers on whose shoulders the damage now rests, do we not see that they are not the original owners of the vessels and cargoes destroyed, for they were long ago indemnified by their insurers—they are not those insurers, for their part in the matter was merely that they made a profitable business of collecting in war premiums from the great body of shipowners and merchants the money with which they indemnified the immediate losers—and, finally, they are not the great body of those who paid war premiums, for the reason that for whatever moneys they paid out in such premiums they indemnified themselves out of the pockets of all who bought of them any article they had imported, or sold to them any article which they desired to export? If, then, the loss cannot be traced to any one class or body of men, but appears to have been distributed generally among the people of the Union, the indemnity received for that loss will most nearly reach those who are justly entitled to profit by it if it is left in the National Treasury, to be applied to the payment of the debt which the people of the Union now owe.

U. H. C.

[There are two, and as it seems to us tolerably plain, answers to the above. The first is, that if the underwriters suffered no loss or damage by the Confederate cruisers, we ought never to have brought

their claims before the Geneva Tribunal. Having filed and proved them, and demanded and obtained a large sum of money from Great Britain on account of them, it is clear that it is not now open to us to declare that they had no foundation. Conduct of this kind on the part of private persons is punishable in the criminal courts, and bears a familiar name.

The second answer is, that the loss suffered by the people of the United States through enhanced rates of freight is in large part imaginary and wholly incapable of proof; and that if it occurred to the extent alleged, it was ruled out as "indirect" by the Tribunal at the very opening of the proceedings. Therefore, the money is not applicable to it. But it did not occur. The effect of the *Alabama* raids was not to raise freights generally, but to drive American ships out of the market. The American shipowners were not able to add the war risks to their rates. They had either to suffer the loss, transfer their ships to a foreign flag, or abandon the business. The carrying trade thus fell into foreign hands almost wholly, and was conducted through the war at rates regulated by the ordinary competition between shippers. There may have been some loss suffered by the American people on this score in the coasting trade, but it was very trifling, trade with the Southern ports having been wholly suspended, and that along the New England coast very little exposed. The California steamers perhaps raised their rates, but their war risks hardly amounted to $15,000,000. In fact, we advise "U. H. C.," and every other honest man, to leave this matter in the hands of "the Essex statesman." There is but one legitimate disposition to be made of the money, and all attempts to wriggle out of it in a cloud of metaphysics only help to damage the national reputation abroad, and injure our credit in the foreign money markets.—Ed. Nation.]

Notes.

Hurd & Houghton announce, in addition to the 'Egyptian Sketch-Book,' by Charles G. Leland, 'The English Gypsies and their Language,' by the same author. Also, 'Seven Historic Ages: Talks of Kings, Queens, and Barbarians," by Arthur Gilman.——Porter & Coates will publish 'In the Days of My Youth,' by Amelia B. Edwards; and Lord Derby's version of the Iliad, with a biographical sketch of Lord Derby by R. Shelton Mackenzie.——A. D. F. Randolph announces 'The Literary Life,' by Francis Jacox.——We have received from Justus Perthes, the eminent geographical publisher of Gotha, Parts 7, 8, and 9 of the new edition of Spruner's 'Hand-atlas for the History of the Middle Ages and of Modern Times.' We have already, on receipt of the same from B. Westermann & Co., enumerated the maps which they contain, but we are glad to have another opportunity of calling attention to this standard work, which no student of history and no library can afford to be without. These three parts depict the whole of Western Europe at different periods, Part 8 being given up to Germany exclusively.——We are glad to find it stated in the *Publishers' Weekly* that the Messrs. Appleton will collect and publish in one volume the extremely interesting papers on "French Home Life" which have appeared in *Blackwood*, and of which we have more than once made mention in the *Nation*.

—Mr. Herbert Spencer's papers on "Sociology" are, we understand, to appear in the form of a book during the coming autumn, and we may say for them in advance that they will form one of the most important books of the year. They have attracted, as they have appeared, more attention than Mr. Spencer's previous writings, probably because they are on a subject which, to the average reader, is doubly interesting, from the fact of its being a very ancient and, at the same time, very new one; ancient, as it relates to our old and familiar friend, man, and new, because it discusses man, his life and his habits, not in the sentimental or empirical way, but in the cold-blooded fashion with which science now approaches everything. Besides these reasons for greater popularity, there is in a good many persons' minds a lingering feeling, inherited from the generation to which Franklin and his fellow-philosophers belonged, that science and philanthropy together were, in the course of time, to furnish the key to happiness; that with a proper amount of crucibles and retorts, there was no reason why all men should not be as calm and happy as the philosopher who benefited coming ages by inventing the lightning-rod. There was certainly no sociology in those days; scientific men looked forward to a moral through a natural millennium; but their successors, who began the erection of a sociological structure by the discovery of the general laws of political economy, began to dream of a millennium which should be brought about by the disinterested study of the science of man himself. Most of these dreamers have since awoke to the harsh reality on which Mr. Spencer, in his current article, strikingly dwells—the fact that scientific progress is one thing, and moral progress another; that the cultivation of the mind and the growth of knowledge do not produce necessarily that moral force which, though it may not secure, is certainly essential to, happiness. There is undoubtedly a fallacy, as Mr. Spencer points out, in supposing that good citizens can be turned to order out of a national educational mill, as they are in theory out of our common schools with us, and as certain reformers wish they should be turned out in England.

—The recent convention of women adjourned without taking any notice of an attack which the accomplished secretaries of that body might well have been directed to throw into the form of a Syllabus of Condemned Propositions, to be used as a guide by the faithful in all lands. We refer to an article which Mr. Orestes Brownson publishes in the last number of *Brownson's Quarterly Review*, under the title of "The Woman Question." It might be formulated in some such way as this: "Whosoever shall say, 'We recognize woman's merits as a religious, as the head of communities of nuns, and as wife, mother, daughter, and domestic friend, for this reason—that in all such relations she is under the direction of male superiors'—let him be anathema." Another article might read thus: "If any man shall say, 'A woman has a thousand ways in which she can annoy her husband, and even her father, and render his home a hell upon earth, and all the time appear to be the victim of his coarseness and brutality, and be regarded by all her neighbors, especially her male neighbors, as a meek, gentle, sweet-tempered, suffering angel'—let that man be anathema." Still a third might be worded thus: "Whosoever shall publicly assert and maintain, or shall privately believe, that 'Neither sex should be set against the other, for each has furnished examples of terrible depravity, and each has peopled heaven with innumerable saints and martyrs, and the one sex is as good as the other, but woman is physically and mentally the weaker vessel'—let him become a castaway, and let his name rot." "Or if any man shall say that under our present laws in most of the States the wife is practically independent of her husband, and if he breaks a tea-cup or a saucer which belongs to her, she can sue him for damages—let him be anathema; and so, also, of any man who shall say that the woman movement 'means free-love, and seeks to substitute what it calls love for duty and obligation.'" All these things, and many more like them, Mr. Brownson says with great downrightness. As, for instance, the following, which is one of many, and picked at random: Include women among the political people, and "they would lose all they owe to man's chivalry, which is not a little, though greatly diminished since women have aspired to lead in popular literature; for women by their writings have deprived the sex of much of its prestige, and womanhood of its sacredness." Mr. Brownson calls names, too, specifying what female reformers have of his own personal knowledge become "coarse and termagantish" since they began to agitate, and what ones have given him personal proofs that their tongues were "harder than many men's fists." But into this part of his field of labor we need not follow him.

—Among recently-printed English works, there are few of any special value. A very special value, indeed, attaches to the 'Bibliotheca Anti-Quakeriana,' by Joseph Smith, himself a Friend, and author six years ago of a bibliography of books written by Quakers, filling some two thousand pages. The present work adds to the alphabetical catalogue biographical notices of the authors, and in certain cases the answers made by Friends. Various tastes are appealed to by 'The Vaudois of Piedmont,' a visit to them, and a sketch of their history, by the Rev. J. M. Worsfold; the 'Life of Louisa de Carvajal,' by Lady Georgiana Fullerton; the 'Autobiography, Memoir, and Letters of Henry F. Chorley,' for many years musical critic of the *Athenæum*, by H. G. Hewlett; 'Our Journal in the Pacific,' by the officers of H.M.S. *Zealous;* and a desperate sanitarian's production, entitled 'What a House should be *versus* Death in the House,' by William Bardwell.

—Chief among the fall announcements, which now begin to be made plentifully on the other side, is Mr. Mill's Autobiography; and in the same line we note the following titles: 'Life of the Right Hon. Spencer Perceval,' by his grandson, Spencer Walpole, comprising Mr. Perceval's correspondence with most of the distinguished persons of his time; Lord William Pitt Lennox's 'Recollections from 1803 to 1873': 'Essays in Military Biography,' by Col. C. C. Chesney; 'Distinguished Persons in Russian Society,' from the German, by Frances E. Bunnètt; and a 'Dictionary of Artists of the English School,' in all branches, by Samuel Redgrave. The second volume of Mr. John Hosack's 'Mary, Queen of Scots, and her Accusers' will embrace a narrative of events from the death of James V. in 1542 to the death of Mary in 1587. We are to have also the fifth or "Inkerman"

volume of Kinglake's 'Invasion of the Crimea'; 'Incidents in the Sepoy War of 1857–8,' from the private journals of Gen. Sir Hope Grant; 'The Norman People, and their existing Descendants in the British Dominions and the United States'—a work which Dr. Freeman will probably cherish in company with a lecture by Rev. R. Polwhele on 'The English the Descendants of the Ten Tribes'; 'The Fenland, Past and Present: its History, Geography, Geology, Antiquities, etc.,' by S. N. Miller. The fruits of recent German explorations are to be made accessible to the English reader in Dr. Schweinfurth's 'Travels and Discoveries in Central Africa, from 1868 to 1871,' for which Ellen E. Frewer furnishes the translation, and Mr. Winwood Reade (just made the *Times* correspondent for the Ashantee war) the introduction; and Mr. Reade also edits Dr. Gerhard Rohlfs's 'Adventures in Morocco, and Journey South through the Oases of Draa and Tafilet,' while Mr. H. W. Bates condenses and edits the narrative of the Second North-Polar Expedition (1869–70) of the *Germania* and *Hansa*. The North Pole is the subject of 'The Threshold of the Unknown Region,' by Clements R. Markham, editor of *Ocean Highways;* Africa, again, of 'Life, Wanderings, and Labors in Eastern Africa,' by the Rev. Charles New, of the Livingstone Relief Expedition; and pretty familiar ground will be gone over in 'The Pearl of the Antilles, or an Artist in Cuba,' by Walter Goodman, for many years a resident of the island, and 'The Alps of Arabia'—travels through Egypt, Sinai, Arabia, and the Holy Land, by William Charles Maughan. Somewhat fresher will be 'Rough Notes of a Visit to Belgium, Sedan, and Paris, in September, 1870–71,' by John Ashton; 'A Journey to the Mishmee Country,' by T. T. Cooper, who attempted to penetrate Thibet from Assam; and 'A Phrenologist among the Todas, or the Study of a Primitive Tribe in South India,' by William E. Marshall. Mr. James Greenwood's 'In Strange Company, or the Note-book of a Roving Correspondent,' gives no hint of the localities visited, but is almost certain to be entertaining.

—Everybody can affect an interest in 'A Handbook of Weather Folk-Lore,' a collection of proverbial sayings in many languages, by Rev. C. Swainson; and 'Economic Geology, or Geology in Relation to the Arts and Manufactures,' by David Page, will recommend itself somewhat widely. Haeckel's 'History of the Natural Creation,' done into English; St. George Mivart's 'Man and Apes, an Exposition of Structural Resemblances and Differences bearing upon Questions of Affinity and Origin'; and Alexander Bain's 'Mind and Body, and the Theories of their Relations,' are so many contributions to the greatest of living scientific discussions, the descent of man. After these it is in order to name Stuart-Glennie's 'West-Eastern Memories; or, Travel and Discussion in the Birth-countries of Christianity with the late Henry Thomas Buckle.' Finally, we may mention Rev. Stopford Brooke's 'Theology in the English Poets'; 'Essays on Freethinking and Plainspeaking,' by Leslie Stephen; 'How to Amuse and Employ our Invalids,' by Mrs. J. P. Powers; 'Etruscan Researches,' by Rev. Isaac Taylor, author of the useful and learned little work on 'Words and Places'; a 'History of Music,' by William Chappell, with a chapter on Hebrew music contributed by Dr. Ginsburg; and a translation of Schiller's 'Don Carlos,' by Dr. Andrew Wood of Edinburgh.

—We single out the announcement of a translation, from the German, of Prof. Vámbéry's 'Central Asia and the Anglo-Russian Question' in order to remark that, in the last number of the *Athenæum* (October 4), there is a letter seriously impeaching his veracity from Mr. Eugene Schuyler, our Secretary of Legation at St. Petersburg. Mr. Schuyler writes from Bokhara under date of August 12, and proposes "to say a few words respecting those writers who are the chief authorities for our knowledge of this country." We omit his remarks on Meyendorf, Burnes, Khanikoff, and other travellers more or less trustworthy; but this is his judgment (as a Russophile, doubtless) of the Russophobist professor:

"As to the books of Vámbéry, the most noted of modern travellers, they are nearly worthless. I have not yet been able to make up my mind whether Vámbéry was actually here or not. There is little, if anything, to be found in his 'Travels' and 'Sketches' which is not told us by other writers, and the errors are so frequent and so great, that it would seem impossible for a man to make them who had seen with his own eyes the things of which he speaks. . . . Most of the Russians who have had the best opportunities of studying these countries, do not believe that Mr. Vámbéry was ever here. . . . Of his more ambitious and scientific books, the less said the better. 'Catagaische Sprachstudien' is utterly useless to the philological student, as it is one mass of error. There is no language bearing the name of Tchagetai, and the language which Mr. Vámbéry endeavors to illustrate, while certainly not what is spoken here at Tashkent or in Kokan, bears more resemblance to the dialect of Kashgar than anything else. . . . The errors in the 'History of Bokhara' are so great and so frequent, especially in those parts (such as the account of the Russian advance in Central Asia) for which abundant materials are accessible, that one is surprised that the writer should have undertaken the work."

Mr. Schuyler fortifies his criticisms by numerous examples which we lack the space to reproduce here, and which seem likely to make it rather difficult for Vámbéry to reply, as the *Athenæum* invites him to do.

—Our readers will be glad of a suggestive passage which we have chanced on lately in reference to a discussion in our columns (*Nation*, vol. xiv., pp. 392, 421; vol. xv., pp. 9, 27, 44) as to an alleged want in the French language of a word corresponding to the English "listener," meaning listener in a conversation and not *auditeur*, which is accepted as sufficient when a public address is in question. The assertion that in French the obvious word was an equivalent is confirmed indirectly by the extract. The quotation is given in a translation, but *écouter* is undoubtedly the verb which the writer, Mr. N. W. Senior, translates. It is somewhat odd that Mr. Senior, instead of imagining that *écouteur* does not translate "listener," starts from the other side, and hesitates to render *causeur* into English. The passage is from the 'Correspondence and Conversations of Alexis de Tocqueville with N. W. Senior, from 1834 to 1859,' vol. ii., p. 171. The journal of the conversations, it will be understood, was kept by Mr. Senior in English. It would be a little more satisfactory to have just this passage in the original; but Mr. Senior, by giving us the French for "converser," furnishes a weighty presumption that there is no difficulty in rendering "listener" by the proper word:

"The fault of her conversation [Mrs. T——'s]," I said, "seems to me to be, that while she is repeating one sentence she is thinking of the next, and that while you are speaking to her she is considering what is to be her next topic. I have noticed this fault in other very fluent conversers. They are so intent on the future that they neglect the present."

"It is rather a French than an English fault," said Tocqueville. "The English have more curiosity and less vanity than we have; more desire to hear and less anxiety to shine. They are often, therefore, better *causeurs* than we are. *Le grand talent pour le silence*, or, in other words, the power of listening, which has been imputed to them, is a great conversational virtue. I do not believe that it was said ironically or epigrammatically. The man who bestowed that praise knew how rare a merit silence is."

"May we not owe that merit," I asked, "to our bad French? We shine most when we listen."

"A great talker," I continued, "Montalembert, is to breakfast with us. Whom shall I ask to meet him?"

"Not me," said Tocqueville, "unless you will accept me as one of the chorus," etc.

—We quote another passage from the same work (vol. i., p. 169), in which the conversational resources of the two languages are further illustrated. Here Mr. Senior and his friends seem to have claimed and conceded too easily the superior politeness and capabilities of the French. "Miss," as a word of address, probably wants the grace and dignity of "Mademoiselle" and its agreeableness; but we cannot understand why "Madam" is not a perfectly satisfactory equivalent of "Madame," and "Sir" to our taste is as good a word, if not a better, than "Monsieur." Both Mr. Senior and Madame Anisson appear to have confounded a conversational attitude or manner with linguistic resources, and to have been rather hasty even here in allowing the advantage to the French. The Frenchman, when he addresses us without remembering our name, may offend our dignity less than an Englishman might under the like circumstances, but is he under no need of "catching our eye"?

"We talked of the want in English of words answering to Monsieur, Madame, and Mademoiselle.

"'What do you do,' said Madame Anisson, 'when you want to attract a person's attention?'

"'You call to him,' I said, 'by his name.'

"'But,' answered she, 'if you do not know his name, can you address anybody by the word "mister," or "mistress," or "miss"?'

"'No,' I said, 'if you do not know the name, you have nothing to do for it but to catch the eye.'

"'With us,' she replied, 'the name is very seldom used, except, indeed, by royal personages. The Queen used to address me as Madame Anisson, to show that she knew my name, but in society it would be bad taste.'"

—A writer in the *Cornhill Magazine* has recently been giving an account of the French periodical press in its early days which is both entertaining and profitable. Among other things that will interest journalists, is the evidence he affords of the venerableness and hoariness of certain usages of our profession which have passed for modern, and even for American. Here, for example, are some "brief jottings" which might readily pass for the production of one of our own countrymen in this city, Cincinnati, Chicago, Louisville, or San Francisco, yet they are from the columns, now more than two hundred years old, of the Parisian *Mercure*, a journal founded by a M. Donneau De Visé so long ago as in 1665. M. De Visé perhaps refers to M. J. B. Rousseau, of whom he was not fond:

"Monsieur J. B. R—— complains that we are blind to his merits. We reply that nature has not endowed us with the faculty of seeing clear through muddy water. But we will resume this discussion when Monsieur R—— has paid his tailor for that maroon coat which he has been sporting so proudly all this month, notwithstanding the two creases in the back, which form its most attractive features."

M. Molière also resembled Rousseau in not being the object of any superstitious veneration on the part of M. De Visé, who was in the habit of asserting in his journal that the Abbé Catin, a personage whom the world has since successfully conspired to forget, was a far abler man than Molière ever thought of being. Thus M. De Visé speaks of the favorite:

"We hear that M. M—— is not happy at our remarks on his last comedy. We pronounced it tasteless; we were wrong. Being plagued with mice, we set a copy of this valuable work near a hole in our flooring; twelve mice came and ate of it, and died in cruel agonies."

We are not informed who the M. "A." of the following "personal item" may have been; but a brief experience of the world is ample to enable one to pronounce it probably destitute of any basis of fact, and intended rather to fill M. "A." with stupefaction and sadness when he read it than to advance any good cause:

"Monsieur A——! Monsieur A——! you have written a Latin treatise on the soul, and a schoolboy copied a paragraph and showed it to his master as his own. He has been whipped for writing nonsense and bad grammar."

Equally malicious, but perhaps not so devoid of truth as the other, is this one, referring to a gentleman whose name has remained unknown for half a dozen generations. Yet one would say that the "personal" had been "set up" yesterday, or kept standing and in constant use ever since 1665:

"A poet who has ruined one publisher, and is fast hurrying a second towards the workhouse, came yesterday and wrote 'Pig' on our door. We thank him for his courtesy in thus dropping his card on us."

Another thing that we learn from these sketches is that, formerly as now, there was a class of literary men whose hearts were lighted up with unholy fires whenever by any chance they encountered a little salutary fault-finding. Writers even of the better class, says our author, "were not slow in taking offence; for it is an unfortunate fact that, from the day when man first put his thoughts to paper, authors have resented any questioning of their talent with curious bitterness. Sallo's criticisms were courteous and temperate, but this made no difference. He was charged with animus, envy, imbecility, and bad taste. When he praised one author, all the others shouted that he was venal, and if he left any one unnoticed, the thing was attributed to an ignoble desire that the scribbler in question should remain ignored." When Sallo, amazed at the mingled ferocity and silliness of the disturbance, attempted to explain that he was not a scoundrel, that his motives were pure and excellent, he was greeted with a general and vociferous shout of derision, and was by-and-by obliged to suspend the publication of his paper, the *Journal des Savants*. In exchange for him, the literary world got the M. Donneau De Visé of whose courtesy and learning we have quoted above some examples which do him justice. We may add that it is in the *Cornhill* for last June and that of September that the reader may find the articles in question, and we believe there are to be more.

PROCTOR ON THE MOON.*

THE author of this work is perhaps the most prolific writer of the day on scientific subjects. Commencing some eight or ten years ago with a book on 'Saturn and his System,' he has continued to write about an octavo volume annually since that time. Many of these volumes must have required an immense amount of reading, research, and calculation. He is also the author of reviews, notices, and essays, which we cannot attempt to enumerate, while hardly a number of the *Monthly Notices* of the Royal Astronomical Society is allowed to appear without two or three contributions from his pen. Looking at such an immense mass of material, the product of a single brain, the first question one would naturally ask is, not whether it is all of the best quality, but whether any of it can possibly be worth reading and study. While it cannot be denied that some of his chapters exhibit marks of hasty preparation, if we compare him with the mass of popular writers on scientific subjects we shall find the general accuracy of his writings to be hardly less remarkable than their number. All his reasoning is that of a thoroughly disciplined mind, possessing a complete understanding of the mathematical relations involved in the problems discussed. As an expounder of scientific truth, his style is well adapted to his subjects. He writes with great clearness, with an enthusiasm amounting almost to impetuosity, and with a fulness of illustration and detail which, though tedious to the scientific reader, will be very welcome to the unscientific one who wishes to understand the subject without that minute study of each sentence necessary in reading the writings of professional investigators. It must be admitted that he sometimes offends the taste of the critical reader by the too free introduction of his own personality, or, we might say, by a kind of headlong running against himself in the heat of discussion; but this is a fault on which his countrymen look with more leniency than we do.

That Mr. Proctor's works are not in every respect what monographs of the kind ought to be, follows necessarily from the simple fact that it is impossible for any one person to do all the reading, study, and examination necessary to know completely all that has been done in any one department during the time that he devotes to the preparation of a book, and, at the same time, to collate the material and prepare the book. We cannot, therefore, expect to find his works marked either by exhaustive research or by such a fair and complete account of the subjects discussed as will stand the closest scrutiny. To a consciousness of this difficulty on the part of the author himself we have probably to attribute the only deficiency we have noticed in the work before us. A brief account of the researches of mathematicians and astronomers since the time of Newton on the complicated motions of the moon would have formed a very important chapter in a work of this character, replete as it would have been with accounts of what might be claimed as the greatest triumphs of the human intellect. It is, therefore, a little tantalizing to have Mr. Proctor tell us that he cannot avoid dwelling on the singular interest of this history, and yet dispose of the whole of it in a single page, which only tells us what a brilliant history it is. To this we must add that he would hardly be a representative Englishman if he did not write of the labors of his countrymen with greater pleasure than of those of foreigners. If we judge his works by the German standard of thoroughness, we shall have to admit that they exhibit very serious deficiencies in this respect; but if we compare them with the average standard of completeness afforded by the great mass of popular scientific writing in England and America, they will be found remarkable for their thoroughness and general fairness. The fact is, there is too much disposition among scientific men, especially in this country, to look upon the work of "popularizing science" as something altogether beneath the dignity of a professional investigator, and thus to abandon the field to such third-rate men as publishers may chance to pick up Of course, the result is that the field is worked in such a way that the really first-class men find ample excuse for refusing to enter it in such bad company; and, partial though Mr. Proctor's works may be toward the ideas and labors of his own countrymen, we know of no others to which the English reader can refer for accounts so good of the recent labors of astronomers of all countries.

In the work before us, the defect here alluded to is much less conspicuous than in some of Mr. Proctor's former writings. But we cannot help animadverting upon the addition to the map of the moon of eighty or a hundred names of persons living now or within the present generation, who are thus ranked among the great philosophers and astronomers of all ages. It is strikingly illustrative of what we have just said, that England gets a larger share of these names than all the rest of the world together. The list includes names so insignificant as those of Goldschmidt and Moigno, and a number of others which we dare not pronounce insignificant, because we never before heard of them. Three have especially excited our curiosity: G. Gwilt, J. Gwilt, and Mrs. Jackson Gwilt. As the name of this favored family is not to be found in the Royal Society's 'Catalogue of Scientific Papers,' their first contribution to science must have been made since 1863. There is a sprinkling of Americans, among them Miss Mitchell, but not one of the four whom good judges would probably agree had the first right to be thus honored, namely, Rittenhouse, Bowditch, Bache, and Peirce. We believe that these additions to the lunar map did not originate with Mr. Proctor, but with one of the amateur astronomers of England; still, we must be surprised that he should have been so far from seeing the presumption and absurdity of a private gentleman naming points in the moon after his male and female friends as to include the names in a map without anything to distinguish them from those already recognized by the astronomical world. Of course, such additions cannot be recognized by any scientific authority.

Nearly half the present work is devoted to an explanation of the phenomena presented by the lunar motions, both that around the earth and that on her own axis. This portion of the work is worthy of unqualified praise, combining, as it does, two qualities seldom found together—the utmost exactness in every mathematical detail with the greatest possible clearness in exposition. It is designed to enable the unmathematical reader to go as far into the comprehension and understanding of the manner in which the various forces which act on the moon affect her motions as the most profound mathematician has ever really been able to go. The marvellous accuracy with which the motions of the celestial bodies are predicted from the theory of gravitation is not attained by direct reasoning upon the mode in which the forces act, but by a calculus, in which their effects are summed up in algebraic and numerical formulæ, and in which the connection between the data and the results eludes the clearest insight. Only a few of the largest inequalities have ever been explained without this aid to thought, and these

* 'The Moon: Her Motions, Aspect, Scenery, and Physical Condition. By Richard A. Proctor.' With three lunar photographs by Rutherfurd (enlarged by Brothers), and many plates, charts, etc. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1873.

few are explained by Mr. Proctor with a profusion of diagrams which are calculated to make the subject quite clear to any one possessing the faculty of mathematical reasoning. The elucidation of the inequality resulting from the parallax of the sun, and of the motion of the lunar perigee, are worthy of especial attention, as these effects of gravitation seem to have escaped the grasp of Newton himself.

The only error of conclusion which we have noticed is one into which others besides Mr. Proctor have fallen. Some years since, Gussew, of Wilna, concluded from measures of some of M. De la Rue's lunar photographs—fallaciously, we think—that the moon was egg-shaped to a degree clearly visible and measurable, the longer diameter and the sharper end being directed toward the earth. This result has been considered as supporting a well-known theory of Hansen, that the centre of gravity of the moon is some forty miles further removed from us than her centre of figure. Really, however, the measurements of Gussew are directly opposed to this theory; the error arising, at least in the present case, from taking the middle point of the longer diameter as the centre of figure, whereas, in Hansen's theory, the centre of figure is supposed to be that of which the motion is derived from actual observation of the moon's limbs—that is, the middle point of the smaller diameters. When we take this point as that of comparison, we find that Gussew's measurements throw the centre of gravity on this side instead of on the other, as required by Hansen.

That class of readers—a very large one, we fear—who do not care to go through long courses of reasoning on the motion of the moon, will probably find the most interesting chapters to be those devoted to the study of the moon's surface. The total dissimilarity between both the geography and the geology of the earth and moon, is quite striking, even with a small telescope. Not only has our satellite neither clouds, air, nor water, so far as the most delicate researches have shown, but the inequalities of her surface are totally different from anything we see here. She is nearly covered with comparatively shallow, circular basins or pits of all sizes, the interiors of which are commonly smooth and flat, with sometimes a mound rising from their centre. The question whether any change whatever can be detected in any part of her surface has received much attention for several years past, without being brought to a definite conclusion. The evidence on both sides is very fully discussed by Mr. Proctor; but he does not venture upon a decisive answer to the question.

Not the least valuable portion of the work are three lunar photographs, enlarged by Mr. Brothers from negatives by Mr. L. M. Rutherfurd, of New York, who has brought astronomical photography to a state of almost exquisite perfection. We suspect they might have been a little better had Mr. Rutherfurd enlarged them himself; but as they are, they give the best representation of the telescopic appearance of the moon during her different phases which we remember to have seen. The only noticeable defect is that the dark regions are too dark, and in consequence, the separating line between the bright and dark portions much too jagged in appearance.

THE NORTH AMERICAN REVIEW FOR OCTOBER.

THE lightest article in the October *North American* is by Professor Charles Kendall Adams, who deals with the well-worn subject of Napoleonic universal suffrage. He contrives to make it interesting, however; and this he does by being very concrete in his illustrations. On the question whether France should be considered Louis Napoleon's victim, or his accomplice, Professor Adams is decidedly of opinion that she was victimized, and he proceeds to make his opinion good, by showing from the evidence of MM. Taine, Jules Ferry, Taxile Delord, and Ernest Naville what an imperial plébiscite really was. He narrates at length the story of the annexation of Savoy and Nice under the form of a popular vote; and in the general election of 1863 he finds still more numerous examples of force and fraud applied to the electors. If we forget the disgrace of the affair, it is a history not a little amusing. To begin with, the commissioners of police had their orders to prepare the soil for the good seed. Terror was a principal means of persuasion with these gentlemen, who in all cases obeyed with diligence: "They were not content to enter into the house of the peasant; they penetrated into the deliberative assembly of the municipal council, and openly reproached the members if their zeal appeared to decline." An elector of opposition opinions was observed traversing a village of the Gironde with a gendarme on each side of him: "There," says a commissioner, "there goes a partisan of M. Decazes; that is the way we treat them." Whether or not the gendarmes were addressing themselves to this elector's reason is not stated; but presumably they were. That, at all events, is what their superiors were told to do. General instructions were sent to all the prefects, in which M. De Persigny directed that only to the reason of the electors should appeals be made: "Let the people know," said he, "who are the friends and who the enemies of the Empire; and let them have full liberty to decide as they choose, but with a full understanding of the cause." When, however, the prefects came to the business of making nominations, it was declared that "no public discussion of the merits of the respective candidates would be allowed." At a previous election, the people, "in the absence of a general direction," had held preliminary meetings, something like our caucuses and conventions, where the candidates announced their principles and submitted themselves for nomination or rejection; but in 1863 "the administration," said the Prefect of the Haute-Loire, will "fill the office of the preliminary meetings. Disinterested in the question, and representing only your collective interests, it will examine, appreciate, and judge of the candidates who are presented." "In all cases," says Professor Adams, "the Emperor chose the prefect, and the prefect after conferring with the Emperor nominated the candidates. This once done, the contest began, if indeed there were any opposition candidate, which was not in all cases certain. The press had mostly been killed or corrupted, so that there remained few journals not subsidized, and as the "office of the preliminary meetings" had been taken on itself by the Government, it was not an easy matter for an opposition candidate to put himself in nomination or to make his fellow-citizens acquainted with his views. He must have recourse to the mails or to placards. But as the prefect, in cases where he mistrusted that a candidate did not love the Emperor, was not delicate about interfering with the ordinary functions of the post-office, the mails afforded the non-official aspirant but a doubtful reliance. For instance, just before the election the suburbs of Grenoble, containing twenty-five thousand inhabitants, were deprived of all postal communication for a whole day and night, it having become necessary to make a vigorous attack upon the opposition candidate at a time when it would be impossible for him to defend himself. Placards were hardly more available than circulars. To begin with, the bill-sticker in France is a Government official, and of course it would require more than ordinary courage and greatness of mind in an official dependent upon the authorities to post the *affiche* of the independent candidate side by side with that of the candidate who loved the Empire. "Both in 1859 and 1863 it happened that candidates were reduced to the actual necessity of arming themselves with pincers and paste-pot and putting up their own placards." In the latter year, one gentleman, a candidate in Bouches-du-Rhône, in company with some faithful adherents, spent the greater part of a night sticking up posters with his own hands. In the morning he had the pleasure of finding every one of his bills covered with Imperial placards. Another gentleman, chafing under a similar misfortune, was going to prosecute, under the statute against mutilating or otherwise defacing posters, but his zeal abated when he learned that there was indeed a statute providing for the punishment of persons mutilating posters, but that all complaints for its violation must be made by the administration. Another method was open to the candidate. If he could find a printer who was free from fear of the prefect on the one hand or of the bishop on the other, and could get his circulars printed, he might employ in their distribution the personal services of his friends and relatives. But the service required the passive fortitude of a martyr and the active energies of a hero: "The distributors were constantly assailed by the jeers and threats, and sometimes even by the blows, of the officials. Commissioners, mayors, gendarmes, *gardes champêtres*, and *gardes des cantonnières* beset them at all points," and occasionally put them into jail until after the election.

Meantime, the Government candidate had everything made easy to him. His posters everywhere decorated the streets. The mails did him faithful service. He could use the telegraph to his heart's content, whereas his opponent never dreamed of trying to send a despatch. The journals which made life a burden to the wife and family of the independent candidate, overflowed with praises of his competitor. The tongue of slander, which wagged unceasingly against the opposition man, was compelled to silence in regard to the Imperialist. If any elector "originated or circulated any report injurious to the official candidate," he was at once arrested, and in vain did the non-official candidate offer bail for him; he was kept close until after the election, or, if set at liberty, was warned not to reappear in that district until after the result of the voting had been made known. When the day of polling arrived, the Imperialist candidate's good fortune underwent no diminution. The mayor perhaps announced to the citizens that, no matter how many votes they cast for the enemy of the administration, that gentleman should nevertheless on no account be returned. Perhaps the "sealed urn" for the reception of the ballots was M. le Maire's pocket, held open for that purpose by a clerk. And that ballots of the right kind should alone get into the urn, it was customary to make the voter, on his way to the ballot-box, pass through a double line of military and civil officials, who narrowly scrutinized his ballot, and, if necessary, substituted the genuine official document for a non-official, and, furthermore, perhaps buffeted him or sneered at him with ferocity. To all this add that about seven times in fourteen the

gentleman depositing the ballot was entirely ignorant of the arts of reading and writing, and that his fund of political knowledge mainly consisted of the belief that the Emperor was good enough to pay the taxes out of his own pocket, and habitually did so. And perhaps, when we have added this, we may be inclined to a conclusion that Professor Adams, in describing Napoleon's method of securing favorable plébiscites, has only pushed one step further back the question whether France was not his accomplice as much as his victim. What government is it that is to represent this people which does not read or write, and which recruits the army of office-holders and soldiers which is used to keep it quiet?

Mr. John Fiske's article, "The Progress from Brute to Man," is a detached chapter of an unpublished book, but it may be intelligently read as it stands. There is a good deal in it—nothing less, for one thing, than an elaborate theory of morals, and an underlying theory, new in some important features, of the genesis of sociality itself. It is very ingenious and plausible, and is set forth with a clearness of statement and argued with a cogency which make it quite a model of its kind. It will, we dare say, surprise and gratify such readers as look to science for a shock to their religious sentiments, and too often do not look in vain. Of another earmark of contemporary science—an arrogance of tone which sometimes may be wholly unconscious of itself, but sometimes is by no means unconscious—the article is not altogether free. For example, Mr. Fiske sets out with the remark that he is unavoidably compelled to make reference to other chapters, as yet unpublished, of the work to which the "Progress from Brute to Man" belongs, but that this will probably make but little difference to the reader: "for he who already understands and accepts the Development Theory will have no difficulty in following the argument; while to him who neither understands nor accepts the Development Theory the argument will have no significance or value whatever." Here, it will be seen, the ground is entirely cut from under the feet of several classes of unfortunates—as, for example, the reader who understanding may yet reject the Development Theory; and the reader who, understanding it, may hold it in provisional acceptance only; and the reader who appreciates the value and significance of Mr. Fiske's admirable arguments and illustrations, but does not yet go the length of regarding the Development Theory as an absolute base of certitude. A remark of this kind is not a great matter perhaps; but, if no more, it is polemically ill-judged. It is a piece of controversial maladroitness, like that of saying, as Mr. Fiske said the other day in controverting some of Mr. Agassiz's opinions, that he himself, for his part, had become thoroughly convinced of the soundness of the Development Theory "thirteen years ago," when Mr. Fiske, still fortunately a young man, may have been eighteen or twenty years old. Correct opinions on important matters are formed and held at earlier ages than eighteen or twenty; but in controversy the fact is usually suppressed that it was at eighteen or twenty that one reached given philosophical conclusions as to the true solutions of the most baffling problems. But these are small blemishes in an excellent piece of work which will receive and well repay attention.

Besides these articles the *North American Review* contains also a paper entitled "The Meaning and Causes of Value," by Mr. Albert S. Bolles; another with the title of "Our Electoral Machinery," by an anonymous writer, who shows a great deal of a sort of middle-aged good sense; another by Mr. J. T. Bixby, reviewing Taine's "On Intelligence"; another on Miss Stephen's "Service of the Poor"; and, finally, half a dozen critical notices of books. Of these latter the longest are of Cherbuliez's 'Meta Holdenis' and Mr. Furness's 'Variorum Macbeth,' which is praised with warmth by a writer evidently at home with his subject. As regards the other essays which we have mentioned, very little occurs to us to remark of any one of them. Mr. Bolles's is a short lesson in rudimentary political economy, and usefully insists on the need of clear definitions; and "Our Electoral Machinery" discusses the proposed change in the electoral colleges, and is a mine of facts and arguments which will be worth having when Senator Morton's Committee reports next winter.

RECENT NOVELS.*

MISS YONGE'S 'Pillars of the House' is a novel which will get its warmest welcome in leisurely parsonage houses in England and this country; or perhaps in leisurely houses where clergymen are in even higher consideration than they are beneath their own roofs. Leisurely the houses will have to be, for the two solid volumes of the book contain no less than twelve hundred octavo pages—twelve hundred and twenty, to be exact—and some of them are not exciting at all. The story is of the struggling family of a Church of England curate. He is a scholar, a gentleman by birth, and a man of all the virtues, including the clerical leporine virtue of becoming the possessor of offspring to the number of thirteen in the space of sixteen years, at the end of which time he dies of pulmonary consumption, and leaves his widow and children nearly destitute. They are not only almost destitute of money; they are whelmed in a flood of appalling calamity. On the day of the father's death the mother gives birth to twin children, one of whom turns out to be blind, and both of whom the father baptizes at his bedside in a heartrending scene; the mother has just previously fallen down some steps, and so injured herself that she becomes imbecile in mind, and not long after dies; the eldest son, who is but sixteen, and who is henceforth the head of the house, nearly breaks his own heart and the hearts of some of his more frivolous relatives and friends by taking up the trade of a printer instead of remaining a gentleman and becoming a clergyman; the eldest daughter, who must act as the mother of the other dozen, is but fifteen years of age, and nearly overborne by her anxieties; one of the other daughters is a cripple, and grows by-and-by to be hysterical; several of the younger boys develop a good degree of genuine British brutality, which makes them a heavy handful for their eldest brother, who with difficulty restrains himself from "licking" Master Fulbert two or three times a day; a young American, a Master Travis, whom a grievous accident throws into the house, proves at first to be a very bad fellow, who vulgarly calls Lance a "little coon," and teaches Fulbert to shake the dice, which, *more Americano*, Master Travis carries about in his pocket; quarter-day often finds the young housekeepers with only sevenpence or thereabouts on the favorable side of the balance-sheet, while at the same time Lance wants shoes and Geraldine some carriage-riding. Altogether few families since the days of the house of Atreus can have been "down on their luck," as Felix would say, or more nearly "gone coons," as the slangy young Travis would say, than Felix, Wilmet, Alda, Edgar, Geraldine, Clement, Fulbert, Lancelot, Robina, Angela, Bernard, Stella Eudora, and Theodore Benjamin Underwood. They all come out of their troubles, however, Travis included, and emerge into prosperity and peace. We may, as well as in any other way, give a notion of the contents of the book by quoting a passage which describes the baptism of this same Travis, who has not been brought to that point in his Christian duty until after hard work on his own part and that of others, nor without some dangerous and almost fatal backslidings. On this side of the water he had enjoyed few religious privileges, his father worshipping money, despising the Old Country and its religion, teaching his son also to despise both, "guessing" and "calculating," and in general behaving in all respects like a vulgar materialist, as he is. The son is, to be sure, a rather queer sort of "Yankee." His mother was the daughter of a Mexican woman (with Aztec blood in her veins), who had married an English atheist; and his father is the son of an emigrated English attorney of no good repute, who came upon her in Mexico. But, whatever his nativity, Fernando's life in Mexico and Texas has familiarized him with the worst variety of Southern slaveholding life, and all this, together with his inherited Aztec tendency to play games of chance, make of him a very doubtful subject indeed. He burns down a hotel, for instance, thus causing the death of three persons; he dislikes study; he is sceptical, and so on. Still, under the teaching of Felix, Lance, and Mr. Audley, he becomes a Christian by a process which Miss Yonge does not pursue in detail, she being stronger in church decoration and Christian feeling than in theology, and he is thus baptized:

"He had not in the least realized the effect of the interior of a church. St. Oswald's was a very grand old building, with a deep chancel a good deal raised, seen along a vista of heavy columns and arched vaults, lighted from the clerestory, and with a magnificent chancel-arch. The season was Lent, and the coloring of the decorations was therefore grave, but all the richer, and the light coming strongly in from the west window, immediately over the children's heads, made the contrast of the bright sunlight and of the soft depths of mystery more striking, and to an eye to which everything ecclesiastical was absolutely new, the effect was almost overwhelming. That solemnity and sanctity of long centuries, the peaceful hush, the grave beauty and grandeur, almost made him afraid to breathe, and Cherry sat by his side with her expressive face composed into the serious but happy look that accorded with the whole scene. . . . Then came the low swell of the organ, another new sensation to one who had only heard opera music; then the approaching sound of the voices. Geraldine gave him the book open at the processional psalm, and the white-clad choir passed by, one of the first pair of choristers being Lance, singing with all his might, and that merry monkey-face full of a child's beautiful happy reverence. And again

* 'The Pillars of the House; or, Under Wode, Under Rode. By Charlotte M. Yonge.' London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1873.
'The Wooing O't. A Novel.' New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1873.
'Penruddock. By Hamilton Aïdé.' Boston: James R. Osgood & Co. 1873.
'Miriam Monfort. A Novel. By the Author of 'The Household of Bouverie.'' New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1874.
'Quixstar. By the Author of 'Blindpits.'' New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1873.
'Arthur Bonnicastle. An American Novel. By J. G. Holland. With twelve full-page Illustrations by Mary A. Hallock.' New York: Scribner, Armstrong & Co. 1873.
'By-and-By. An Historical Romance of the Future. By Edward Maitland.' New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1873.
'May. By Mrs. Oliphant.' New York: Scribner, Armstrong & Co. 1873.
'Hester Morley's Promise. By Hesba Stretton.' New York: Dodd & Mead. 1873.
'A Simpleton. By Charles Reade.' New York: Harper & Bros. 1873.

could be recognized Felix, Mr. Audley, Mr. Bevan, all whom the poor sick stranger had come to love best, all to his present perception glorified and beautiful. They had told him it would be all faith and no sight, but he seemed to find himself absolutely within that brighter, better sphere to which they belonged, to see them walking in it in their white robes, to hear their songs of praise, and to know whence came that atmosphere that they carried about with them, and that he had felt when it was a riddle to him."

Evidently this is a story which has several of the elements necessary for pleasing and edifying a great number of persons. We may remark that some American readers will perhaps object to seeing in the hands of their young people a book in which the distinction between the "cad" and his fellow-citizens of other varieties is drawn with so great sharpness, and in which "trade" causes so much anguish to some of the personages. But we should say that the class of people which the author had in view will think that the good qualities of the story far more than balance its bad. The boys are, on the whole, manly boys, the girls womanly girls; both in the boys and the girls there is no small spice of humanity; there is ritualism to the extent of a Sister Constance—Lady Mary Somerville that was—who goes out nursing, but it is not obtrusive; there is, for the younger readers, fractiousness made odious, and good behavior made honorable; and for the elder there is a certain quantity of love-making; there are piety and pious observances, as ordered by the Church of England; and, as we have said, we may pronounce 'The Pillars of the House' a book for which many parents and children of the Episcopalian communion will be grateful.

An exceedingly interesting novel is 'The Wooing O't,' a recent addition to the Leisure Hour Series. It tells the story of a young girl who, at the beginning of the story, is living with her uncle and aunt, but who leaves them to take the place of companion to a woman who has been boarding with them. In this new position she sees more of the world, she is fallen in love with, and finally, when her protector marries, she finds another opening with a rich and eccentric young woman, and so the story runs on to its happy ending. Its plot is very slight, and certainly is far from being the main merit of the novel; that lies rather in the delicacy of the humor, the careful and accurate drawing of the different characters, and the general innocent and unaffected style of narration. The way in which the vulgar, good-natured Mrs. Berry is described is worthy of comparison with Miss Austen's best work. Her kindness to Maggie from the first, her constant amiability, her petty economies, her unfailing vulgarity, are admirably drawn; whenever she speaks it is easy to catch her peculiarities, but these are never caricatured, never turned to ridicule. Then John, Maggie's rough but kind-hearted cousin, with his noisy ways and indescribable conceit, is drawn with quite as much skill. Especially good is the description of the scene between him and Miss Grantham, where the reader has to give his sympathy to Maggie, who is listening to them both with great dread, lest John, the irrepressible, should blurt out some alarming speech. Then, too, Lord Torchester, and his evangelically-disposed mother, are admirably described. In short, this novel deserves very warm commendation for the perfect healthiness of its tone, for the keen and good-natured observation which it shows, and the sensible sympathy the writer bestows on all her characters. It is so good in many ways that the reader who puts it down may be perfectly satisfied with it, and yet not know how clever it is, but if it be compared with the numberless other attempts at doing the same thing, the difference becomes clear enough. There are but few novels of this kind which deserve a higher place than this, and it ought to go on the same shelf with Mrs. Oliphant's 'Miss Marjoribanks,' Mrs. Gaskell's 'North and South,' and, possibly, Miss Thackeray's stories.

Another good novel is 'Penruddock,' by Hamilton Aïdé, whose earlier stories gave proof of considerable ability. This one is written as an autobiography, a form of which the author is rather fond, and sets before us the youth and early manhood of an Englishman who, for certain reasons which are duly given, leaves his home and makes the best way he can in the great world. He is an honest, simple-hearted young fellow, a favorite with all except his own relatives, but his enthusiasm and over-confidence in others as well as in himself are continually getting him into hot water. All his deeds, the most innocent as well as those which are rather dubious, are harshly judged, the ears of the girl he loves are filled with calumnies about him, and his life is by no means an easy one. A German lady, the Baroness D'Arnheim, who is ten or a dozen years older than he, is a kind friend and counsellor to him, but this fact is not ignored by a censorious world, and very little good comes of it. In her character we cannot help thinking that the author has failed, but, on the whole, he has succeeded in writing a very readable novel, which we trust gives an exaggerated representation of the improprieties of London society.

Our praise of 'Miriam Monfort' must be cooler. The opening scenes are in Philadelphia, in a "gloomy-looking gray stone edifice, with massive granite steps (imported at great cost, before the beautiful white-marble quarries had been developed which abound in the vicinity of, and characterize the dwellings of, that rare and perfect city)." The heroine is unlike most other heroines in being cataleptic; she is like them in being on board of a ship that is burned at sea; and as a part of the persecutions to which we are all so liable, she is unjustly confined in a private mad-house. The further complications we can leave the reader to unravel. A few lines will show the sort of book it is:

"In the gray of a foggy February morning the duel was fought, and Captain Wentworth fell, as it was at first thought, mortally wounded.

"At the request of his excellent physician, Dr. Durand, when the watchers were exhausted and vigilance was all-essential in his case, I accepted, rather than proposed to take, the part of watcher for one night, in company with my devoted friend and coadjutor, Edward Vernon, and discovered in my anguish, and in my power over his distracted senses, my so-far hidden gift of magnetism.

"Insomnolency was destroying him; opiates had been tried in vain to compose him; and now, under my waving fingers and straining will, he slept the sweet, refreshing, magnetic slumber. He lived, some were pleased to say, and among others his physician, through my agency—my admirable nursing—for none, save Vernon, ever knew the secret of my sway. We became engaged during his convalescence, simply, quietly, unostentatiously."

But this is mild compared with some other passages, especially those in which Southerners, and especially Southerners in love, get talking.

A novel which contains a great deal of cleverness rather than a clever novel is 'Quixstar.' It gives an account of many of the inhabitants of a little Scotch village, describing every one with intelligence and humor. The writer is a very sharp-eyed person, who manages to see into the secret hearts of many characters, and who puts them before us very clearly. The story is very simple, even, it might seem, disproportionately so to the thoroughness with which the people are described, and there is something cloying in the continual flow of epigram, and something disappointing in the way in which what would, in more skilful hands, be the material of many novels, is lost sight of by the author.

Dr. Holland's 'Arthur Bonnicastle' reminds one of a dilution of Mr. George MacDonald's novels. It is a story told autobiographically, and beginning with the hero's earliest recollections. His father was a shiftless, unsuccessful New Hampshire farmer, who, under stress of poverty, takes himself and family to the town of Bradford, where he is employed as carpenter. Arthur, the hero, is then a little boy of ten, and by his guileless talk, which to the profane would seem, to use the mildest phrase, priggish if it were not so unintentionally blasphemous, he fascinates a wealthy lady living in the town. She adopts him, and Arthur enjoys to the full his new position. He is sent to a model school where the teacher is "only the biggest and best boy, and the accepted president of the establishment," where all the responsibility is thrown upon the boys. After leaving this school, and while studying at home, there is a revival in the village, and Arthur is affected by it. This does its work toward making him insufferable: he reproves his elders, he becomes a well-known speaker in the cause of religion; but soon he becomes a backslider, and enters college. There his wealth exposes him to temptation in the shape of a visit to New York. He spends the Christmas vacation there, he drinks wine, and on New Year's Day he oversteps the bounds of sobriety. But repentance follows swift, and he never repeats his fault. In time, a very thin veil of concealment is taken down, and it turns out that the real heir to all the wealth which Arthur had supposed would be his is his best friend Henry, who had fallen in love with Arthur's sister Claire. Arthur declines an invitation to go to Europe, tells Henry of the change his discovery makes in the plans of both, and studies law. Finally, of course, he marries the choice of his heart. What the novel undertakes to show is, apparently, the injurious effects of wealth and self-indulgence on the young. Arthur is always uneasy about his position and half-ashamed of the inferior social position of his father, the carpenter, but when he finds he is to be poor he sets to work and earns a livelihood. But the dangers of the wealthy are not undue prominence in revivals, and poor Arthur's little frigid temptations are hardly more than the outbreaking of his petty, priggish nature. He is the most colorless hero ever known. In fact, the whole book, while written with the best intentions in the world, is too pallid, too lifeless to deserve praise.

To such of us as bemoan the present, and look forward to the time when the world will be free of its faults and cruelties, we would commend 'By-and-By: an Historical Romance of the Future.' The author undertakes to foretell the condition of the world some centuries hence, "when our own country, at least, shall have made such advance in the solution of the problems which harass the present, and shall be so far relieved from all disabling artifices, social, political, and religious, that individuals will be able, without penalty or reproach, to fashion their lives according to their own preferences, the sole external limitation being that imposed by the law of equal liberty for all." Reformers will find that some impor-

tant changes are to be made; for instance, marriage, as we understand it, will soon cease to exist, and it will be replaced by what are amusingly called three classes of marriage, which it is not necessary to explain here. The result will be that "to have already proved her qualifications as a tender and judicious mother came to be regarded by men of sense as a woman's strongest recommendation for marriage; and the question they asked was not, 'Is she already a mother?' but 'What sort of a mother is she?'" And yet, by a singular contradiction, the ballot will still be denied women, who will nevertheless long for it, but who may expect, even in that wise future, no better treatment than Miss Anthony received last summer when she tried to vote. So at least we judge from the following extract:

"Down here with us, should a woman approach the polls, the official, being a male, and constituting himself a judge of dress and fashion, as well as of nomenclature, would say, 'By the character of your dress, or the termination of your name, I adjudge you to be a woman. You must therefore retire. The privilege of voting is not accorded to those who are thus attired or styled."

This would seem to imply the success of the Woodhull wing of reformers. The worst thing about the future, if we may take 'By-and-By' for a fair sample, will be its novels.

We are late in speaking of Mrs. Oliphant's 'May,' but those who have been disappointed by her 'Innocent' can be recommended to turn back to the earlier novel. This lady has certainly a remarkable gift for story-telling, and, whenever she succeeds, she is remarkable for her agreeable humor, her intelligent, if not over-subtle, observation, and her wise sympathy with what is good in the world. She never preaches sermons directly to us, but every one of her novels leaves a strong impression on the reader's mind of the kindliness of her heart, and that life is not so hopeless a thing after all as some novelists make out. In this novel, she has caught admirably the prominent traits of a foolish woman in Matilda, and she draws a most amusing but perfectly unmalicious picture of the way in which she fascinates a man who is in other respects sensible. Then, too, the good-for-nothing Fanshawe is well described. In fact, both of these characters are rather better drawn than the heroine. This is not a novel to disturb one's sleep, but it is, to our thinking, a successful story, which is well suited to give its readers a considerable amount of innocent pleasure.

A melancholy, somewhat morbid story is 'Hester Morley's Promise,' by Hesba Stretton. An analysis of the plot would sound like that of a sensational novel brought into the service of morality and right-doing. It gives an account of the penitential suffering of a man who begins life by running away with his neighbor's wife, and who is punished years afterwards by falling in love in vain with her step-daughter. This is not an attractive subject, and the book is filled with deep gloom; but in spite of working with such depressing material, Miss Stretton is skilful enough to deserve commendation for her descriptions of dull village life and the narrow-mindedness of bigots. The whole tone of the book, as we have said, is morbid; but there are many novel-readers who prefer morbidness.

The moral idea of Mr. Charles Reade's new novel, 'A Simpleton,' which would be very pretty if it were not very absurd, is the development of a girl's character into that of a woman through adversity. Rosa Lusignan, bred up to luxury and extravagance, marries Dr. Christopher Staines, brought up to poverty and hard work, after an agonizing prelude, during which she falls ill of a hemorrhage, owing to tight stays, and indirectly to the qualified dismissal of Dr. Staines by her father. Dr. Staines cures without any recourse to the materia medica, and then marries his patient. During the engagement, however, she had innocently flirted with one Reginald Falcon, a good-for-nothing gentleman with large debts, himself engaged to a good girl of poor but honest parentage, whom he ruthlessly tortures (when he is not borrowing money of her) by his attentions to other women. Rosa of course rejects, and thereby mortally wounds the vanity of this young gentleman, and he vows vengeance. Incredible adventures ensue. The Staines establishment is very expensive, and Mrs. Staines's efforts at economy, though magnificent in intention, are not successful in practice. Indeed, she spends every farthing they have and a good deal more, and the doctor is obliged to accept an offer as travelling physician to a young nobleman, Tadcaster by name, who must be taken a long sea-voyage. The moment of parting is terrible, and Rosa is left behind to cherish the memory of her husband, and become, by the natural development of her charming character, a matron of an unusually delightful sort. Meantime, the doctor is lost overboard, and saves himself by clinging to a raft. The crew of the raft consists of a corpse with a belt full of diamonds. The doctor goes mad, is picked up, and carried ashore still mad. He is placed in an asylum, and after a time is recognized by Mrs. Reginald Falcon, the good girl referred to before having married Reginald and obliged him, much against his will, to go with her to South Africa, where she with her brother carries on an extensive farm, and coddles her worthless husband, whom, notwithstanding his vices, she devotedly loves. This brother is the same brother whose life Dr. Staines had saved on a memorable occasion in England. Christopher gradually recovers his wits, and he and Reginald Falcon do some very adventurous diamond-digging and travelling together; but the wicked Falcon, as soon as he gets hold of some money, deserts the African party altogether, and hurries to England, where he indulges in needless villany, and comes very near marrying Rosa, under pretence that her husband is dead, nothing of course being known of the existence of his own wife. It all ends happily however, leaving Rosa and the Doctor in each other's arms, and Falcon howling—to use a favorite word of the author's—outside the window, through which he has just been pitched. To any one who knows Mr. Reade's other books, there is nothing in this story, because it merely contains a number of his old characters, who are made to go through new adventures. There is a strong resemblance between Rosa and the heroine of 'Love Me Little, Love Me Long,' Dr. Staines is a later medical and scientific equivalent of Mr. Eden, the wife of Reginald Falcon is remarkably like the girl who figures in 'Put Yourself in His Place,' and we even catch a glimpse of our old friend Jacky the savage once more. We confess to a liking for much that Mr. Reade has written; the chief difficulty with his later stories like this 'Simpleton' and the 'Wandering Heir' is that there is a little too much pathos and adventure to the square inch.

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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

OCTOBER 20, 1873.

WE have no change to report in the situation of affairs since last week. On Monday the National Trust Company resumed business, and thus far the demands upon the institution have been less than was anticipated by the officers of the Company. We hear nothing with regard to the efforts of the Union Trust Company to resume, further than that it is understood to be the intention to reopen for business at an early day, with an enlarged capital of $1,000,000, making the new capital $2,000,000. A meeting will be held to-day, when the matter will probably be decided.

Reports from the interior indicate that in all the Western cities there is an unusually large amount of currency in the different banks and moneyed institutions. This is especially true with regard to Chicago and Cincinnati. In this city legal tenders and National bank currency continue to command a premium of from ¼ to ½ per cent. over certified checks. The savings-banks have released none of the currency so effectually locked up by them some weeks since. The thirty days' notice which the savings-banks required from their depositors before paying over deposits, will expire this week; and it is probable that in case the demands from their depositors should be light and the banks should have no further use for their hoardings, the latter may decide to put the currency again in circulation through a repurchase of their Government bonds, which they can do at lower prices than those at which they were sold.

One of the most serious drawbacks felt during the past week was the difficulty of getting remittances from Boston, Philadelphia, and other cities. The New York banks are obliged to refuse taking and crediting up drafts or checks on other points, as the out-of-town banks have notified them of the impossibility of their making any returns whatever for the present. In Boston, ½ per cent. premium was paid during the week for New York funds, while in Philadelphia the premium was still higher.

Money has been rather easier with the brokers, who have been able to supply their wants by borrowing from one another at 7 per cent. per annum to ⅛ per cent. per diem. The ruling rate, if we may so call it, was from $\frac{1}{32}$ to $\frac{1}{16}$ and interest.

The Bank of England rate of discount was raised on Tuesday from 5 per cent., at which it had been standing, to 6 per cent., and on Saturday, at a special meeting of the directors, the rate was further advanced, and now stands at 7 per cent. This action of the Bank was, of course, taken for the purpose of preventing further shipments of gold to this country. Advices from London state that the advance in the discount rate was not unexpected, and no stringency in the market has followed thus far in consequence.

On Monday the stock market opened very weak, and continued so, with a sharp decline in prices, until Wednesday, which carried down New York Central to 82, Lake Shore to 57½, Harlem to 100, Rock Island to 81, Wabash to 32¾, Western Union to 45, and Pacific Mail to 25. In the afternoon prices recovered rapidly, Lake Shore rising 10 per cent., New York Central 7 per cent., Western Union 9 per cent., Rock Island 6½ per cent., and Harlem 6½ per cent., other stocks sharing in the improvement. The market since Wednesday has continued to improve, with a good demand for stocks from outside parties, who of course buy for cash and take the securities away with them.

The half-yearly dividend on New York Central was promptly paid on the day on which it was due at the office of Messrs. Duncan, Sherman & Co.

The following shows the highest and lowest sales of the leading stocks at the Stock Exchange for the week ending October 18:

	Monday.		Tuesday.		Wed'day.		Thursday		Friday.		Saturday		Sales.
N. Y. C & H. R...	88¼	91	82½	88½	82	87¼	86½	90	88¼	90¾	88	89¼	95,800
Lake Shore.....	65⅝	69½	59½	66¾	57¾	67	66	70	67¾	70	66¼	69¾	88,700
Erie.....	46	46⅞	44¾	46	41⅞	46¼	46¼	47	46¼	46⅝	44⅜	45⅜	17,600
Do pfd.....	67	67	65½	67	60	....	65	....	65½	67½	....	....	.....
Union Pacific....	18¾	19½	16½	18½	15½	18¼	18¼	19¼	18⅝	20¼	19½	19⅝	89,700
Chi. & N. W.....	40½	42¼	31⅜	40	32½	34⅜	36	40½	39½	42¼	39½	40⅜	21,900
Do. pfd...	63	64½	60	62	60	62½	64	66	67	....	....	....	4,100
N. J. Central.....	90⅝	....	90½	....	90	....	91	91½	91½	....	90	....	1,200
Rock Island.....	89	91	80½	84¾	81	87½	87	90	89¼	92½	90¼	91¾	25,800
Mil. & St. Paul....	29¾	31¾	23	29¼	24	28	28	31¼	30½	31¾	30	31⅜	14,800
Do. pfd...	51½	55	52	....	50	52	54	54½	55	....	....	....	2,200
Wabash.....	42¾	44¾	33¾	42¾	32¾	39¾	35½	41¾	41	43¾	41¼	43¼	49,400
D., L. & W.....	89	89½	83	88	80	85½	87	88¾	89	90	89	89¼	4,400
O. & M.....	23¼	27⅜	21¼	26	21¼	25	24¾	26⅞	26¼	27⅜	26¼	27	89 700
C., C. & I. C.....	20⅜	21½	17⅜	20¼	18	21	21¼	22¼	21⅜	23½	21½	22	18,700
W. U. Tel.....	38	62¾	48½	57½	45	54½	53¼	55⅜	56¼	59½	55¼	57½	187,600
Pacific Mail.....	31¾	33⅜	25½	31½	25	31⅜	31	34¾	32⅞	34¾	31¾	33¾	31,400

Gold has remained steady during the week, with no specially interesting features to notice. The range in fluctuations was as follows:

	Opening.	Highest.	Lowest.	Closing.
Monday	108⅛	108⅝	108⅛	108⅜
Tuesday	108¾	109⅜	108⅜	109¼
Wednesday	108⅞	109⅛	108¼	108⅜
Thursday	108¾	108½	107⅝	108
Friday	107¾	108¼	107¾	108¼
Saturday	108⅜	108⅜	108¼	108¾

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Losses paid in 1872, ...	806,000
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 30, 1873.

The Week.

THERE was a little financial flurry in the beginning of the week, caused by a letter which the President wrote to Mr. Williams of the Metropolitan Bank, and of which Mr. Anthony supposed himself to have received a gloss or explanation in a conversation with the President himself. This explanation was sufficiently astounding, as it made the President urge the banks to do their utmost to relieve the money stringency, and declare that the Government would help them "by issuing three or four millions a week of the reserve." Secretary Richardson, on being questioned on the subject, denied all knowledge of any such plan, as did General Babcock, the Private Secretary, and there was for a moment a horrible fear that the President was going to inflate the currency himself of his own motion, and that Mr. Richardson would resign in a huff. It turned out, however, that the President's letter contained nothing but a commonplace expression of good-will, and the conversation with Mr. Anthony degenerated into a mysterious "conflict of veracity," which will probably never be cleared up. The right to issue the "reserve," however, in spite of the law, continues to be maintained and asserted, but has been transferred in theory from the Secretary to the President. The *Financial Chronicle* devotes a good deal of space to the reproduction of the argument which appeared in these columns a year ago, showing that the issue is utterly illegal, and points out that every time it takes place it defrauds the actual holders of outstanding greenbacks by lowering their value. No arguments, however, will do any good as long as the public is as apathetic as it is now. If public opinion were in a healthy condition, Mr. Richardson would not venture to talk and act as he does about the "reserve," especially after his pretence of reverence for the law in his interview with the bankers at the Fifth Avenue Hotel at the end of September. Had he then been as unscrupulous as he now cheerfully confesses himself, he might have stayed the panic. The mischief being done, he throws off the mask, and practises on the public patience.

Mr. Richardson let it be known early in the week that the price of silver was so low that the Treasury would at once resume specie payments in that metal, and that anybody who chose to draw it for greenbacks might have as much of it as he needed. It appears that, when he came to this determination, he had less than half a million of silver on hand; and, as soon as it got abroad, he was assailed with so many demands for the coin from all parts of the country, that he saw that his stock would be exhausted in a few days. He has accordingly given up his scheme. When one comes to examine it, however, it is well calculated, like some of General Grant's financial ideas, to excite alarm, owing to the fresh revelations it affords regarding the attitude of those who manage the national finances towards the laws of trade. Any banker down-town would have told him that, owing to the low valuation put on silver by our Government as compared to gold, gold will have to fall below 105 before silver will stay in the country any longer than gold. At present prices it is profitable to export it; and consequently, no matter how much be issued, it would not stay in circulation. Mr. Richardson, by way of accounting for his failure, says "the agitation which had occurred in consequence of the announcement of the intention of the Treasury to place the currency on a silver basis had defeated the object he had in view"; and that if this intention "had not become public nor been discussed by the public press, the silver on hand would have been sufficient for the purpose," etc. From this it would appear that what he is aiming at is *secret* resumption, which will be something new in the history of finance. He means to resume when nobody is looking.

As the day of election approaches, the air in New York becomes thick with startling news. The organization known as Apollo Hall, which was composed in equal numbers of gentlemen who wished to "sell out" to Tammany, and gentlemen who would on no account sell out to Tammany for the very good reason that they desired to sell out to Tom Murphy, has effected an arrangement with the Custom-house, securing a share of offices on the Republican ticket. On the other hand, the "dead-lock," as it is called, between the Mayor and the Aldermen on the subject of the police justices, has come to an end by means of a compromise, and the justices have been actually confirmed for long terms. The new judges are, on the whole, a great deal better than the old ones. Only one justice is retained in his place, and he, curiously enough, is said to be an "Apollo Hall man." The judiciary nominations are generally good on both sides, though there are one or two men who are in bad odor. The Bar Association has issued an address on the subject of the judiciary amendment, which brings out the astonishing fact that, since 1846, while there have been in Massachusetts only 18 Supreme Court judges or judicial terms, in the two highest courts in this State the machine has been kept in such rapid revolution that we have turned out 280.

The address ought to prove a strong appeal. Our own opinion on this subject has been often reiterated, but as this is very likely the last time in the lifetime of the present generation that the question will be presented to them, we take this opportunity of saying that in our opinion the continued safety of property and person in New York, and not merely in New York, but throughout the United States, depends very largely on the adoption of this amendment. Appeals are being continually made to people to "clinch the great reform movement of two years ago by rising in their might" and electing this or that assemblyman, sheriff, or coroner. But every one knows that the effect produced in this way is a mere trifle compared with that which would follow from securing a bench throughout the State upon which we could really rely. The vote on this question will be determined, if it is determined in the affirmative, by the action of a class of persons who ordinarily stay away from the polls, and we earnestly advise our readers in the State and city that it is their solemn duty to vote for the overthrow of a system which, to use the language of Mr. Evarts, has lowered the dignity of the bench, weakened the force of law, impaired public confidence in the administration of justice, made criminals more numerous and bold, and life and property and character less and less safe for thirty years.

The New York *Times* has recently dwelt on the importance of the approaching election as regards the management of the State canals, and has urged people to support the Republican candidates as the great means of keeping this management pure. General Barlow, the present Attorney-General, has during the past two years been very busy with investigations of canal affairs, and has unearthed a great deal of fraud and jobbery. When, therefore, he heard that the Republican Convention proposed the other day to nominate Mr. William B. Taylor for State Engineer, he wrote a letter, to which we have referred once before, and which we have seen, calling the attention of the managers to the fact that there had not been a job or swindle in the Canal Board for the last two years for which Taylor had not voted, and that he had steadily supported every scheme of the canal ring. This information was conveyed directly to all the leaders, including the eloquent Conkling, the patriotic Murphy, and the energetic Sharpe and Laflin. The result was that Taylor was at once nominated for State Engineer and Barlow was dropped, and all the "organs" have kept dead silence about the letter. There is something comical, yet melancholy, about the whole performance, coming at the close of a reform movement, and illustrates for the hundredth time the confidence with which the professional politician relies on the working of the

party machinery, or, in other words, on the blind following of the public.

We beg to call Mr. D. B. Eaton's attention to the circular issued by Mr. G. F. Hopper, the Superintendent of the Box Department of the New York Post-office, in which he requests the clerks of the Post-office to contribute to the party expenses at the approaching election. Mr. Hopper was cunningly appointed collector of funds or the canvass by the State Committee. The circular is a polite invitation on its face, but it is in reality (and was so regarded by the clerks) an order which they dared not disobey. In other words, they have been fined to a considerable amount. Now, what we want Mr. Eaton to observe is that, unless practices of this sort are stopped utterly, people will continue to regard the prohibition of assessments contained in the civil-service rules as a mockery, and the whole civil-service movement as a delusion and snare. He cannot expect anything else. The form in which poor clerks are levied on is of little consequence as long as the fact remains that an invitation by their superiors to pay money has the force, and we are assured the effect, of an order. We must not be told here that the reform "goes on slowly, but still it goes." This assessment abuse has been reformed on paper. All that is needed now is honest enforcement. As matters stand, the rule is a permanent fraud, which gentlemen like Mr. Eaton cannot afford to wink at. All solicitation of these poor Government employees by strolling politicians and their agents is a real, substantial violation of this rule.

An important proposal has been brought forward as a solution of the cheap transportation question which has not yet received much notice from the press. The plan is to keep the canals open all winter by means of artificial heat. It is understood that the inventor of the process has laid his plans before Senator Windom's committee, and that it will be considered and reported upon at the meeting of Congress. At first sight, it seems as if artificial heating would increase rather than lower the cost of transportation; but the argument is that it is only the heating apparatus which is expensive; the cost of transportation itself is lessened by the canals doing more business. We can see no flaw in this argument, which ought to commend itself to the farmers, for it is very much like some for which they have a great affection. All it will be necessary to do will be to keep the warming-pan construction account separate from the others.

The *Tribune* correspondent to whose letters from the West we have so often referred, is now writing from Minnesota, where there is a great deal of outcry against the roads; but he comes to the conclusion, after patient examination of the arguments on both sides, that there are no grievances at all which farmers can honestly complain of. The Minnesota law for the equalization of freight has proved, like the Illinois law, a ridiculous failure, and no one tries to enforce it. As a glaring instance of the absurdity of the law, an officer of the St. Paul and Sioux City road mentions the fact that it takes no notice whatever of the difference in cost between running a train "down a grade" and "up a grade." Between Winona and Sioux City, for instance, the regular charge is $77 85 per car-load of lumber. By the law, this rate is reduced to about $38 92½. Now, the railroad would be glad to carry grain back at the price which is fixed for carrying lumber out, for the simple reason that the grade is favorable; but, on the contrary, the law allows the road to charge more than twice as much. It is obvious that, if the road conformed to the law, the people who would be benefited would not be the farmers, but the lumbermen; and it is only necessary to add, for a full comprehension of the matter, that the committee of the Legislature which prepared the law is now suspected of having acted in the interest of the lumbermen's lobby or ring. As we said last week, this sort of capture of the farmers' movement by politicians, or lobbyists, is as inevitable as the action of the force of gravitation.

In Kansas the game is over, and loud complaints are made among those who have been honestly supporting the Grangers that "the old played-out politicians and office-seekers have pre-empted and ruined their movement." One paper asks: "How is it that such notorious corruptionists as Sid. Clarke and John Speer are allowed to run a movement which calls itself *reformatory*? The thing is a contradiction in terms. You are sold. Get out of it at once." In Chicago the farmers have been holding a great meeting, and they request, 1st, that Congress shall fix a maximum freight-and-passenger tariff between States; 2d, that the General Government shall begin the construction of more railroads and open more water-routes; 3d, they advise that "the people be urged to support home manufactures"; 4th, they adopt a resolution "urging the people to free themselves from the curse of debt"; 5th, they declare against all special legislation; and 6th, urge thorough organization against the monopolists. They also passed a few other resolutions separately, the most important of which was one advising each other to "hold back their hogs" till they could get $5 for them.

It is refreshing to turn from these proceedings to the meeting of the National Board of Trade, held at Chicago also at the same time. The Board voted down a resolution begging for bounties on American-built ships, for the reason that the American ship-building industry is reviving of itself without legislation. They also voted down another resolution calling upon Congress to allow all articles of foreign product needed for subsistence and general use, on board vessels engaged in the foreign trade, to be withdrawn from bond without payment of duty, and adopted a resolution demanding that American citizens should have the right to "purchase a ship, wherever built or owned, and to place it under the protection of their own flag, on the payment of a reasonable duty." The subject of transportation was discussed at great length; but the members of the Board, with much good sense, ended the debate by leaving the matter very much where it was before. The Board adjourned, to meet again in Baltimore in January, and on the whole we may say that they have every reason to feel satisfied with their work, both with what was done and what was left undone.

The facts with regard to ship-building in this country seem at present, to judge from the speeches made at the meeting of the Board, to be these: The cost of building ships on the Clyde is rapidly increasing, owing to the disturbed condition of labor on the other side of the water. On the other hand, in this country, the cost is rapidly being reduced. Labor is becoming cheaper and more plentiful, coal is more and more abundant. Mr. Stone, of Wilmington, Del., made a statement to this effect, saying at the same time that the ship-building interest will take care of itself, if Congress will only let it alone: "The constant rumors of Congressional tinkering with the laws, instead of helping, is a constant source of injury to the trade." Considering that we have now three iron ships costing about $550,000 each, built in America without aid from any source, it seems clear that, for the present, the more ship-building is left to itself, the better.

The correspondence between the Colonial Office and Earl Dufferin with regard to the Canadian scandal has been published. It consists of a defence of his own course in the matter. That he has had a very difficult part to play may be inferred from the following passage, taken from his despatch of the 15th of August. The Opposition had urged that on the publication of the Huntington charges he ought to have at once dismissed the Ministry. He says, however, that this would prove very difficult in practice, "for, as far as I have been able to seize the spirit of political controversy in Canada, there is scarcely an eminent man in the country on either side whose character or integrity has not been at one time or another the subject of reckless attack by his opponents and the press. Even your lordship and Mr. Gladstone have not escaped, for it has been more than insinuated that the Imperial Government

have been got at by Sir John Macdonald, and that the law officers of Her Majesty were instructed to condemn the Oaths Bill contrary to their legal convictions." The Home Government have given a guarded approval of the acts of Lord Dufferin. The Dominion Parliament has met, and a report of the proceedings of the Investigating Commission been submitted to it without recommendations.

The two events of importance in English politics during the week have been Mr. John Bright's return to public life and to the Cabinet, in which last he takes a seat, he says, because he can there the more effectually promote the causes he has at heart; and Mr. Disraeli's letter to Earl Grey, abusing the ministry in the grossest way, and thus, it is said, leading to a reaction which has caused the return of a Liberal candidate at Bath, a borough which sent up a Conservative candidate at the last election. The election took place just after the publication of the letter, to which it gave a test-character; and the result is generally taken as an indication that the Conservatives have been presuming too much on the strength of the late turn in the tide. In England as here, however, financial questions are just now the most interesting; and the Board of Trade returns for September, showing considerable contraction in trade, are exciting a good deal of attention. There has been a slight increase in the value of the imports during the month, and a decrease in the exports. The falling off in the exports has been mainly in textile fabrics and in iron and steel. The exports of iron and steel have declined in September of this year, as compared with the corresponding month of last year, from 300,508 tons to 265,793, or 13 per cent. But it is not true, as was reported here, that there has been an importation of iron into Liverpool from this country. The foundation of the story was that an English firm enquired of an American firm at what price American iron could be delivered in England, but found that an importation would not pay at the rates named.

It is very difficult to arrive at any conclusion worth offering as to the state of things in France. Within the last fortnight the chances of the Monarchists have apparently declined, but their confidence is unabated, which looks as if they were still sure of their majority in the Assembly, and this is the main point. The Bonapartists have, it is reported, at last determined on a policy, under "instructions from Chiselhurst," which is to offer at the opening of the session to vote for the re-establishment of the monarchy if the question of the dynasty is submitted to a popular vote. The Republicans, on the other hand, are very sure that the sentiment of the country is becoming increasingly hostile to the restoration—the white flag being still odious to the peasantry—and that the filling of the thirteen vacancies now existing in the Assembly will show this. They are working hard, and are to be marshalled under the leadership of Thiers in the Assembly, Gambetta having agreed to "efface himself" for this occasion. A deputation of leading royalists is now laboring with the Comte de Chambord, in order to extract from him the exact nature and extent of the concessions he will make to modern ideas. It will depend on the result of their mission, probably, whether he will be set up really to reign, or merely to make way for the Comte de Paris. The Duc de Broglie, the ablest and most enlightened man of the monarchical party, has made a speech ridiculing the notion that any restoration of clerical supremacy is possible in France, no matter who seeks it. No man or dynasty, he says, can fight against the ideas of the age and its social conditions, which is true, but then clerical supremacy is, to use one of our own phrases, a "good-enough Morgan until after the election."

There is so much wild talk in foreign journals about the conduct of the majority in the Assembly in assuming "constituent powers"—that is, in attempting to fix the form of government without consulting the nation—that it is well in the interest of "political science" to recall the fact once more that the Assembly is adhering strictly, not only to French precedents and traditions, but to those of all European countries. A reference to the people of the question of the form of government has never been made in France or anywhere else by any party, and, however low one's opinion of the French Legitimists may be, it is absurd to expect them to begin the practice, or to abuse them for not doing it. The Government of England was changed in 1688 by Parliament; the legislative independence of Ireland was surrendered in 1801 by Parliament. Every body of persons who have seized the reins of power in Paris within the last eighty years have settled for themselves the form of government, and left nothing for the Constituent Assembly to do but draft the constitution. The present Republic was set up by a mob in the street, and Gambetta treated their decision as final, and issued decrees actually prescribing the qualifications of members of the legislature which subsequently met. Louis Napoleon, in like manner, overthrew the Republic, and seated himself firmly as a dictator before he asked the people what they thought about it, and in all his plébiscites never once offered them an alternative of any kind. The fight now going on in France is, in short, a fight between the supporters of two kinds of divine right, and not between experimental politicians and feudalists.

The accounts from Spain from both sides concur in describing the Carlists' cause as declining. They have not been able to cross the Ebro, in spite of a good many successes during the summer, and their long continuance in the districts peopled by their own friends is alienating the inhabitants, who have to bear all the burdens of the war. Moreover, Castelar is sending against them all the reinforcements he can collect from whatever quarter, so that the Government troops begin at last to outnumber them in the northern provinces. The dictatorship is decidedly telling on the Republican army, owing to the dictator's abandonment of the various hallucinations in which he and his friends indulged when he was in opposition. He has not only re-established the conscription, but permits mutiny to be punished with death, and has restored the artillery officers to their old positions, it having been discovered at last that the artillery could not be commanded by right-minded sergeants and corporals. The result is that discipline begins to revive, and many officers of all arms who had resigned in disgust are returning to the service. The siege of Cartagena has been reduced to a mere blockade, but even this the place is not likely to stand very long. The insurgent fleet is roving up and down the coast, plundering merchantmen, and occasionally making requisitions on shore—a spectacle absolutely without precedent. It is, however, a curious illustration of the nature of Spanish "republicanism" that Castelar's success thus far should be ascribed to his having got rid of the Cortes. Were the legislature of the Republic sitting, it is generally acknowledged that even a dictator could not carry on the Government. In other words, the "Republic" is saved through resort to lawless monarchy.

The alarm and estrangement produced in Italy by the impending restoration in France have led to the revival of the committees for the recovery of Nice and Savoy, now for some years inactive. This movement, little as it probably represents any purpose on the part of the Government, still excites some apprehension in Paris, already disturbed by the King's journey to Berlin and Vienna. In view of it, an address to the Italian people has been drawn up by certain anti-monarchists, apparently of the Protestant body, as we find the document in the *Renaissance* of the MM. Coquerel, and signatures are solicited at the office of that paper. This appeal for continued peace and friendship points to the many good offices of France to Italy, and denies that France—"la vraie France"—has ever dreamed of contesting Italy's right to Rome as her capital. What France it was that bereft her of Nice and Savoy is not stated, nor what France is now interested in retaining the provinces acquired by that fraudulent instrument of the Second Empire, the plébiscite. The right to speak in the name of "France," indeed, is asserted at this moment by too many parties to make the assurances contained in this address very comforting to the Italians. A general show of resignation as to the loss of Alsace-Lorraine would be a more effective rejoinder to the Nice-Savoy agitation.

THE WORKINGMAN AND THE PANIC.

A VERY large number of laborers in various fields of industry are undoubtedly likely to suffer considerable loss and privation during the coming winter. Many factories have suspended work, though we hope and believe only for a short period, and others are working on short time, and there is hardly any branch of trade or manufacture in which there has not been a reduction of wages, which, unless there should be a further inflation of the currency, will in all probability be permanent. There is in some quarters a disposition to make this the occasion for taunting the workingmen by recalling the reckless and unscrupulous way in which they have used their power in strikes during the late years of prosperity, and the impediments they have thrown in the way of production by their trades-union regulations. They now see, they are told, the consequences of their folly and misconduct, and will not receive half the pity that would, had they behaved more rationally, have been bestowed on them.

It is, however, hardly fair to the workingmen to connect their past warfare against capital with the present crisis in anything like the relation of cause and effect. It is not disturbances in the labor market which have brought about the present panic, though, as in all panics, it is the laborers who suffer most from it and will suffer longest. Indeed, the disposition to throw the blame on the "sons of toil," as the reporters call them, is a curious illustration of the frequency with which popular idols are changed. Any time during the last ten years, the member of our body politic who could not do wrong, who was always industrious, sagacious, and moral, and who knew how the country ought to be governed, and who must of necessity have things his own way, was the Workingman. That he was very unreasonable in his demands, or that his ideal society was incapable of realization, or that any of his grievances were imaginary, was something that no politician, and but few newspaper writers, would admit for one moment. He was, in short, the one person in the business community to whose convenience all things had to bend—and by Workingman, of course, was meant the mechanic and common laborer; and the wise men of the Government, from the President down, have for some time past been busy contriving ways of enabling him to draw as much pay for eight hours' work as for ten. All this is now changed.

The Workingman has fallen into neglect and obscurity, and the prominent figure on the stage—the person who must not be gainsaid, whose demands must be satisfied, and against whom neither political economy nor common sense ought to prevail, is the Farmer. He it is whom "the monopolists" are now crushing, and who is diddled out of his fair share of the products of the national industry, and must get his own price for his commodities. Accordingly, we have begun to scoff at the poor Workingman, and ask him how he likes hard winters, and whether he is not sorry for his strikes and his eight-hour movements. We even insinuate that he is not much of "a son of toil" after all, and that his hands are not as "horny" as they might be.

Now, the Workingman has had no more to do with bringing about the present panic than the lawyers—in fact, not quite as much. The manufactures of the country are suffering from serious, though we believe only a brief, depression, caused in part by tremendous mistakes and misconduct in railroad-making and in railroad management, and in part by the frantic and irrational assaults of the worthy Farmer on a species of property in which about $3,000,000,000, or a sum considerably larger than the national debt, is invested. He has only to continue his assaults in the same direction, and help shake the security of this species of investment more thoroughly, and we think we can promise the good man a panic and "depression," and a difficulty "of realizing on assets," and of "getting grain down to tide-water," which will fill his life with a new and strange light. But the lessons that the Workingman has to learn from the crisis are of a different kind, though there is nothing very hard about them. That he should have looked to strikes and trades-unions for solid improvements in his condition is nothing wonderful, considering the remarkable stories he has heard from the platform and the press about the extent to which capital cheats him by appropriating the results of the increased productiveness of machinery, and of the prodigious diffusion of happiness that would result if all workshops were shut an hour or two earlier. He has been during the last twenty years the victim of a lamentable amount of delusion, produced by the preaching of well-meaning and kind-hearted philanthropists and reformers as to the possibilities of this mortal life and as to the earth's capacity as a producer. The reaction from the excessive denunciation of this world and its joys in which the church and its branches indulged down to the beginning of the present century, has perhaps not been unnatural, but it has been excessive. Fifty years ago, the Workingman was assured that his highest duty was content, and that his bitterest privations were signs of God's love, and useful preparations for the better world of which this life was but the gateway. Now he is told that discontent is a condition precedent of regeneration, and that the reason why life is hard, fare scanty, and raiment coarse, and ceaseless toil imperative, is that the rich play tricks on him. In short, he is now all but satisfied that Nature intended him to live like a gentleman, and that the earth produces what Butler calls "a competent fortune" for all, and that what prevents all from enjoying it are the defects in the dividing apparatus.

If the panic operates in any degree as a disenchanter of any body of poor men who find themselves now sent adrift at the opening of winter, or find their wages seriously reduced, and have their eyes opened by it as to the real conditions of their security and prosperity, they will have purchased their experience very cheaply. The deplorable feature in the system of paying labor by wages is undoubtedly that it makes large bodies of persons, of all ages and sexes, dependent on the providence and sagacity and honesty of one or half a dozen. If a great manager or manufacturer or financier makes a mistake or commits malfeasance in office, a thousand, or it may be ten thousand, persons are thrown out of employment at a week's notice, they do not know why and cannot find out, and, what is worst, this fate is constantly impending over them. No outward signs of prosperity offer them the slightest guarantee against it. Indeed, nearly all the great failures and resultant panics occur when the industrial world seems to be sailing on a flood-tide of successful production. Now, there is no question that this blind and helpless dependence on the conduct of others with whom one's relations are solely commercial, is one of the most weakening and corrupting agencies to which human character can be exposed. The more a man has his fate in his own hands, the more of a man he is, and the great end and aim of "labor reform," and indeed the only end and aim worth much talk, is the committal to the working-classes, as far as is possible, of the management of their own affairs. Indeed, we hardly hesitate to say that it is only through co-operation—that is, the participation of every worker in the business cares, or, at all events, in the knowledge of the business conditions and responsibilities, which surround and uphold his peculiar industry—that any real and permanent improvement in his condition is to be looked for. Saving is very well, as it is well to be prepared for inundations and plagues; but it is better still to understand what brings inundations and plagues about, or to share fully and freely in the work of preventing them, instead of sitting with folded hands and praying lips waiting for them. Of course it is easy to point out the difficulties in the way of co-operation. It is quite true that it is largely a question of character; that if we cannot have improvement of character without co-operation, it must also be said that we cannot have co-operation without improvement of character. But it must be borne in mind that the sole ground we have for believing that there is anything but ruin in store for the human race is the assumption that the character of the great mass of mankind can be bettered. If this be not true, science as well as literature and art is an idle pursuit, and the future of our civilization not worth thinking about.

We cannot turn the whole working-class into "scholars and gentlemen," but we certainly ought to be able to facilitate the crea-

tion of relations between capital and the skill of the working-class such as will give them a saving sense of the modes in which capital is created and used or wasted.

THE RAILROAD MYSTERY.

WE publish elsewhere two letters which describe what we may call the second stage in the farmers' controversy. When it opened, it was roundly asserted that the railroad companies "watered" their stock for the express purpose of furnishing an excuse for putting up their rates. A very little examination revealed the fact that this was a ridiculous charge, and that, as we showed a fortnight ago, there was no relation whatever between the amount of the debt and stock of the roads and their scale of charges. Accordingly, the agitators have now entered on what appears to be high ground, and allege that the stock has been "watered" in order to afford the companies an excuse for not lowering their rates, which they are bound to do.

It must be borne in mind that we are not defending the practice of "watering" stock. We are simply engaged in showing in what manner a controversy, seriously affecting social and economical interests of the highest importance, may be successfully carried on in our day in a commercial community by determined and brazen demagogues. This phrase "watered stock," which is used so glibly, and always used in a question-begging way, as if it was in itself an argument, in reality contributes nothing more towards a settlement than the phrase "aquatic," or "calcareous," or "ferruginous stock" would do. It has a bad sound, but the real purpose it serves is one of concealment and evasion.

The true question at issue between the farmers and the railroads is whether the latter have a right to make large profits, or are bound to confine themselves to the ordinary rate of interest. What is meant when it is said that a company is "earning dividends on watered stock," is simply that it has cut its stock up in such fashion that, instead of paying 15 per cent. on one share, it pays 7½ per cent. on two. There is nothing objectionable in the division of the stock. It is a matter which does not concern the public in the least. The real point in dispute has nothing to do with the number of shares, or the time or manner of their issue. It concerns the rate of profit solely. It is, in other words, Has there been a maximum of profit fixed either by law, or custom, or morals, and are the companies going beyond it? and the farmers' movement in this, its second stage, rests on the assumption that there does exist such a maximum, and that the companies have gone beyond it. That this assumption is baseless needs no argument to show. The railroads have all been constructed on the theory that they were private property, to be managed like other business, and on no other theory could they, in a new country in which there was such strong oppositition to Government interference, have been constructed. This may or may not have been a good way of constructing them. The fact is that capital was invested in them on this understanding, and to attempt to apply to them now a new theory, which makes them public highways, and takes them out of the category of business enterprises, without compensation to those who took the risk of making them, or who invested in them on the old theory, is, to speak plainly, to attempt a fraud, and it is a fraud which cannot be disguised by the phrase "watered stock." When "the hoarse cry of the demagogue," to use the Chicago *Tribune's* language, crosses the sea, and tells the foreign holder of American railroad shares that he cannot receive any more dividends on them, because a body of persons, called "the farmers," have decided to "take the water" out of them, he will not be in the least prevented by this term from styling the transaction a swindle, or from determining that no more of his money shall go to that quarter. And what most concerns the future of the West, let us assure the agitators, is not the rate at which it can get its grain carried, but the extent to which it can inspire the world with confidence in its honesty. Let it once satisfy people that capital is not safe in its hands, but that it is exposed to the assaults of hungry politicians, and there is an end, for the present at least, to its prosperity.

We shall now proceed to show that the second ground suggested by our correspondents, that the watering of stock has furnished an excuse for not lowering rates, is as untenable as the first, because, as a matter of fact, though stock has been steadily increasing on every road in the country since 1860, rates have been, during the same period, steadily declining, except where the actual cost of transportation has risen; and that, in general, the startling result is reached that, while the cost of rent, food, clothing, and all the necessaries of life in the United States have been rising, the charges for Western freights have been getting lower and lower every year.

The Michigan Central Railroad may well be taken as a typical Western road; typical in the enormous increase of its stock, typical as being controlled by Eastern capitalists, and typical, also, in the recent decline of its returns to stockholders—typical, as being an "East and West" road, running from Detroit to Chicago, of considerable length (nearly 300 miles, and operating half a dozen leased lines, which increase its total mileage to over 700). The history of this road for the past few years with regard to its stock and freight rates have been as follows:

Capital Stock.		Increase.	Earnings per Ton per Mile.		Decrease.
1864–65	$6,491,386		1865	.3 6/100	
1865–66	6,982,866	$491,480	1866	.2 60/100	4.6/100
1866–67	8,070,666	1,087,800	1867	.2 49/100	1.1/100
1867–68	8,477,366	406,700	1868	.2 45/100	4/100
1868–69	11,197,348	2,719,982	1869	.2 9/100	3.6/100
1869–70	13,225,848	2,028,500	1870	.1 98/100	1.1/100
1870–71	14,665,848	1,440,000	1871	.1 61/100	3.7/100
1871–72	17,500,000	2,834,152	1872	.1 56/100	5/100

In 1873, there was an increase from .1 56/100 to .1 57/100, but this is too trifling to be taken into the account.

It would seem to be obvious from this table that the directors of the Michigan Central are drivelling idiots. Here they are going on for ten years watering their stock and lowering their rates, when it has been pointed out to them a thousand times by the farmers that all they need do is to increase their rates whenever they increase their stock. They have gone on doing this until they can no longer pay regular dividends on their stock. In a few years, perhaps, they will be willing to pay a small bonus to any one who will send a carload over their track. But the directors of the Michigan Central are not drivelling idiots; they are, on the contrary, shrewd men, and men who wish to make everything they can out of their road; and the only explanation of the steady decline in the rates they obtain is that freight charges, far from being arbitrarily determined by the monopolists who own the lines, are fixed by causes over which they have very little control.

Of course it will be said at once that the Michigan Central is an exceptional case, but it is not. It makes little or no difference into which one of the great lines we examine, we shall find the same excuse given by the directors to the stockholders for not paying them more—the decline in freights. For example, Mr. John Taylor Johnston, President of the New Jersey Central, in his report for 1872, states the condition of his road to be as follows:

> "The gross receipts per mile run have been as follows: From passenger trains, $1 against $1 09 in 1871; from merchandise trains, $1 79 against $1 93; from coal trains, $1 74 against $2 55. The average receipts per mile run, from all trains, have been $1 46, against $1 85 the previous year."

The President of the Chicago and Alton, in his report for the same year, says that "the reduction in traffic receipts is due wholly

to the reduced rates received for the transportation of freight, the total amount being $132,560 17, or 3½ per cent. less than for the preceding year, while the tonnage transported shows an increase of $6\frac{88}{100}$ per cent." And that frightful monopoly, the New York Central and Hudson River Railroad, presided over by the notorious Vanderbilt, who has effaced the traces of his villany in an ocean of water, does, as our correspondent "W." himself admits, "60 per cent. more business than it did in 1860 for no greater aggregate remuneration."

But we have far more unbiassed testimony than that of the roads themselves. Mr. W. M. Grosvenor, formerly editor of the Missouri *Democrat*, has written for the *Atlantic Monthly* for November an article on "The Railroads and the Farms" in which he examines the subject in a spirit of sympathy with the farmers. What conclusions does he reach? In the first place, that the average receipts of the lines which do the main business between the West and New York for freight per ton per mile in 1860 was about 2·01 cents, and in 1871 the average was only 1·48 cents. On these roads "there has been a reduction of more than one-fourth the entire cost of transportation in 1860, and more than one-half of one cent per ton per mile."

We should be inclined to leave the matter here; for it is obvious that if there has been a steady decline of rates for the last ten years on the New York Central and Hudson, the Lake Shore and Michigan Southern, the Erie, the Pennsylvania Central, and the Pittsburg, Fort Wayne and Chicago, the monopolists have not yet "got it just where they want it." But Mr. Grosvenor finds that there are cases in which rates have increased. Local freights in the West are higher than they were in 1860. "In November, 1860," he says, "the rates charged in published freight tariffs for transportation between twenty Western cities averaged only one cent and a half per ton per mile; charges for similar distances in 1873 averaged fully two cents." Instead, however, of assuming that this increase is due to the godless greed of monopolists, Mr. Grosvenor has been at the pains of enquiring what natural reasons exist for this difference; and he finds several. In the first place, he asks a question which seems rather important to begin with in a discussion of this sort, but which is not unfrequently left out of view altogether: "What is a railway?" It is, as he says, an iron track nailed down by iron spikes, crossing streams on iron bridges, furnishing a highway for iron locomotives drawing cars, of which the wheels, axles, brake-rods, and braces are of iron. Now, in 1860, the average cost of railway bars was $48 per ton; but this price changed from $48 in 1860, with enormous fluctuations, to $85 12½ in 1872. It is unnecessary to go into details. We have here an increase of cost of nearly fifty per cent., which must be borne by somebody.

There only remains one question: Why is this increased charge thrown on to the short and local lines, and not divided equally among all? The answer to this is simple, and those who dislike to take Mr. Grosvenor for an authority will find that the reports of the Massachusetts Railroad Commissioners (whose chairman, Mr. C. F. Adams, jr., cannot be suspected of any excessive partiality for existing railroad management) lead inevitably to the same conclusions. The reason is that the increased *cost of transportation* falls on the shorter local lines more heavily than it does on the long ones. Without going into details, it is clear that if we have two roads the cost of which is equal, the rate for carrying one ton one mile will depend upon the number of tons moved, or, in other words, the business of the road. The iron costs the same, the rolling-stock costs the same, the fixed expenses are the same, but if one does a large business and the other a small one, the result is that the cost of moving each ton a mile in one case is smaller than in the other. If we imagine the two roads to be each exactly one mile long, and each to cost $50,000, while one moves annually one thousand tons of freight and the other two thousand, we shall see what an absurdity it is to suppose that the rates for transportation can be the same on both. "Rolling-stock constantly in motion," to use Mr. Adams's own phrase, as we remember it, is the secret of railroad profit. The most profitable of all railroads would be a gigantic circular road, on which an endless chain of cars was kept perpetually revolving, loading and unloading. The nearest approach to the ideal road is a great double-track through-line.

We now begin to get some light upon the great *pro-rata* principle adopted by the Illinois Legislature. The *pro-rata* theory is that distance shall govern rates; that is to say, that if a railroad charges one dollar for transporting a certain quantity of grain one hundred miles, it shall charge two dollars, no more and no less, for carrying it two hundred. The principle itself is, as we have just pointed out, sheer nonsense, for the rates must depend on the business done by the road, and not on the distance; and, in the second place, if adopted generally throughout the United States, it would establish, to use Mr. Grosvenor's words, "a fatal monopoly" against the Western farmers themselves, in favor of those who happen to own farms nearer the seaports or the water-channels. "In order to lower local rates, and yet obtain a living income, many roads in each State must raise their through rates. The present average charge for transportation of all kinds of freight over roads of all lengths is about three cents and six-tenths per ton per mile, . . . and the average charge for grain all distances, and over all roads, about two cents and four-tenths. If the roads should strictly equalize their rates for all distances, according to the average now charged for all, freight from Chicago to New York would cost $21 60 per ton, or 64 cents per bushel of wheat. Even if such rates did not depopulate that thriving city, they would at least put an end to wheat-growing in Illinois, except for home consumption."

We have now gone over the whole ground, and, we believe, shown conclusively that the argument on which the farmers' movement has been made to rest is a mountain of fallacies. That argument was, 1st, that stockholders in railroads earned gigantic profits—it is now generally conceded that they do not get on an average 6 per cent.; 2d, that there was some mysterious connection between watered stock and freight rates—we have shown that there is none; 3d, that freights from the West have increased—they have, on the contrary, diminished; 4th, that local rates are higher than through rates—it is quite clear that this is a natural consequence of the character of the business; and, 5th, that the true remedy was the equalization of rates—and the farmers are now beginning to see that the equalization of rates means the destruction of their own farms. At last we come to the real cause of complaint, which Mr. Grosvenor very naïvely makes in common with the farmers—that some few roads have been making more than 7 per cent. when the farmers were losing money.

In conclusion, it is only necessary to say that though we have quoted Mr. Grosvenor throughout this article, we have done so merely for convenience, because he assumes the rôle of Farmer's friend; and that our generalizations are made on our own responsibility. To any one at all acquainted with the real nature of the railroad question, they will probably seem to be truisms rather than startling discoveries.

THE COMANCHES AND THE PEACE POLICY.

[The following extracts from a private letter from an exceptionally qualified observer seem to merit a wider audience than the writer intended.]

Fort Sill, Indian Territory, October 5, 1873.

SINCE I have by way of holiday accompanied Gov. Davis, at his request, to the great Indian council to be held with the Comanches and Kioways at this post, I have somewhat of interest to write you. This is the best arranged and most complete military post I have yet seen. The barracks, officers' quarters, and quartermaster's buildings are built of limestone around a square parade-ground of near ten acres area. Hard by are a fine hospital and guard-house. All are kept in fine order by a garrison of (just now) five companies of colored cavalry of the Tenth Regiment, and two companies (colored) and one (white) of infantry. The colored troops (called by the Comanches the "buffalo soldiers," because, like the buffalo, they are woolly) are in excellent drill and condition. The Indians at first treated

them with utter contempt, and when they chanced to kill one would not take his scalp. After a while, when they had had a taste of their fighting qualities, they began to respect them, and to show their respect by scalping a few that they have managed to kill. These "buffalo soldiers" are active, intelligent, and resolute men; are perfectly willing to fight the Indians whenever they may be called upon to do so, and appear to me to be rather superior to the average of white men recruited in time of peace. Their officers explain this by saying that the best colored young men can be recruited in time of peace, while, under the same condition, only indifferent or inferior whites can in general be induced to enlist.

Two miles and a half from this post are the famous Medicine Bluffs, some 280 feet high, perpendicular on the side next the creek, and said to be of basalt. The Governor, Gen. Davidson, who is the commander of the post, with others, myself included, rode out to see them this afternoon, and passed through the Comanche camp, not far off on the other side. We were well armed, of course, and had a squad of "buffalo soldiers" along. The Comanches seemed to be a little shy, as some of them commenced herding their horses as soon as we came in sight, and one of them was sent off to a hilltop to see how many of us there were, and whether any other troops from the post were in the field. None of their chiefs came in to the council on Saturday, only Lone Wolf, Kicking Bird, Stumbling Bear, and a few others of the Kioway chiefs having been present. We then feared that, owing to the fact that they had learned that the Governor of Texas and divers other Texans were there, they had stampeded. After all, it is now probable that some of the Comanche chiefs may come in on to-morrow.

Mr. Secretary Delano has not appeared, and will not attend, but the Rev. Mr. Smith, the head of the Indian Bureau, with several of the Quaker superintendents and agents, are on hand. My conviction is that the Quakers and their policy are a bloody nuisance. Under their management this reservation has become a city of refuge for the Indians that maraud and murder in Texas. The Quakers can't keep them in the reservation. Bands of them go away from the proximity to this post that affords them protection, under the pretext of taking a buffalo-hunt on the plains, and turn up in Texas, where they help themselves to scalps and to horses, that can easily be identified by their brands when they get here. The Quakers will not let the military force them to give them up. This encourages the marauders to repeat their raids. The fact is that the chiefs of the Comanches have no authority, and are controlled or disobeyed with impunity by the young warriors. The government of the Comanches, if government it can be called, is a pure democracy. A chief who makes a large and successful raid may find more than a hundred lodges set up around his own. Afterwards, should he make a disastrous failure, his adherents may, almost to a man, move off and attach their fortunes to some more prosperous leader. A chief can exert only a moral power over his followers. Hence Comanche chiefs, like all democratic leaders with us, are thorough-paced demagogues.

October 6—10 P.M.

The council came off to-day, but what will be its results are not yet apparent. The chiefs of the Kioways, Comanches, Caddos, Wacos, and Apaches made their speeches—all full of promises and all winding up with the request that Satanta (who was present and spoke) and Big Tree should be released at once, as one of the Quaker agents in attendance had previously and without authority promised. Gov. Davis and Commissioner Smith also spoke and told them that those prisoners should not be released until the Indians themselves arrested and delivered up such of their young men as had lately made a raid into Texas, killing and robbing of their horses the people of our frontier. Besides, Gov. Davis made other and very proper demands of them, which you will see in print by the time this letter reaches you. Probably to-morrow the Indians will let us know what they intend to do. My belief is that they will evade complying with the requirements made. If so, an Indian war, for which the United States Government is not prepared, may be the result. Why it is that a large force is assembled at Fort Clark, near the Rio Grande, where it is of no use save to threaten Mexico—a country on which some of the powers that be at Washington want to filibuster—it is hard to comprehend. The troops here are not numerous enough for what they may be compelled to attempt. There are not horses enough to mount all the cavalry. An Indian war should always be an offensive war. It seems that General Davidson is inclined to think that the Indians may attempt to capture Governor Davis, in order to compel the immediate release of Satanta and Big Tree, as he has taken the precaution to order forward relays of cavalry to act as scouts to him and his party on their return through this and the Chickasaw reservations; and he has done that knowing that the Governor and those nearest him are armed with Winchester carbines. We expect to set out on our return to Caddo, on the M. K. and T. Railway, 162 miles from this post, day after to-morrow.

Quite a touching incident occurred just as the council had assembled and was about to begin. An aged and frail-looking but wiry old Indian, the father of Satanta, stepped forth, and made in the Kioway language, with earnest gesticulation, a strong appeal to Governor Davis for the release of his son, who sat on a bench close by under the guard of a few colored cavalrymen. The action of the old savage was so expressive that the aid of an interpreter was scarcely necessary; and as his speech was unexpected, no one interpreted what he said until he had closed his brief remarks and had stepped out of the council tent and taken his place among the spectators. Then the interpreter explained that he had said that he was no chief, but only a poor man, as the Governor could see, and an old man besides; that there sat his son guarded by soldiers; that Indians had as much affection for their children as white people; and that he appealed to the chief of the Texans to gladden his old heart by the immediate release of his son, who would never again raid upon Texas. Nothing could have been done or said under the circumstances that was more eloquent.

While walking around with others, looking at the fantastic dress and equipment of the Indians sitting on their horses who constituted the greater part of the audience, we noticed a young woman that had a cradle, apparently empty, hanging from the horn of her saddle. One of the party lifted the flap of calico that ordinarily shields the head of the child in a cradle from the sun, and then to our surprise we saw that in the cradle was a rosy-cheeked, flaxen-haired American doll. One of the party was so inconsiderate as to ask her through an interpreter why she carried with her the cradle and doll. The poor creature replied in a sweet-toned voice, and in an abashed and mortified manner, that it was her misfortune to be a childless wife, and that she carried the cradle and doll because she believed they would aid her in becoming a mother. I learned from one of the interpreters that the small Comanche-made dolls, fabricated of buckskin, beads, and silver, so as to resemble a Comanche warrior, one of which I gave the Smithsonian Institution in 1862 or 1863, are given by young wives to their husbands, and are worn on their breasts by the husbands with the same object that led the young woman to carry the cradle and doll.

By-the-bye, the best interpreter here, Mr. Jones of Fayette County, Texas, tells me that the Indians known as Comanches say that that name was applied to them by the Spaniards and others, and is foreign to their language, which is the court language of the plains. They call themselves *né-um*—the *e* having the sound it bears in the French alphabet, which he says signifies "our people." He also tells me that the language of this nation is continually changing. For example, when a woman who was known as "Tall-woman"—the word "wyepe" then meaning woman—died, they at once dropped the use of the word "wyepe," and invented and substituted the word "tootche" to signify woman in its place. So with other words. They told him they did so in order that the use of a word should not prolong their grief for the person whose name it constituted—that they had sorrow enough for the dead not to be reminded of them by their names. For this reason they bury their dead secretly in some obscure gully, and at once obliterate all trace of their graves. The burial, like most of their work, is performed by the women.

Ward, the sculptor, is here, and has just returned from a successful buffalo-hunt some thirty or forty miles west of this post—the northers not having yet driven the buffalo nearer. He is modelling a group to show how the Indians of the plains kill the buffalo. His model of the wounded buffalo is almost completed, and seems to be very good. He has made a model of the head of Satanta's son for one of the hunters. By-the-bye, that hopeful youth rode to the council to-day a horse which one of the Texans present recognized as his own property.

THE TRIAL OF MARSHAL BAZAINE.

PARIS, October 10, 1873.

I CAN hardly imagine a greater contrast than that between Trianon and the scene of which it is now the theatre. As I was driving last Monday in the great avenues which lead from Versailles through the park to the little palace which has become the prison of Marshal Bazaine, I could hardly realize the fact that I was going to attend a court-martial. Gay uniforms were shining here and there on the green foliage; but the eye is accustomed to see military uniforms in the park of Versailles. It required almost an effort of the imagination to remember that all these generals and officers were the witnesses summoned for the first day of the trial. The little palace fills three sides of a square, and the court which is left open between the central palace and the two wings was fairly glittering with uniforms. The left-hand palace was reserved for the witnesses (there are as many as four hundred,

and all of them had to make their appearance the first day). The wing on the right is the apartment of the Duc d'Aumale, the president of the court, and of General Pourcet, who conducts the accusation for the Government. The central palace has been arranged for the court; it is merely, in reality, a huge vestibule or promenade room. Great glass doors form a succession of arcades on both sides, and great columns support the roof on the inside. Through the glass doors one sees the gardens which are behind the palace on one side, and on the other the avenue which leads to Trianon. It was not easy to turn a place so open, so gay, so full of air and life, into a hall of military justice. Benches, wooden partitions, tribunes, tables and chairs on platforms, do not essentially alter the character of the place. Even the picture of Christ, which has been hung, us usual, over the chair of the President, has not been chosen among the stern masters of the ascetic school; it was probably taken from some chapel of Versailles, and belongs to the French school of the eighteenth century, which could not represent trouble, suffering, and sorrow even in a crucifixion.

As I was sitting in my place, waiting till the session should begin, the sun was streaming through all the high windows, and the pink marble columns of the hall reflected its rays in all directions. The young reporters in the tribune of the press seemed to enjoy the novelty of the scene. There were but few people in the audience, as the tickets had been very sparingly given. At twelve a door was opened, and an officer announced "The Court." One after the other of the judges entered in full uniform, with their hats on their heads, the Duc d'Aumale last of all, looking very grave and solemn. They sat down, uncovered themselves, and then the President bade a major of gendarmerie "Let the Marshal come in." It was a painful moment. The Marshal lives in another wing of the palace, which is not seen from the court where all the visitors to Trianon must arrive; this wing is connected with the central palace, and runs far out into the gardens. From the rooms where he is a prisoner to the hall where the council sits there is quite a long distance. After a painful suspense, we saw suddenly the Marshal appear, followed by the major of gendarmerie. He wore the dress he had at Metz during the campaign, his great *cordon* of the Legion of Honor, and the common military medal which is given to privates; no other decoration. He looked fat, pale, very yellow—his hands swollen; his long confinement, which has now lasted more than a year, seems to me to have affected his health. He fences a short time every morning, as he cannot take any other exercise. The Duke had to ask him the ordinary questions, as to his name, age, profession, domicile; these commonplace interrogatories and their answers had assumed under the circumstances a sort of tragic character. The Duke put the questions with a courteous dignity; the Marshal answered with a painful brevity. Then he sat down, and remained motionless during more than three hours. He felt that every eye was on him; he only gave a rapid glance at the audience; but he could study at leisure the face of General Pourcet, the prosecutor, who sits opposite to him; of the *greffiers* (the military clerks who have to read all the documents handed to them by the President), and of the judges sitting round a circular table. He never spoke once to his advocate, M. Lachaud, who sits by him in his black gown, assisted by his own son, who belongs also to the Paris bar.

Inspired by a generous feeling, the President ordered the clerk to read before any other document the "état de services" of Marshal Bazaine. Every man in the French army, from the private to the general, has a record kept of his services. This record merely mentions the dates of the promotions, the number of campaigns, the wounds received, and so on. Judged merely from a military point of view, the record of Marshal Bazaine is surely a fine one. Out of thirty-six years of service, he has actually during thirty-two years been campaigning—in Africa, in Spain, in the Crimea, in Italy, in Mexico. He enlisted at the age of eighteen as a private, and he has been one of the few for whom the famous proverb has proved true, "Every French soldier has in his knapsack the bâton of a marshal." He was born at Versailles, and, strangely enough, it is at Versailles that his long and sometimes glorious career comes to an end. His hand, which he kept constantly under his chin, moved nervously at times when the dates of his promotions were mentioned, or the dates of the days on which he had received wounds on the battle-field. On one of his epaulettes, which he wore at Metz, is still to be seen the mark of a German ball. Then the clerk began to read the report of the Commission of Enquiry which had to examine into the causes and the circumstances of the capitulations of Strasbourg, Toul, Metz, etc. This report was made by Marshal Baraguey d'Hilliers, an old soldier of Leipzig. It was very severe, and it obliged the Government to bring Marshal Bazaine before a council of war. The third document which was read was the report of General Rivière, which forms the indictment against the Marshal. This report is a great work in itself. It covers 900 manuscript pages, and will form a volume when printed. General Rivière is an officer of engineers, of great capacity. He was chosen by M. Thiers as the reporter, and did his best to avoid such a heavy task. M. Thiers was very anxious that the Bazaine trial should be almost indefinitely adjourned, and even hoped that it would really never take place. He believed that Rivière, who has the manners of a very timid and cautious man, would conduct the affair under his own inspiration; but General Rivière combines the *fortiter in re* with the *suaviter in modo*. He warned M. Thiers that if the task of enquiring into the conduct of Marshal Bazaine was entrusted to him, no considerations of a political, military, or personal character would stop him. And nothing has stopped him. His report is the most terrible indictment that could be imagined. It has taken everybody by surprise. It is so long now since the capitulation of Metz took place that many thought that the trial of Bazaine would be almost an empty formality; but now every paper publishes the report day after day, as fast as it can be read by the clerk, and each day adds more weight to the accusation.

On the first day a very short part of the report could be read, as the counsel had to go through the ceremony of making the call of all the witnesses. The scene of their *défilé* before the court was very impressive, and must have been very painful to the accused. Here were many men whom he had not seen since he led them in captivity to Germany. First of all appeared Marshal Canrobert, in his worn-out uniform, and with his long flowing hair. He alone of all the Marshals comes off triumphantly at the hands of General Rivière. "His conduct on the battle of the 16th of September, one of the three giant battles which determined the fate of Metz, was heroic," says the report. During the whole day, Canrobert was left to struggle with one corps d'armée, already weakened by the battle of the 14th, and with 86 guns, against three German corps and 290 guns. He was at the right of the French army, and every hour he sent pressing despatches to Bazaine in order to get reinforcements. But Bazaine, on that fatal day, seemed to be preoccupied only with his left, as he feared that the German army would slip between his left and Metz, and thus cut him off from the fortress where he was determined to remain, waiting for the issue of the campaign. Canrobert kept his ground till night came, against overwhelming numbers; he saw at a distance the Imperial Guard and its reserve artillery, which was never brought into action. The glorious veteran bowed very proudly when he was called before the Court to say "Present!" How different, how painfully uneasy was the attitude of those who followed him—of Marshal Lebœuf, once so handsome and young-looking, now looking like an old man; of Frossard, who lost the battle of Spicheren, partly by his own fault and partly because Bazaine did not help him. What must Colonel Stoffel have felt when he appeared? Everybody knows now that the Report proves him to have suppressed a telegram addressed by Bazaine to Marshal MacMahon, which would perhaps have stopped the army of Châlons on its fatal march to Sedan. What, too, Major Magnan, the son of Magnan, one of the generals of the *coup-d'état* of December, who was sent by Bazaine on a mission to the Emperor after Napoleon left Metz, and who is shown by the Report to have acted in a most mysterious and extraordinary manner—and many others whom the Report unsparingly denounces as the docile and weak instruments of Bazaine's designs? There is a terrible force in conscience. I could almost have noted, before the reading of the Report, by the behavior and attitude of each witness, if his part had been noble and pure, or if he had some painful memory on his mind. Two or three generals who, notwithstanding the orders they had received, burned their regimental flags before the capitulation, answered very boldly to their names. The famous Régnier, who was a conscious or unconscious tool of Bismarck, and who became a sort of unofficial negotiator between the Germans, Bazaine, and the Emperor, was regarded with much interest; he is a vain man, who is satisfied with producing a sensation. He now lives quietly in the neighborhood of Paris, and seems quite delighted with what he regards as his popularity. The witnesses on whom I looked with the greatest satisfaction were those humble men of Metz and of Lorraine, wood-keepers, cart-drivers, custom-house officers, who at the risk of their lives carried the despatches of Bazaine and MacMahon across the German lines. There were also some privates of the army and many humble persons who played an obscure part in the great drama of the war. The Marshal looked well at the witnesses; there was probably not one whose name or face did not recall to him visibly some incident of the siege. These men were his real judges; on their testimony hangs his fate. And what fate? The judges have no choice; the questions which will be put to them by the President are determined by the military code. Has the Marshal or has he not signed a capitulation in the open field? Has this capitulation had for its consequence the disarmament of an army? Was it signed before he had done all that honor and duty required? If five judges out of seven answer these three questions unfavorably, the Marshal, by the terms of the military law, will be condemned to be shot. If they answer unfavorably to the two first and favorably to the third, his

life will be safe, but he will lose all his dignities in the army and in the Legion of Honor. The second and third questions can be put together or put separately; but the first, which is a question of mere fact, must be put separately. You may easily judge what the perplexities of the tribunal will be, since the military code shuts them up, as it were, on the narrowest ground.

Correspondence.

A POOR RULE THAT WON'T WORK BOTH WAYS.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: Enclosed please find $174 75 in return for services rendered me by the last number of your paper. Perhaps a little explanation is necessary in this connection.

Last week I was in doubt and dismay, due to the fact that my otherwise exemplary tailor had signified his intention of withholding further advances until I should be prepared to settle the "little account" already upon his books. What was I to do? Third-Street operations had left me no funds to be fooled away in paying bills, and here were the numerous requirements of my winter wardrobe looming up stern and solemn upon the horizon. Charming patterns that I had selected were melting away and moulding themselves to the forms of more lucky customers—bank clerks, who could advance to themselves trifles from the vaults—trustees, executors, or what not, with convenient funds at hand, while I, a poor man of law, had no fiduciary relations save with my trusting creditors.

It was then that your paper of last Thursday came to my rescue. The letter of "U. H. C." upon the *Alabama* Claims spread its balmy reasoning upon my spirit. I arose, and girding myself, went unto my tailor and said: "Make me new garments, for, lo, thy bill is paid." As the sad corners of his mouth tilted upwards in joy, I continued subtly, "Frösch, your prices are very high." "My dear sir," said he, "it is only by charging fair prices that I can protect myself against bad debts, for we have many losses from you gentlemen, and can barely live so—" "Stop, my friend," I replied; "do you mean to tell me that you charge thus much to average your bad debts, and in the same breath ask me to pay up my account? For shame! Am I not a bad debt, and if I should not pay you, how can you lose when you have increased your rates to cover such accidents? Be thankful that you are not publicly denounced for these iniquitous attempts to recover your money twice. Let the fate of those wretched insurance companies, who demanded a share of the eagle's plunder, be a warning to you; and here, give me a receipt and sin no more."

As I walked homeward with triumph in my heart and the receipted bill in my pocket, I felt that such teachings should not be unrecompensed, and resolved to send you one-third of the amount saved by your timely counsels.

"There is but one logic, and 'U. H. C.' is its prophet," said I, and fell to reading again the letter in the hope of drawing fresh aid and comfort from its lines. But, alas! what is there perfect under the sun? The letter goes but halfway, and my cherished preceptor stops short of his own proper conclusions. Hard as it is, I must speak out, for I am borne along by the current of my own irresistible logic. Why should we, the people of the United States, keep this money? It is true that the owners of destroyed ships are not entitled, nor yet the insurance companies, for both have made money in some mysterious way out of their losses. It is likewise true that the people have felt, in the increase of prices of imported goods, the depredations of the cruisers. But is this all? If goods from abroad have increased in price, it must follow that we have *bought less*, otherwise we have not suffered; and, if we have bought less, then we have diminished the market for the poor manufacturers and exporters who live abroad. They are the real sufferers—the workmen of Leeds and Manchester, of Lyons and Geneva. Since it is our duty to go to the bottom of this thing, let us not flinch, but declare ourselves trustees for the benefit of these unhappy ones. Let us (first deducting the price of those silver articles at Tiffany's) pay over to the governments abroad this sum that we justly owe, and sit down wrapped up in our logic, an example to all time of syllogistic honesty.

Such, dear *Nation*, are the conclusions to which I am led, and thither must I carry "U. H. C." I am sorry for him, but it is written of old:

"Trepidumque magistrum
In cavea, magno fremitu, leo tollet Alumnus."

Let us be not only generous but just, as long as it is somebody else's money we are dealing with.—Yours truly, Strepsiades.

P.S.—I forgot to enclose the $174 75, but as you doubtless expect little accidents of various kinds in the post-office, and base your rates accordingly, it will be of no consequence, as you suffer no loss. Send me a receipt, however, by return mail. S.

Philadelphia, October 27, 1873.

THE WATERED-STOCK HALLUCINATION.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: It seems to me that there is a very short and conclusive answer to the position taken in the article in the *Nation* of October 9, entitled "The Watered-Stock Hallucination." It is very true, as alleged, that no roads can be indicated which have increased, or attempted to increase, their freight charges by reason of any increase in their capital stock or debt; but it is equally true that many roads can be named which pay interest, or dividends, on stock, or acknowledgment of indebtedness, which do not represent any capital directly contributed by the stockholders; and, furthermore, that by reason of such payments service is not performed for the public at as low rates as it probably would have been had not such additional stock or debt been created. Of the truth of this position, the New York Central road, under its present organization, is a striking example. Thus, this road now pays annually some $3,000,000 of interest on stock which, by the acknowledgment of its managers, represents only the result of the earnings of a series of years, over and above a high rate of interest on all that has been required to build and equip the road—*i.e.*, upon an increased value of property which has accrued from circumstances wholly independent of any agency or action of the railroad company. It is true that the New York Central has not increased its rates of freight either in proportion to or in consequence of the great increase of its stock referred to, but, on the contrary, does sixty per cent. more business than it did in 1860 for no greater aggregate remuneration. But, granting all this, it in no way affects the premise that if the New York Central had not, by the creation of this additional stock, unnecessarily obligated itself to pay $3,000,000 annually additional to such an account, it might have applied this $3,000,000 to the reduction of its freight tariff, and therefore, to just that extent, have benefited the public by affording them cheaper services and greater facilities. And, if this position be correct, it is difficult to see wherein the "hallucination" of watered stock consists, or why the grievance alleged is not in every respect a real and a true one. The question interesting the public is not in any sense, "Have railroads increased their freight charges by reason of an increase in their debts or stock capital?" but rather, have they been so managed as to give to the public the cheapest service and the greatest facilities conjointly with paying a liberal rate of interest on the money actually subscribed and contributed to build and equip them? W.

New York, Oct. 16, 1873.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: I have read with profit and pleasure your various articles on the transportation question, and while agreeing with you in the main, I deem that the article in last week's issue, on the "Watered-Stock Hallucination," does not quite do justice to the position of the farmers.

Without presuming to speak for them, and without even being in sympathy with their present movements, I understand their argument to be as follows:

1. That railroads are so superior to all other known means of land transportation, in point of cheapness, comfort, and speed, as virtually to supersede them all, except for very short distances. That each road hence acquires a quasi monopoly of the carrying trade for a strip of country, varying according to circumstances, along the line; and that competition is only possible by another railroad in the same section.

2. That if competition is attempted by building another railroad through the same strip of country, experience has proved that after a struggle, more or less protracted, either the one line is purchased by the other, or both combine to "restore rates," and compel the public to pay returns on the capital invested in the two roads, when one road would probably have answered all the purposes of the country.

3. That competition thus becomes possible only near the intersecting points of various railroads, which elsewhere escape the commercial laws of competition and of supply and demand, which regulate other branches of business.

4. That the progress of consolidation of the roads, with their branches, feeders, and competing lines, is irresistible; and that though, upon the whole, it is beneficial both to the companies and the public, as promoting harmony, efficiency, and economy in their management, and best that it should continue, still the effect will be to give the lines a quasi monopoly over whole districts of country, instead of over the strips now controlled by them.

5. That it is advisable, therefore, that the profits of the railroads should be limited to a fair return (say a fixed average for a series of years) upon the capital actually invested in them, and that this should no longer be wholly left as now to the conscience of the managers.

6. That as business increases on a road which has been exceptionally

well placed, it is advisable that the rates should be lowered, so as to yield the same average return upon the capital then actually invested, rather than that watered stock should be issued, to represent the increased earnings obtained from the national growth of the country, and not from any fresh expenditure of capital.

7. That inasmuch as the practice has become of late all but universal in the West of building railroads from the proceeds of bonds, and issuing a majority of the stock as a bonus, indicating an expectation on the part of the owners that they will eventually be enabled, either by combination or from the growth of the country, to obtain returns upon the fictitious as well as the actual capital, it is advisable to settle the question now, and to begin the solution of the transportation problem.

I believe it is against the possible dangers of the future, more perhaps than against any present oppressive charges, that the clamor of the Western farmers is now directed. The agitation undoubtedly began in the effort to secure a reduction of freight rates in order to relieve the glut in the corn market which occurred last winter, but this having been refused, the discussion has now taken a much wider range. Like all popular movements in their inception, this clamor is, to a certain extent, vague and uncertain, both in its utterances and purposes, and without settled plans or course of action. The railroads are simply charged with making profits which are too large, a remedy is sought through legislation, and Illinois, as of right, takes the lead in this movement.

It now seems quite certain that the present law of Illinois will fail, and that, like the one which it superseded, it will afford no relief or security to the people. But this will by no means be an end of the matter. The Western people fear very much that when further consolidations and combinations take place, they may be compelled to pay charges but little lower than the cost of wagon transportation, and that all their early aid and sacrifices to secure railways may be lost to them. Against this possible danger they are determined to provide now. They are resolved to limit the profits which the railroads can make out of their business, and as they own little or none of the stocks and bonds of their railways, as few even of the officers and employees who operate them have any personal interest in them or share in the profits, there is little conservative element in the West to resist the popular clamor, which in my judgment threatens great future mischief.

While, however, there is a great deal of loose talk by the would-be leaders of the movement, I do not understand the farmers to claim, as your article might lead some to suppose, that the stocks have been watered by the directors for the express purpose of raising the freight rates, or indeed that there is any necessary connection between the two. They claim, rather, that the capital accounts of the railroads having heretofore been swelled to a fictitious amount, either to conceal the real percentage of profit of prosperous years, to cover surplus earnings reinvested in the railway, to represent future anticipated profits, or the thefts of the managers, it is not fair, now that in their distress they ask for a reduction of the rates, that the railroads should plead the necessity for paying returns upon this fictitious capital as a bar to the granting of their request.

KANSAS CITY.

THE "PAR VALUE" OF STOCK.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your article on "The Watered-Stock Hallucination" in the *Nation* for October 9 is timely and eminently sound; but is there not another "hallucination" in watered stock which you do not mention, and which—unlike most railroad problems—is within reach of legislative remedy? I refer to the fictitious figure known as the "par value," and which alone affords the reason for watering.

The holder of a certificate of stock in any railroad is really the actual owner of a certain undivided portion of the road-bed and rolling-stock; the process of watering may double the number of stock certificates in his hands, but he owns no more of the actual road-property than he did before, as all the stockholders have had their stock watered in like proportion; but the fictitious quantity known as the "par value" has been doubled on his hands. If a road costing ten millions of dollars issues one hundred thousand certificates of one hundred dollars each, *par*, the holder of one of these certificates owns exactly $\frac{1}{100,000}$ share or part of the road. No amount of watering will increase his interest in it. Then why not at once issue certificates that shall say, "John Doe is the holder of $\frac{1}{100,000}$ part of the —— railroad"? This could never be watered, as no act, except his purchase of more stock, could make the holder entitled to $\frac{2}{100,000}$ part.

The fact is, the nominal "capital stock" of all railroads is a fictitious figure. A share of railroad stock is never worth the "one hundred dollars" it claims as its value—except, perhaps, as a broken watch is right once in the day, there may be an appreciable moment when it can be sold at exactly one hundred dollars. But look at the stock quotations. Not a share sells at one hundred dollars, though all claim to be worth just that sum.

Why not end this nonsense of "par values" at once? Why not let railroad companies pay whatever it may cost them to build, and not have in their charters any "authorized capital stock," or sham limit of any kind, and forbid them to express any money value on their certificates, making them read for such and such a fractional interest in the road? They may then issue what they choose, and divide the property into as many fractions as they choose. They may even subdivide in future if they like, but as they affix no definite value in dollars to these fractions, they cannot substitute any equivalent for watering.

This "watering" is an hallucination to stockholders as well as to farmers. Let both unite and reform the awkward legislation that compels railroad companies to fix this sham "capital stock" limit. Next, make all railroad stock invalid that calls a share "one hundred dollars," or fixes any definite value, and enact that each certificate shall state only the fractional part of the whole property it represents. Is a remedy to this extent practicable, or is it not? J. W. A.

SAN FRANCISCO, October 17, 1873.

[Our correspondent, it will be seen, takes somewhat the same view of the subject expressed by ourselves in another column, and punctures the watered-stock bladder. It is not, however, legislation alone which fixes the nominal par of stock, but the convenience of buyers and sellers, who must have some standard by which to measure fluctuations of value. The stock in the Calumet and Hecla Copper Mine, for instance, is always quoted with reference to the par of one hundred dollars, though nobody knows what the real par is. But we confess we see no very good reason why a certain fractional interest should not be quoted in the stock-lists as well as a nominal sum of money.—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

A CIRCULAR which has been sent us from the University of Vermont, calls attention to the fact that as long ago as 1830 this institution introduced into its course systematic instruction, by lectures, on the theory and principle of the fine arts. Provision has now been made by Mr. Trenor W. Park, of Bennington, for an art-gallery, by the addition of a third story to the library building. The trustees solicit works of art of unquestionable merit, or funds with which to procure them, from all who are disposed to take an interest in this enterprise. ——At the late meeting of the American Antiquarian Society, in Worcester, Mass., steps were taken to renew the inscription on the stone over the grave of Captain John Smith, in England, and to have a memorial tablet placed in the wall of the church.——T. Whittaker announces 'Ecclesiastical Polity of the New Testament,' by Rev. G. A. Jacob, D.D.; and 'Unity not Uniformity,' by Rev. Warburton Weldon, M.A., of Trinity College, Cambridge.——Henry Holt & Co. have made an arrangement with the author's executor to publish the 'Autobiography of John Stuart Mill,' and expect to issue the work in November. They also announce a uniform edition of Mill's Miscellaneous Works.——A. D. F. Randolph & Co. have in press 'Popular Objections to Revealed Truth,' the third volume of the Christian Evidence Society lectures.

—The Oriental Society held its autumn meeting in New Haven on the 15th and 16th of October, eliciting some papers of decided value. President Woolsey treated briefly of the Orphic poets and their influence upon the religious development of Greece. Professor Salisbury discussed the relations of Islamism to Christianity, giving an analysis of the controversies between European missionaries and the defenders of the Mohammedan faith, and criticising the manner in which they had been conducted. Dr. Martin, the head of the Chinese College of Western Science in Peking, had sent a long and full historical account of the famous Han-lin, or imperial academy, the organized association for literary purposes of the leading scholars of the Chinese Empire. Professor Avery, of Iowa, furnished a complete classified statement of the occurrence of verbal forms in the Aitareya Brahmana, a chief work of the second period of Hindu literature. He had before given similar statements for the Sama-Veda, of the first period, and the Nala and Bhagavad-Gita, of the later or classical period. Professor Toy, of South Carolina, criticised J. G. Müller's curious theory that there is no such thing as a Semitic race proper, the so-called Semites being merely Indo-Europeans who have learned Hamitic dialects; he pronounced it paradoxical and untenable, and was supported by the expressed opinions of other members in

debate. Professor Whitney reviewed the later discussions in Germany as to the primary division of Indo-European language, pointing out that the prevalent opinion is now in favor of a first separation of the family into an Asiatic (or Aryan) branch and a European, all the European tongues being thus more nearly related to one another than any one of them to Sanskrit or Zend; he also especially commented on the recent attempt of Johannes Schmidt to disprove the "family-tree" arrangement of the branches altogether, and substitute for it a kind of affinity by geographical neighborhood; this was contended to be a vain endeavor, made futile by all our positive knowledge of the history of language. Rev. Dr. Ward, of this city, exhibited the original squeezes, taken by members of the Palestine Exploration Society at Beyrout, of the Hamath inscriptions, which have been attracting so much attention of late; also, the plates which had been carefully prepared from the squeezes for publication by the Society. The characters are hieroglyphic, but of a system apparently wholly unconnected with the Egyptian. Hardly anything has been as yet found out about the inscriptions except that their arrangement is *βουστροφηδον*; *i.e.*, that the alternate lines read in opposite directions. It is very doubtful, too, whether more will ever be found out. Whether this be so or not, the discovery is a very interesting and even a very important one in its bearing on the history of writing in that region of independent and seemingly unconnected systems. Dr. Ward was inclined to think the inscriptions very ancient—earlier than the earliest Phœnician.

—It is worthy of notice that there is in existence no complete edition of Keats's poems. The volume belonging to the 'British Poets' series, published originally by Messrs. Little & Brown of Boston, but now by Messrs. James R. Osgood & Co., is tolerably complete;—that is to say, in the second edition, which contains 'To Fanny' and twenty sonnets (some of them the best Keats ever wrote) which do not appear in the first edition. Of those collections published in England Lord Houghton's is the best, though Mr. W. M. Rossetti's contains some verses which are not found elsewhere. The last-named omits, however, many which are printed in the American edition, as may be seen by the following list: "I stood tiptoe upon a little hill"; "Specimen of an Induction to a Poem"; "Calidore, a Fragment"; "To some ladies on receiving a curious shell"; "On receiving a copy of verses from the same ladies"; "To Hope"; "Woman, when I behold thee flippant, vain"; "Ode to Psyche"; "Fancy"; "Ode" beginning,

"Bards of passion and of mirth";

"Lines on the Mermaid Tavern"; "Robin Hood"; "Sleep and Poetry"; the three epistles, to George Felton Mathew, to his brother George, and to Charles Cowden Clarke, and thirty-six sonnets. Partly to outweigh this striking inferiority, it contains the poem beginning,

"Think not of it, sweet one,"

which is also in Lord Houghton's edition, as well as the following, which are in Mr. Rossetti's alone, viz.: the sonnets to Spencer, to Chatterton, to Byron, and on visiting the tomb of Burns; a fragment of a sonnet, "From Ronsard"; lines "On seeing a lock of Milton's hair"; "A Reminiscence of Claude's Enchanted Castle"; "Written in Devonshire"; and "Song" beginning,

"Where be you going, you Devon maid?"

(both of these are given in Lord Houghton's 'Life of Keats,' though they are not included in the collection of the poems); "Written on May-Day"; "Written after visiting the Birthplace of Burns"; on "A Prophecy"; and some less important works, such as, "A Portrait"; "A Spenserian Stanza"; "Modern Love"; fragment of the "Castle-Builder," etc. Besides these shorter pieces, we find an earlier version of "Hyperion"; "The Cap and Bells; or, The Jealousies: a faery tale"; "Otho the Great: a tragedy,' which Keats wrote in conjunction with a friend of his, and dreary stuff it is; and "King Stephen: a dramatic fragment." Lord Houghton's edition also lacks all of these, and, besides, of what is contained in the American edition, "Fingal's Cave" and the following sonnets: "On Seeing the Elgin Marbles"; "To Haydn: with the preceding sonnet"; "Written in the Cottage where Burns was born"; "To the Nile"; the mate of Shelley's "Ozymandias"—not in merit, that is to say, but in time of composition; "On sitting down to read 'King Lear' once again"; and "Read me a lesson, Muse, and speak it loud." On the other hand, it contains an "Ode to Apollo" and half-a-dozen smaller pieces, which are to be found nowhere else to our knowledge. Another edition, also published by Moxon, is the same as the American as far as the sonnet, "To Ailsa Rock"; all the rest is omitted. It is illustrated very unsatisfactorily by Mr. George Scharf, Jr. With this wide divergence in the merits of the various editions, it might seem as if a plan to issue a complete, carefully-edited collection would deserve encouragement.

—In the issue of *Nature* for October 2, Mr. Alfred Russel Wallace indulges in some speculations on the probable antiquity of the human species which may well startle even those who have long since come to the conclusion that six thousand years carry us but a small way back to the original *homo*. In fact, in Mr. Wallace's reckoning, six thousand years are but as a day. He begins by complaining of the timidity of scientific men when treating of this subject, and points out the fallacy of always preferring the lowest estimate in order to be "on the safe side." He declares that all the evidence tends to show that the safe side is probably with the larger figures. He reviews the various attempts to determine the antiquity of human remains or works of art, and finds the bronze age in Europe to have been pretty accurately fixed at 3,000 to 4,000 years ago, the stone age of the Swiss Lake Dwellings at 5,000 to 7,000 years "and an indefinite anterior period." The burnt brick found sixty feet deep in the Nile alluvium indicates an antiquity of 20,000 years; another fragment at seventy-two feet gives 30,000 years. "A human skeleton found at a depth of sixteen feet below four buried forests superposed upon each other, has been calculated by Dr. Dowler to have an antiquity of 50,000 years." But all these estimates pale before those which Kent's Cavern at Torquay legitimates. Here the drip of the stalagmite is the chief factor of our computations, giving us an upper floor which "divides the relics of the last two or three thousand years from a deposit full of the bones of extinct mammalia, many of which, like the reindeer, mammoth, and glutton, indicate an arctic climate." Names cut into this stalagmite more than two hundred years ago are still legible; in other words, where the stalagmite is twelve feet thick, and the drip still very copious, not more than a hundredth of a foot has been deposited in two centuries—a rate of five feet in 100,000 years. Below this, however, we have a thick, much older, and more crystalline (*i.e.*, more slowly formed) stalagmite, beneath which again, "in a solid breccia, very different from the cave-earth, undoubted works of art have been found." Mr. Wallace assumes only 100,000 years for the upper floor, and about 250,000 for the lower, and adds 150,000 for the intermediate cave-earth, by which he arrives at the "sum of half a million as representing the years that have probably elapsed since flints of human workmanship were buried in the lowest deposits of Kent's Cavern."

—To judge from a recent article in the *Spectator*, it seems that Strauss's last book is likely to give rise to some lively discussion about the relation between religious and political faiths. Strauss believes in a strong government, and at the same time Strauss in religion is, to say the least, liberal. Some people in England, the *Spectator* thinks, are astonished at what they consider the inconsistency of such a position; but this astonishment is "founded upon no basis whatever, except that our history has induced liberalism to ally itself in many cases with attacks on the church which do not spring from disbelief, but excessive belief in individualism as applied to religion, and that our aristocracy is, as a body, rather stupidly orthodox." To point the moral, the *Spectator* refers darkly to a certain class of Englishmen who have but small religious belief and equally little liberalism in their composition. "One dislikes to mention names, but certainly many among us with very few rags of religious belief still clinging around their souls are intellectually fierce and domineering oligarchs, who hate ochlocracy as Strauss does, who utterly distrust the multitude, and who would, if they could, deprive it of all power. Their arrogance is, no doubt, in part the arrogance of mental power, of a new priesthood cock-sure of everything that is doubtful, and ready to compel all beneath them to believe without understanding; and we have little doubt that an aristocracy of culture, were it as possible as it is not to invest it with power, would be both unbending and cruel." Notwithstanding the disinclination of the *Spectator* to mention names, we learn from the rest of the article that this band of domineering oligarchs is headed by Mr. Fitzjames Stephen, author of 'Liberty, Equality, Fraternity,' and that its organ is the *Pall Mall Gazette*, a newspaper which "sometimes seems ready to let a whole pauper district perish of fever rather than allow a cab to convey the infection to one cultivated man"—certainly a most reprehensible state of mind. It would be interesting to know whether any connection can be traced in this country between the occupation of the men inside politics and their religious faith. Are the members of the Custom-house ring, for example, sceptics in religion? Is Thomas Murphy a reader of Thomas Paine? Do Messrs. Bliss and Davenport spend much of their time over Voltaire or Renan? As we draw nearer and nearer the beginning of Grant's third term, these questions become interesting.

—A few months ago, we called attention to an article on the Germanic invasions in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, by Fustel de Coulanges, the upshot of which was that it wasn't much of a shower, after all. It was a part of the old controversy between French and German interpretations of mediæval institutions, and the violent prejudices of this writer are no doubt connected with the fact that he was formerly a professor at Strasbourg. A recent

number of the same review (July 15) contains an article by A. Geffroy, which discusses the same subject in a calm and impartial tone—a less brilliant and suggestive article than that of Fustel de Coulanges, but containing an admirable summing-up of the points in dispute. M. Geffroy concludes that there was a conquest, even although its violence may have been exaggerated by some writers; and, secondly—a point of more importance and significance, inasmuch as the first may almost be called self-evident—that this conquest was, on the whole, salutary, especially in introducing the character of personality, and developing a liberal system of administration. It is refreshing to find French writers who are willing to discuss these historical questions in a purely scientific spirit; it is a good sign.

—M. Taxile Delord has resumed in a third volume his not flattering 'History of the Second Empire,' which had been interrupted by the events which led to the Imperial overthrow. His first volume embraced the period 1848–1856, his second that of 1856–1860. The present carries down the history to 1864; and as the former treated respectively of the Crimean and Italian wars, so this deals, among other matters, with the expedition against Mexico. The author continues to receive the praise of those who differ from him both theologically and politically for his impartiality and accuracy. He had originally assigned 1869 as the date at which his work would terminate; but doubtless he will not now fail to extend it another year *ad finem*. M. Gaidoz calls attention in the *Academy* to one of the useful creations of the Second Empire which was not interred with its bones. This is the Commission for the Topography of Gaul, established in July, 1858, by the author of the 'Vie de Jules César,' as an aid in the prosecution of that work, though in the last years of his reign he seldom consulted them. Besides the excavations which they have carried on, and the general impulse they have given to antiquarian research in France, they have published (1) an oro-hydrographical map of Gaul, in four sheets; (2) a map of Cæsar's campaigns, now out of print; (3) a map of Gaul under Cæsar's proconsulate, in four sheets like the first; (4) three parts of an Archæological Dictionary of Gaul—Celtic Period, containing forty-two quarto sheets and forty engraved folio plates, the text going as far as the letter D, and giving a résumé of the archæological history of each locality whose name is set down; (5) a map of Gaul indicating the site of dolmens and megalithic monuments; (6) the same for inhabited caverns of prehistoric times; (7) a preliminary map of Gaul in the fifth century B.C.; and (8) instructions for correspondents of the Commission. They have also in view a map showing the geographical distribution of the Gallic tribes, and a Dictionary of Gallo-Roman archæology, from the reign of Augustus to the Frankish kings. The non-private publications of the Commission, and such as are not out of print, can be had at the Librairie Militaire de Dumaine in Paris.

—We recommend to those whose business it is to supply our Congressmen with penknives, toothpicks, 'Cushing's Manual,' and fancy stationery a cheap legislator's vade-mecum—the *Annuaire de législation étrangère*. This useful annual is published at the price of 12 francs by the Society of Comparative Legislation, and the present issue (the second only) contains a translation of the principal laws passed in 1872 in the following countries: Great Britain and Canada; the United States, and severally Illinois, Massachusetts, and New York; German Empire, Prussia, and Baden; Austria, Italy, Spain, Belgium, Holland; Switzerland and the Canton of Geneva; Scandinavian States; and, finally, Alsace-Lorraine. The table of contents is arranged by topics of legislation, and renders reference and comparison extremely easy. The translations are by very competent hands, and are frequently, if not always, annotated.

—The westernmost branch of the great Slavic family, the Wends of Northern Germany, are the subject of an interesting paper in the last number of Dr. Petermann's *Mittheilungen* (Aug. 21). They bear the most ancient designation of that family (Venedi), between which name and that of the Vandals there is an obvious resemblance but no near race connection. Their home is on the banks of the River Spree, which, from its rise on the Bohemian frontier, through half its course to Berlin, divides about equally the inhabitants of Upper and Lower Lausitz. Formerly this territory, regarded as a *Sprachgebiet* in which the use of the Wend language universally prevailed, reached almost to the Prussian capital, having for its northern boundary in 1550 the line Storkaw-Beeskow-Fürstenberg. Now, however, the line has retreated to 12 to 15 miles north of Kottbus, while a corresponding shrinkage has taken place on the eastern and western confines, leaving the Wend-speaking population little more than a third of their original extent of country, and by so much diminishing their hopes of joining the political Panslavic fraternity. It is the aim of Dr. Andree, the writer in the *Mittheilungen*, to trace the successive reductions of this *Sprachgebiet*, and a colored map which accompanies his essay shows the boundaries in 1550, 1750, and 1872 respectively. It is clear to the eye that the rate of Germanic encroachment in the last hundred years has been greater than in the preceding two hundred, and it is certain that less than another century will suffice to effect the disappearance of the nationality and the language of the Wends. The Germanizing of this isolated Slavic community will proceed all the more rapidly in consequence of the Prussianizing of Germany. Lower and part of Upper Lausitz are included in Prussia, the rest in Saxony, Dresden being even nearer than Berlin ever was to these districts; but on the side of Saxony there has been very little German assimilation. Of late, however, the universal obligation to serve in the army has had a powerful effect in spreading the use of German among all classes, and the railroads, which long since Germanized the principal cities, are steadily carrying on the work of disintegration. Kottbus and Bautzen, at the north and south, are important railroad centres, and two new lines already in process of construction will pierce the remaining Slavic strongholds. The school, the church, the courts, and the militia being already in German hands, and the flat plains of the Spree offering no natural barrier to Teutonic invasion, the less than 150,000 Wends now distinguishable by their speech are very plainly destined to entire absorption.

DUMAS AND GOETHE.*

THE French have long been reproached with their ignorance of foreign languages and their indifference to foreign literatures, and their best friends have lately had no hesitation in telling them that it is high time they should mend their ways, and learn what is going on in those parts of the world which do not happen to be included in the Paris *banlieue*. It is a matter of life and death, say these wholesome advisers; their salvation depends upon it; and if five years ago the various Frenchmen responsible in their respective degrees for the security of their country had known a fiftieth part as much German as the corresponding personages in Germany knew French, Alsace and Lorraine might not at this day be enslaved to the masters of the former idiom. It would lead us too far to enquire why it is that, more than any other people in the world, the French have considered their speech and their writings as the normal tongue and the classic literature, and rather regarded the acquisition of English and German as an eccentric and superfluous accomplishment, but a degree removed from a curious attention to local dialects and vulgar variations. The fault is their neighbors' as well as their own; indeed, the fault may be brought home to a very occult historic cause. It has been the mingled blessing and bane of the French nation that it possesses a language which all the world has found it a pleasure to learn—an education, in a certain sense, to use—a piece of intellectual grossness not, in some degree or other, to have felt the influence of. For very many years this has been true, and it has not altogether ceased to be true at the present moment. But for a hundred reasons it is not so true as it was. We may say roughly, that so long as the refinements of civilization were of a tolerably simple order, there was very little that the French language was not capable of saying about them, and of saying better than any other. But of late the world has been getting to look very complex, and we hear a great many ideas buzzing away at our ears which answer, when addressed, neither to *Monsieur* nor to *Madame*. The French is not a large language; we have greatly loved it; we may claim even to have zealously *used* it, and we pretend to speak without prejudice. Its very charm and the secret of its long prosperity is its compactness, its convenience, the half-a-dozen virtues which it even now helps us out of our bungling by calling its *netteté*. On many points, for a long time, it seemed as much more civilized to express one's self in French rather than in English or German, as it seems to pay for an article in silver crowns rather than in eggs and chickens, in cattle and corn. These points are still standing, but other points have become visible all around them, which the silver crown, when applied, but insufficiently covers, so that we are obliged to have recourse to a larger coinage. Of course, to stretch our metaphor, the French are interested in insisting that the only wares worth owning are the wares their money will buy; for it is certainly not agreeable, in the supposed heyday of one's prosperity, to be left with a depreciated coinage on one's hands. For this we make large allowance, and we therefore note the more promptly all symptoms of an ungrudging attention to foreign markets, as we may say.

These remarks are suggested by the volume whose title we have transcribed—a volume noteworthy in both its aspects. It contains primarily a new translation of 'Faust,' more perfect, more adequate, its author affirms, than any of its predecessors. This is very possible; the translation strikes us as excellent, and it may fairly seem to its publishers a very proper *pièce de circonstance*. There was presumably a good deal of reading of Voltaire in the original beyond the Rhine before the events of 1870, and it is part of the humorous logic of history that there should be such reading as may be of

* 'Le Faust de Goethe. Traduction nouvelle, par H. Bacharach. Préface de M. Alexandre Dumas fils.' Paris: Michel Lévy. New York: F. W. Christern. 1873.

Goethe, in the best attainable translation, on the hither side of it at this late period, which is better than never at all. But what Michel Lévy & Co. count upon to sell their book, even more than the war of 1870, is the preface furnished to the volume by M. Alexandre Dumas fils. This gentleman's readers have of course observed that with the progress of events he has become more and more of a moralist. Every few months, for some time now, he has found himself with something edifying to say, and he has preached his little sermons with increasing gusto and skill. Every one has heard of the pamphlet on adultery in which the writer's wisdom seemed to have said its last word. This last word, it will be remembered, was *Tue-la !*—"Shoot her dead!" It made quiet thinkers jump, like a pistol-shot at the circus. But the seasons have revolved, and M. Dumas has arrived at new results. This time it is not the treacherous wife that we are to kill, but the author of 'Faust' whom we are to sit and behold ground into small, inanimate pieces before us. M. Dumas frankly confesses that he has never had a finer opportunity to hold his tongue. He is ignorant of the German language, and he comes after a host of commentators who had eluded this reproach. But his desire to paint a moral is irresistible, and he bravely embarks upon his theme.

M. Dumas is an excellent dramatist. There have been few greater pleasures for the theatre-goers of our time than to listen to the 'Demi-Monde' and the 'Question d'Argent.' These are considerable performances, and they imply in their author, in some points at least, a sound judgment and a lively imagination. They prove, certainly, that he knows how to present his ideas. His theory (very well stated in one of his prefaces), that in a drama every word uttered should *count* mathematically, here stands him in excellent stead, and makes him extremely readable. But apart from the presumption that there is something in M. Dumas's ideas, there is a great deal that holds one's attention in his sincerity. Evidently the various items of his philosophy are the result of no small amount of ardent emotion; he believes what he says, and he believes that a foolish generation which does not heed it will go to the bad all the faster for its indifference. For that we are going very directly to the bad, unless we radically amend our morals, is M. Dumas's intimate conviction. We are fatally fond of unclean things, and unless we pull up short in our reckless carnival, we shall find ourselves in the bottomless pit. M. Dumas should know, for he has made an especial study of the unclean; he has an infallible scent for it, and a singularly cunning hand in depicting it. He has apparently received his original impetus in his present undertaking from the discovery that there are a number of unclean things in the history of the author of 'Faust.' He begins his argument, however, by a vigorous plea for the diffusion of the masterpieces of foreign literature among his countrymen, and insists especially that the best works of the English and German stage ought to be occasionally represented at the Théâtre Français. He made the acquaintance of 'Faust' with a view to judging whether a literal translation of it might be successfully represented in Paris, but he was led to conclusions of a far larger scope. These were in great measure the result of a comparison between the poem and the poet's personal history, and they were flattering, on the whole, neither to the author nor to the man. Goethe, twenty years old, made near Strasbourg the acquaintance of a country parson's daughter; readers of his 'Autobiography' will remember the episode of Frederica. Goethe loved her, seduced her, left her, and carried away the germ of the story of *Margaret;* he loved again repeatedly, and M. Dumas counts off his successive sweethearts on his fingers with a critical commentary worthy of his best performances in this line; but he never loved with the same good faith; everything else was rank grossness; he had got his *Margaret*, his passport to posterity, and this was all he cared about. He began his poem, and wrote a bit here, and a bit there—having found his legend ready-made to his hand; but on the whole he got on rather lamely, and would very likely have hobbled along into utter oblivion, had not Schiller one fine day made his appearance—Schiller, who, like M. Dumas, could really serve you up a drama. Schiller set him, poetically, on his feet, prompted, suggested, invented, took charge of him intellectually, to the dénouement. But Schiller, unfortunately, could not last for ever; he died in harness, and left his friend with the second part of 'Faust' on his hands. What Goethe made of it shows us all that Schiller had done for the first part.

"Meanwhile, as death might grow tired of waiting till Goethe found the good (*le bien*), as his intellectual sense became weaker every day, according to the laws of nature, as the moral sense could not come to his assistance and Schiller could no longer advise him, as this poem, commenced with a cry of the heart, ought to have finished with a cry of the soul, as the heart had gone and the soul had never come, Goethe heaped up in his work episodes upon episodes, formulas upon formulas, symbols upon symbols. History, mythology, science, arts, politics, agriculture, industry, everything is summoned, everything comes in without connection, without reason. If Goethe were still living, he would be adding railway, the electric telegraph, chloroform, postal orders, and the *fumier impératif*. What fine verses he would use himself up in making about them all! For this labyrinth is enamelled here and there with charming bowers, where you pause to wipe your forehead; this low, opaque sky, which suffocates and asphyxiates you, is suddenly streaked with phosphorescent flashes which cross it and brighten it; but *'ce n'est pas le jour, ce n'est pas l'alouette';* they are nothing but spontaneous combustions of air, blue aerolites, which fall and are quenched in deserts of granite and oceans of lead."

M. Dumas gives us the second part of 'Faust' as it should have been, as surely, he declares, as two and two make four. We have no space for his ingenious synopsis, which culminates in the tableau of Faust presenting himself before the Lord, "holding with one hand Mephistopheles chained at his feet, with the other, Margaret, the eternal spouse, recovered and saved, leaning on his bosom. Humanity," the author adds, "will be thus represented as she is to be some day, after all her errors, revolts, and falls, victorious over evil, man redeemed by his conscience, woman redeemed by her love, making only one in a God integral, eternal, and infinite. This is the fatal, inevitable deduction which the idea contained in the first 'Faust,' imposed upon the second. Good or bad, there was no other, as there is no other solution than *four* to two multiplied by two." But the great Goethe was incapable of putting two and two together, having, in the first place, too little imagination, and, in the second, too little morality. That he lacked imagination sounds like a terrible heresy, but nothing is more obvious. He could conceive of no event without the warrant of a particular example; in order to conceive Faust seducing Margaret, he had first himself to seduce Frederica—in order to know that Werther would shoot himself, he had to wait two years, after first planning the tale, for Jerusalem to put a real bullet into a real pistol. He had, therefore, a very dull fancy. Morally, however, he was unfortunately none the better, as sometimes happens for this peculiar intellectual torpor. Into the history of Goethe's *mœurs* M. Dumas penetrates bravely, but we have no desire to follow him. They were as bad as bad could be; he was a very nasty fellow; he came near dying of vexation at seventy-four because a virtuous young lady would not listen to him; he ended his days, in short, as a *polisson vénérable*. M. Dumas touches these points with indescribable vivacity, and this whole phase of his subject elicits the choicest treasures of his wit. We especially recommend his account of Goethe's marriage and of his wife's eccentricities. As a *tirade*, it has really not elbow-room in the midst of the author's hard-pressing logic; uttered before the foot-lights at the Gymnase, it would bring down the house. M. Dumas, however, we suppose, is as free to expatiate on these matters in his own manner, and with his own object, as the poet's admirers have been to do so from the opposite point of view. They have to our mind usurped a much larger place in literary history than their merits entitle them to, and, offence for offence, we perhaps prefer M. Dumas's irony to the complaisance of friendlier critics. It is certainly more entertaining. Its purpose is to establish the position that Goethe was all of a piece, and that both in his life and writings he was criminally indifferent to *le bien*. But we may rest in peace, for God has already chastised him. He condemned 'Faust,' as a whole, to be a decidedly poor affair—a thing of intellectual shreds and patches, fluttering in every breath of criticism, and showing the daylight (or rather the inner darkness) at every rent; and he cut down the author's remaining literary baggage to a very light parcel indeed. After summing up his hero's infirmities—his poetic incompetence and his personal licentiousness, the terrible dulness and depravity of his second 'Faust,' and his going to bed with poultices and gruel on discovering that young ladies had ceased to find him irresistible—M. Dumas concludes:

"In short, of this strange tissue of errors, of faults, of researches, of egotism, of pride, of levity, of emotions, of weaknesses, of shadows, of lights, of science, of want of conscience, and of genius, there remains, with a few remarkable poems, two superior works, 'Werther' and 'Hermann and Dorothea,' and a masterpiece—the first 'Faust'—after sixty years of daily labor."

And then M. Dumas proceeds to remind us how the great poets of the Latin race have produced their masterpieces at a far faster rate, to declare that the great representative of the other race, "in its cold deduction, fragmentary, dusky genius, born of tenacious labor, of slow, mysterious, step-by-step progression, without original inspiration, without an ideal, without probity," may do very well for the humanity he so complacently embodies, "the mechanical humanity of functionaries and soldiers who believe that the world will accept their ideas, bear their yoke, and speak their language"; but that he, M. Dumas, speaking briefly, in the name of all Latinity, must give him, once for all, a piece of his mind. "Posterity will do her duty. She will write on her brazen tablets: 'Goethe, born at Frankfort, 1749; died at Weimar, 1832; great writer, great poet, great artist.' And, when the fanatics of form for form, of art for art, of love *quand même* and materialism, come and ask her to add 'Great man,' she will answer, 'No.'"

As far as proving a case and settling a question is concerned, M. Dumas's preface is of very small value. His acquaintance with Goethe is evidently of the slightest, and his judgment, even so far as it is based on his meagre information, is ludicrously perverted by national prejudice. The reader who is informed that the author of 'Faust' had no imagination, no intuition, we would recommend simply to read 'Faust' itself—even in the French translation which follows M. Dumas's essay, and which, in spite of its merit, is such a palpable underfit to the swelling, straining volume of the original; to read 'Wilhelm Meister,' 'Iphigenia,' 'Egmont,' 'Torquato Tasso'—works which M. Dumas has apparently not thought it worth his while to look into. Goethe certainly had an immense respect for reality, and no man was ever a greater collector and conservator, as one may say, of facts; but given the multifarious use he made of them—the mysterious music he drew from them—this was not a limitation but an extension of the poetic faculty. As for his having been or not been a *grand homme*, the question seems to us beside the mark, even from M. Dumas's point of view, and he reaches his conclusion by a perplexing *lapsus* in his argument. Very likely he was not; this would be our own impression; but M. Dumas ought to know that it is likely to be a waste of time to look for great men among prolific *littérateurs*. He ought, moreover, to have defined his term, and chosen near home an example of eminent moral virtue and eminent poetic genius. The real interest of his essay is, to our sense, quite an uncalculated one, and comes from our seeing a peculiarly Latin mind—or at least an intensely characteristic Gallic one—treating itself to a wholesome effusion of spleen against a peculiarly Germanic one. Our author's pamphlet has a really historic value. We do it injustice, moreover, by calling it splenetic; it is the voice of instinctive, deep-seated protest, dissent, and distaste, passing under the pressure of circumstances from the chronic to the acute form. M. Dumas, with his peculiar qualities and defects, is a happy mouthpiece for this dissenting voice. His mind is a very small one, but in its way it is very perfect; a larger mind, of the same stamp, would probably have found more points of contact in the author of 'Faust' than points of difference. How, indeed, was M. Dumas to endure Goethe for an hour? He seems to us to have been wonderfully patient, and to have handled him more gently than was to be expected. When the reader has followed our advice and refreshed his memory of 'Faust,' let him—we speak without the slightest intention of irony—go and read the 'Demi-Monde.' This clever drama will suffer, and yet it will not suffer. The reader will find it all form, compactness, roundness, smoothness, polish, art; but he will not find in it, without a rare amount of good will, a single word that echoes in the soul, that provokes the shadow of a reverie. "Faust" is another affair: it is slow reading for its very suggestiveness and intellectual resources. Of course, as M. Victor Hugo would say, the one hates the other; that is, when the one is in a greater hurry to hate than to understand. We may be sure that there are plenty of M. Dumas's fellow-thinkers who consider that he is making a rather indecent exposure of the Latin mind. And as for the "other," we suspect that if Goethe were living he would be at some pains to treat M. Dumas and his plays as one more *fact*—and a very entertaining one.

THE MAGAZINES FOR NOVEMBER.

AS commonly happens of late, by far the most noticeable of the magazine articles of the month is by Mr. Gideon Welles, who contributes it to the *Galaxy*. He this time tells a story, or rather a set of stories, about Mr. Seward, which will certainly astonish those friends of the late ex-Secretary of State who have been accustomed to take him at the valuation put upon him in Mr. Adams's "Memorial Address," although we suppose it will not very much surprise the majority of Mr. Seward's countrymen. They had formed already what appears to be a fair general estimate of his character and intellect, as, indeed, why should they not? having had him in full view for a lifetime, and the business being not so very difficult. But the prevailing opinion of Mr. Seward's officiousness, his lack of convictions, his not very exalted ambitions, and what must be called his trickiness, unless we choose to call it a hardened Albany politician's love of intrigue, these reminiscences of Mr. Welles's will greatly vivify. And they will as certainly, if not quite as greatly, vivify the popular sense of the sterling ability of President Lincoln, of whom it is apparent that Mr. Adams has formed an inadequate idea. Of Mr. Seward, at all events, he seems to have formed an opinion much too eulogistic, unless we are to regard Mr. Welles as an incompetent witness. This, however, it seems impossible that he should be in regard to most of the things which he narrates. Very dark days the article recalls; and we are made to see how readily they might have become disastrously darker, and how little of wisdom there was among our politicians and professional leaders. Here, for instance, we see General Scott vacillating between the policy of reinforcing Sumter and that of giving up both Sumter and Pickens, the one of which we never lost, the other of which we never could retake, and "letting the wayward sisters depart in peace." Still worse is our most celebrated New York statesman playing into the hands of the secessionists, imagining all the time that he is outwitting them, and prophesying a ninety days' war. Mr. Lincoln, too, though he evidently was quick to learn the lessons which he afterwards so well practised, is seen to have been in many respects ignorant and inexperienced, misled by bad counsellors, and at first insufficiently trustful of himself or watchful of his secretaries, some of whom he allowed undue powers and influence. And this last it might be as well for some of the more severe detractors from the merits of the "Memorial Address" to recollect. We have no space to speak at any length of the other articles in the November *Galaxy*. Mr. Richard Grant White's attack on Dr. Fitz-edward Hall shows an undiminished fondness for the effusion of blood, and persons unaccustomed to the odor of carnage had perhaps better go round it.

In the *Atlantic Monthly* the reader will find a pretty love-tale by Mr. E. H. House, which very nicely resets a due amount of the oldest of stories in Japanese scenery, with Japanese figures—all with an appearance of life-likeness. The Norse idyl, also, "Gunnar," continues agreeable, and in something of the same way with these two, that is, in its freshness and unwontedness, the last of Mr. Owen's autobiographic sketches is agreeable. Mr. Owen promises more if time and health permit, and more will no doubt be welcomed. For a long time, the magazines have had very few better serials than this, which, indeed, one can hardly think of as getting into print before the days of magazine serials, so well adapted is it for magazine readers, while in a book it might perhaps seem rather slight. "The Home Life of Salmon Portland Chase" is the title of a timely article, which is also readable enough. The best thing in it is a story about Mr. Lincoln, who once, in an important cabinet meeting, convened for the discussion of the Emancipation Proclamation, took out a copy of one of Artemus Ward's books and read a chapter of it aloud to his assembled counsellors, among whom was Mr. Chase, who said afterwards that at this little exhibition he quite lost patience at it. "Probably," says Mr. Chase's attentive biographer, "his disapproval was not unexpressed." Whether it was or not, Mr. Lincoln did not, we believe, abandon this method of amusing himself, for stories are told of his playing the same joke, long after the issuing of the Emancipation Proclamation, on a gentleman of a dignity and a lack of the sense of humor fully equal to Mr. Chase's—the joke, indeed, in these cases mainly consisting in the ponderousness of the gentleman who constituted the extremely astonished audience. Mr. W. M. Grosvenor writes the heavy article of the number, on the subject of the railroad companies, the farmers, the quarrel between them, and the bearings of the tariff on the question at issue. "Marjorie Daw," we see, has a poem addressed to her; and we presume a colossal statue, equestrian, is next in order.

In *Harper's*, the "Easy Chair" department resumes its original lustre, the first topic being the beauty and goodness of an Arcadia, which appears to be happily situate in some valleys and along some hills which lie anywhere between the Arcadia of the demos and that of the poets. This is followed by a discussion of duelling ethics, which is apropos of a certain ludicrous "affair of honor" which took place recently between two young New Yorkers. The Easy Chair first makes fun of this curious pair, and then offers its explanation of the theory of duelling as practised in modern times. It is an explanation which perhaps would hardly seem sufficient to a feudal gentleman endowed with feudal notions of honor, and thinking it no less than necessary to his personal dignity to disdain killing the enemy who had forfeited his life, without allowing him all the chance for preserving it that the caitiff might desire. But we suppose no fault will be found with it as a theory covering the New York or Yonkers or Titusville variety of duel.

Among the other papers in *Harper's* which will be found of interest are Mr. Moncure D. Conway's ("South Coast Saunterings in England"), which includes a pleasant description of Mr. Thomas Hollis, who so admired Milton, and who was a great benefactor of Harvard College; Dr. Maack's (an account, with a map, of Commander Selfridge's explorations, with a view to the cutting through the Isthmus of Darien); and Mr. Nordhoff's (a description of the Sacramento Valley). For the many who like "Porte Crayon's" sketches of the nook-and-corner people of his native region, there are several pages of illustrated matter much like what "Porte Crayon" was doing twenty years ago; and for the many men who like the *Harper* story of how he and she met and she loved him, and he professed to do the same, but deserted her, (it is Nannie McClean this time who fades away slowly, and the man is Seth Guile—a name only too appropriate), due and usual provision is made. A short story of a better kind, which, it must be admitted, has a hint of heart-break in it, but which has something else too, is contributed by Miss Ruth Dana. The awful singleness of purpose which marks the literary work of most ladies is in this little trifle decently and gracefully half concealed.

"A Friend of my Childhood," in the November *Lippincott's*, is a story told by himself about a small boy, a Philadelphian by birth and residence, who, being engaged in ringing his mother's door-bell for twenty minutes by the clock without cessation, was surveyed the while by a tall gentleman, who seemed much interested in his young friend's crime, and who afterwards, when at last the two were admitted into the house, demanded an introduction to the youth. The tall gentleman turns out to have been Mr. Thackeray, who, on a subsequent occasion, "tipped" the bell-ringer with a sovereign.

The *Lippincott* serials (Mr. Black's story and Mr. Strahan's fantasy, "The New Hyperion") go on successfully, and so do Mrs. Feudge's Eastern sketches. Of the single articles there will be found readable some verses by Miss Emma Lazarus, of which the interest is partly personal, and a critical article, quite generous enough in its praise, on the little-known author of 'Death's Jest-Book,' Mr. Thomas Lovell Beddoes. He was one of the poets who have the capacity for so far saturating themselves with the life of a particular bygone time—or rather, of course, with some particular extract from the life of some particular time—as to lose almost all natural flavor of their own. This makes them rare men and interesting; but the process certainly does not turn them into Greeks, for example, if that is what they wish to be, nor mediævalists, nor Orientals; and it perhaps hinders them about as much as it helps them in expressing what poetry of their own is in them. Thus, one of them will write an Elizabethan lyric with one Tennysonian line in it, which shall be of excellent skill yet a perfect failure, and the probability would seem to be that a lyric of his own he could have made. Beddoes wished to be a mediæval, and as his imagination loved the grisly and grotesque, it is not the ordinary gloomy or cheerful or superficially picturesque modern mediæval things that he deals in—the knight and the foot-page, and the rosy monk and the ascetic monk, and the like, but rather in a sort of mediæval life made up, as it were, of all of grotesque and of naïvely horrible that ever suggested itself to the fancies of the artists of those ages of faith, of credulity, of violence, and of spiritual gloom. The scene is bewildering; and the author's apparent unwillingness to do more than adumbrate his plot, and his apparent incapacity—indeed, his confessed incapacity—to produce a character at all, make his tragedies strange reading. Withal, there is no want of intellectual vigor in detached passages, although the poetry leaves upon one the impression of having been produced by a man of an enormous, even diseased, energy of will, out of all proportion to the intellect which tried to guide it, and which was impelled by the will to action. The result of the contest going on in the man seems to have been an embittering of the poet, whose force expended itself in rather furious dramas, with many confused beauties interspersed with sweet quaint lyrics, but the general effect of which reminds one of a wild old tapestry, say, or a faded Dance of Death.

Scribner's Monthly begins with this number a new volume, and it wears a very prosperous and enterprising look. *Hours at Home* and *Putnam's*, the one with its quiet back-parlor ways, and the other with its souvenirs of the Bowling Green and the Livingston Manors up the river, would hardly recognize themselves in their devourer and successor, with its panorama of the New South, which opens this month with a long article on Old and New Louisiana, by Mr. Edward King, who is an industrious correspondent, and who is assisted in his work by a tolerable artist; with its serial contributions all the way from England, and written by "the greatest of living English historians"; and with its poems from remote Boston and Cambridge, its novels and novelettes, brought from across the sea and even from regions south of Philadelphia at home. One American magazine as well calculated as *Scribner's* to be popular in a community like that of which New York is the business centre it would, we suppose, be possible to find, but doubtless not two.

In 1864, Mr. Clarence King made an unsuccessful attempt to reach the summit of Mount Whitney, in the Sierra Nevada, from the southern side. In 1871, he renewed the attempt from the eastern side—as he supposed on the same mountain, trusting to the location assigned to it in the meantime by some of his associates in the Geological Survey. According to an article in the *Overland Monthly* for November, by Mr. King's colleague, Mr. James D. Hague, it now turns out that the peak which has hitherto borne the name of Mount Whitney is really six miles distant from the true and loftier one; and that the error was only discovered last July. Mr. King has since enjoyed the pleasure of a complete ascent, and his and some previous measurements agree in making out Mount Whitney to be at least 15,000 feet high, and the highest known point in the United States.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*	
Abbott (Rev. J. S. C.), Peter Stuyvesant	(Dodd & Mead)	$1 50
A Great Lady: A Tale	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)	
Against the Stream: A Tale	(Dodd & Mead)	$1 75
Birks (T. R.), First Principles of Moral Science	(Macmillan & Co.)	3 00
Burton (J. H.), History of Scotland, Vols. 6 and 7 (Scribner, Welford & Armstrong)		3 75
Bain (A.), Mind and Body	(D. Appleton & Co.)	
Beecher (Rev. H. W.), Yale Lectures on Preaching	(J. B. Ford & Co.)	1 50
Benedict (F. L.), Miss Dorothy's Charge	(Harper & Bros.)	
Blanche Seymour: a Tale	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)	
Chamisso (A. von), Peter Schlemihl	(A. Denham & Co.)	2 00
Collins (W.), The Dead Secret, swd	(T. B. Peterson & Bros.)	0 50
Cocker (Rev. B. F.), Lectures on the Truth of the Christian Religion	(J. M. Arnold & Co.)	
Clark (Rev. T. W.), The Dew of Youth	(Lee & Shepard)	
Coleridge (A. D.), Recent Music and Musicians	(Henry Holt & Co.)	
Corbin (Mrs. C. F.), His Marriage Vow	(Lee & Shepard)	
Dawson (J. W.), Story of the Earth and Man	(Harper & Bros.)	
Force (M. F.), Prehistoric Man; Darwinism and Deity; the Mound Builders, swd.	(Robert Clarke & Co.)	
Freytag (G.), Ingraban: a Tale	(Henry Holt & Co.)	1 25
Fleming (May A.), A Wonderful Woman	(G. W. Carleton & Co.)	
Garrett (E.), Crooked Places	(Dodd & Mead)	1 75
Gorton (Dr. D. A.), Principles of Mental Hygiene	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)	
Gray (R.), Brave Hearts: a Tale	(J. B. Ford & Co.)	
Greg (W. R.), Literary and Social Judgments	(J. R. Osgood & Co.)	2 00
Gardner (F.), Ovid, Curtius, Cicero	(Lee & Shepard)	1 50
Harlan (Marion), Jessamine	(G. W. Carleton & Co.)	1 50
Halsey (C. S.), Bible Chart of Genealogy and Chronology	(Ginn & Bros.)	
Hailman (W. N.), Kindergarten Culture	(Wilson, Hinkle & Co.)	
Hervey (G. W.), System of Christian Rhetoric	(Harper & Bros.)	
Hepburn (J. C.), Japanese-English and English-Japanese Dictionary, abridged	(A. D. F. Randolph & Co.)	3 00
Higginson (T. W.), Oldport Days	(J. R. Osgood & Co.)	2 00
Household Worship	(Porter & Coates)	1 25
Hopkins (M.), An Outline Study of Man	(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.)	
Howson (Rev. J. S.), Character of St. Paul	(Dodd & Mead)	1 75
Hyde (Mrs. A. M.), A Ladder to Learning	(Claxton, Remsen & Haffelfinger)	0 50
Isler (A.), Wild Thoughts in Rhyme	(Smythe & Co.)	1 25
Journal and Letters of Col. John May, 1788-89	(Robert Clarke & Co.)	2 00
Jerrold (D.), Fireside Saints, and Other Papers	(Lee & Shepard)	
Kellogg (E.), The Turning of the Tide	" "	
Kingsley (Rev. C.), Prose Idylls, New and Old	(Macmillan & Co.)	1 75
Littell's Living Age, Vol. CXVIII., July—Sept., 1873	(Littell & Gay)	
Long (Harriett S.), Introduction to English Grammar	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)	
Lord (J.), Life of Emma Willard	(D. Appleton & Co.)	
Montesquieu (Baron de), Spirit of Laws, 2 vols	(Robert Clarke & Co.)	6 00
Manual of Etiquette	(G. P. Putnam's Sons)	1 75
Northern Lights: Stories from Swedish and Finnish authors	(Porter & Coates)	1 50
Nast's Illustrated Almanac for 1874, swd	(Harper & Bros.)	
Packard (Dr. A. S., jr.), Our Common Insects	(Dodd & Mead)	
Perkins (H. S.) and Bentley (W. W.), The River of Life: Music	(O. Ditson & Co.)	0 35
Perrier (Amelia), A Good Match	(J. B. Ford & Co.)	1 50
Peirce (J. M.), Elements of Logarithms	(Ginn Bros.)	

PUBLISHED THIS DAY.

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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

NEW YORK, Oct. 27, 1873.

THE situation continues to improve as regards the financial condition of the banks, and everything points towards a general resumption of currency payments by the 1st of November. The Cincinnati banks resumed payment week before last; the St. Louis banks have voted to resume to-day, while the Chicago banks, as a rule, have been paying out currency right along, no formal or general suspension having taken place among the banks of that city during the recent panic, nor did they avail themselves of the plan, adopted in New York and other cities, of issuing loan certificates as a medium of settling their indebtedness at the Clearing-House.

The banks in this city gained largely in legal tenders every day last week, and the strength of the different institutions has evidently so far improved as to warrant a discontinuance of the "pooling" of legal tenders after the 1st of November, a vote of the bank managers having so decided. The premium on legal tenders and national-bank currency is only nominal, the quotation remaining at ⅛ of 1 per cent. all the week, and the banks have been very willing to supply their customers who want them for legitimate uses, such as paying wages, etc. It is to be hoped that with the resumption of currency payments by the banks, the savings-banks will see fit to set afloat a greater portion of their hoardings, and act as if they had some little confidence left after their frightful scare of the last month.

President Grant has written a letter to Mr. John E. Williams, President of the Metropolitan Bank, and has had a conversation with Mr. Anthony, a merchant of this city, by whom he forwarded the letter to Mr. Williams. The letter to Mr. Williams advises the banks to help the merchants, and states that the Government will assist the banks by every means in its power. It seems that Mr. Anthony, in his conversation with the President, understood the latter to say that the Government would issue from $3,000,000 to $4,000,000 a week of the "$44,000,000 reserve" for a number of weeks to come; but this is denied by both the President and the Secretary of the Treasury, who disclaim any intention of making further issues of currency beyond the absolute requirements for the current expenses of the Government, and even then the issue is only to be of a temporary character, and to be withdrawn as rapidly as possible.

Affairs at the Union Trust Company show some improvment. The loan of $1,750,000 to the Lake Shore and Michigan Southern Railroad Company has been provided for by Commodore Vanderbilt, who agrees to give his notes, running three, six, and nine months, secured by Harlem Railroad stock at 90, for the entire amount of the railroad company's indebtedness. As soon as these notes can be sold and the money obtained, there will, it is said, be no further difficulty in the resumption of business by the Trust Company.

The range of rates on call loans has been between 7 per cent. and $\frac{1}{32}$ commission added. Borrowers have had little difficulty in supplying themselves at the legal rate, while a considerable "short interest" in the stock market has enabled brokers to lend their stocks, receiving the currency value therefrom at still lower rates.

The market for commercial paper has been more active, but the rates remain at about those last quoted—15 to 18 per cent. for the best class of names.

Foreign advices are more favorable than those of last week led us to expect. The Bank of England rate of discount remains at 7 per cent., although the Bank continues to lose in bullion, £287,000 having been withdrawn last week.

The stock market remained in its feverish and unsettled condition until Friday, when the announcement was made by a morning paper that some $2,250,000 bonds of the Lake Shore Road had been issued to the Executive Committee of the road, consisting of three of its directors, and by them hypothecated with George B. Grinnell & Company as security for advances made to them on a speculative joint account in that firm's office. Upon this there was a rush to sell Lake Shore and other Vanderbilt stocks, and, as a consequence, a heavy decline took place in them, Lake Shore selling down to 61. The general market shared in the decline of the Vanderbilt stocks; but later in the day, by vigorous buying on the part of Vanderbilt, the price of Lake Shore was carried up to 65, at which figure it closed. On Saturday, owing to unfavorable rumors in regard to certain large holders of stocks, the market became weak, and continued so until late in the day, when another break took place in prices, owing, it is said, to the selling out of large blocks of stock, which had been pledged as collaterals in time loans, and which the holders refused to renew. These securities, it is said, belong to the at present unfortunate "Vanderbilt party," and the decline which followed was greatest in those stocks understood to be the special favorites of the Commodore. The following will show the extent of the break:

	Opening.	Highest.	Lowest.	Closing.
N. Y. C. & H. R.	89¾	89¾	85¾	86 bid.
Harlem	107	108	105	104½ "
Erie	46⅛	46¼	45¾	45⅝ "
Lake Shore	65	65¼	60⅜	61¼ "
Wabash	40⅜	41⅜	37½	37¾ "
Northwestern	36¾	36⅞	33	33¾ "
Rock Island	91⅜	91⅞	87½	87½ "
Mil. and St. Paul	29¼	29½	25	25¼ "
Ohio and Miss.	23¼	24⅛	22¼	22¼ "
Union Pacific	17⅜	17¾	16⅜	16¾ "
Western Union	56½	57¾	51¾	51¾ "
Pacific Mail	32¼	32⅝	30½	30⅝ "

The *Financier* of October 25 contains the following statement of the settlement of the late difficulties between Mr. W. B. Stockwell, former President of the Pacific Mail S. S. Co., and that Company:

"The Company claimed an indebtedness of $840,000 for stock sold by him, and Mr. Stockwell gave his notes for $100,000 each, to mature, one at the beginning of each month, until the entire debt was paid. As security for the payment of the notes, he also gave a mortgage for $840,000 upon the Howe Sewing-machine property at Bridgeport, Conn., which the Pacific Mail Company accepted as collateral. The notes, as they fell due, were not paid, and in this way the stock was made to suffer at the hands of the 'bears,' who used these untoward circumstances to depress the price. At first it was supposed that the mortgage upon the Bridgeport property was valid; but it was finally discovered that it would not hold good, and that the Pacific Mail Company stood a fine chance of going without their money for a long time. Besides this, money was needed for the purchase of new steamers, which were necessary to carry on the business of the Company, and a loan was negotiated from the Panama Railroad of $500,000. Mr. Stockwell is President of the Panama Railroad Company, and it is understood that his influence in the negotiation of the loan to Pacific Mail counted as something in the final settlement. Mr. Stockwell, some time ago, claimed that the Pacific Mail Company owed him $1,000,000, and brought a suit as an offset to the one against him. The entire matter was settled by an agreement on Mr. Stockwell's part to hand over 10,000 shares of Pacific Mail to the Company, the entire number of shares to be paid in monthly instalments, running through a period of seven months. The Company, in consideration of this number of shares of its own stock, agrees to give Mr. Stockwell a full release from all obligations, and Mr. Stockwell gives the Company a release from any obligations which he claims are due to him. The notes and mortgage are to be kept in the possession of the Company until Mr. Stockwell has completed the delivery of the 10,000 shares of stock. Out of the $840,000 which the directors of Pacific Mail claimed that Mr. Stockwell owed them, about $35,000 have been already received, so that the total indebtedness which he was called upon to liquidate was $805,000. The stock closed yesterday at 33, thus making the total amount which Mr. Stockwell has settled for $330,000, and leaving $475,000, which has been 'thrown' off in the bargaining."

The following shows the highest and lowest sales of the leading stocks at the Stock Exchange for the week ending October 26:

	Monday.		Tuesday.		Wed'day.		Thursday		Friday.		Saturday		Sales.
N. Y. C. & H. R.	88¼	90½	88¾	89¾	89	90½	89¼	90½	88	89	85¾	89¾	76 300
Lake Shore	66⅜	69¼	66⅜	68½	67	68	67⅛	68¾	61	65	60½	65¼	100,300
Erie	44	45⅜	45	47	45¼	46½	....	46½	....	45⅞	45⅜	46¼	13,400
Do pfd	....	64¾	....	64	....	65	....	....	....	64½	....	....	....
Union Pacific	19	20	18½	19⅜	17¾	18⅝	17⅜	18⅜	16⅜	19½	16⅜	17⅜	29,300
Chi. & N. W.	39	41	38⅜	39⅜	39¼	39¾	37⅜	39	36⅜	36¾	33	36⅞	10,000
N. J. Central	90	91	89½	90½	....	89¾	....	89	....	89	87	89¼	800
Rock Island	90¾	93	90¾	92¼	90½	92½	91½	94	90¼	91⅜	87½	91⅞	21,900
Mil. & St. Paul	30½	31⅞	30	31½	30	30¾	29½	31	27½	29	25	29½	11 500
Do. pfd	....	56	54½	56½	....	58½	....	54¾	....	52	....	....	1,200
Wabash	42¾	45	42¼	44	42⅜	43⅜	41½	43⅜	39¼	41½	37½	41½	44,600
D., L. & W.	88⅞	90½	84	89	88	88½	87	88	85½	87	86	87	2,900
O. & M.	26¼	27½	25¾	26⅝	24½	26	22¾	25¼	21⅜	23⅜	22½	24½	53,200
C., C. & I. C.	21⅝	23	20¼	22	20⅜	21	20	21½	19½	19¾	18¼	20¼	10,400
W. U. Tel.	56½	59⅞	56¾	58⅜	57½	58⅝	57⅜	59⅜	54½	56⅜	51¼	57½	196,400
Pacific Mail	32½	34¼	32⅜	33¾	32⅜	33¾	31½	33¾	30½	32	30⅜	32⅝	29,700

The market for Government bonds shows decided improvement. It was evident from the class of bonds most in demand during the latter part of the week that the buyers consisted largely of those who had been sellers during the commencement of the panic. In the absence of any demand, the market had greatly fallen off, even though the amount of bonds pressing for sale was small; now, with a good demand from savings-banks and others, it is quite as difficult to fill orders to buy without running up the price as it was before to sell without depressing it.

The gold market has been very dull, with quotations materially unchanged. The present condition of the market is attributable to the entire absence of speculative support, and the fact that merchants in need of gold with which to pay duties at the Custom-house, and buy exchange, purchase only the amount absolutely required; and, owing to the unsettled condition of mercantile affairs and the difficulty of obtaining money, these purchases are considerably under what their ordinary wants would require. The range of quotations has been between 108⅛ and 108¾, and the closing price on Saturday was 108½ to 108⅝.

The total shipments from England to this country since the panic commenced amount to nearly $13,000,000 thus far.

The total exports of specie from this port since January 1, 1873, amount to $43,742,140, against $60,860,371 for a corresponding period in 1872, $57,319,380 in 1871, $51,242,749 in 1870, and $28,393,797 in 1869.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 6, 1873.

The Week.

THE failure, on Thursday, of Hoyt, Sprague & Co., agents of the A. & W. Sprague Manufacturing Co. of Rhode Island, had a depressing effect on Wall Street, which was not allayed by the subsequent reports of the difficulties of the Spragues themselves. The Spragues are commonly spoken of, and perhaps consider themselves, as ordinary manufacturers, but their enormous importance in the financial world is easily appreciated when we consider the fact that, while the liabilities of the State of Rhode Island, in which they do their business, are in round numbers some $6,000,000, or, including the town and city debts, $9,000,000, the liabilities of the Spragues are $11,000,000; in reality, the effect on business of disaster to such a firm would be far greater than complete bankruptcy on the part of the State. Their affairs being investigated by a committee of the local banks, it was found that their assets exceeded their liabilities by $8,000,000, and they have undertaken to put all their affairs, including their private property, in the hands of trustees, to be administered for the benefit of all concerned. Rumors were industriously circulated about H. B. Claflin & Co., and they were supposed to be in need of assistance from the banks, but what they needed they obtained privately. The disclosure of the condition of the affairs of the Spragues and the ease with which H. B. Claflin & Co. extricated themselves from their difficulties, had a very reassuring effect.

It may be worth while, in view of the present unsettled condition of the public mind, to call attention to the fact that a panic once in ten years or twenty is really all that a country is fairly entitled to, and that the present effort on the part of some enterprising newspapers to give us panics at the rate of one a week, though well meant, is misdirected. The panic of 1873 is now over, and the depression of business which has ensued is nothing more than what inevitably follows on the track of all panics. The condition of the banks shows that the panic proper is over, as they have already resumed currency payments, and have in their vaults a supply of greenbacks three or four times as large as it was on the 20th of September, and a supply, too, which is constantly increasing. The Washington correspondents telegraph to New York that inflation is on the cards as soon as Congress meets, but inflation would do no good now. The only time when inflation could have been of any use was when the President and Secretary Richardson were masquerading at the Fifth Avenue Hotel in the interest of law and the Constitution.

Indeed, the condition of the public mind recalls a story of the riots in 1863. While the disturbances were at their height, a single rough stopped an omnibus filled with male passengers, swore at them, and told them to get out, which they did promptly. When they were huddled together on the pavement, he again swore at them and told them to get in, which they did with equal promptness, and the omnibus then drove off, leaving him grinning at his success. The "moneyed mind of the community," to use a phrase we once heard at a financial meeting, seems to be in a state of nervous alarm that would disgrace the intellectual apparatus of an old woman. A certain number of operators, adventurers, quacks, and "bears" seem to occupy themselves just now with the invention of alarming stories of failures, which the newspapers, for convenience' sake, have divided into "malignant rumors" and "disquieting rumors." They are produced by the dozen every day, and there appears to be a large body of persons so easily affected by them that on hearing one they rush out and begin selling off their property to the highest bidder; this is really what occurs when we are told that "stocks grew weaker under the influence of a report" that Mr. A. T. Stewart's dinner had disagreed with him, or that Vanderbilt had overdrawn his account. Of course some of these rumors have a strong tendency to produce the occurrences which they profess to describe. Every man in business is just now short of money; many have to borrow who are as solvent as the United States. All that is often needed, however, to prevent their borrowing, and ensure their failure, is to spread a report that they are going to fail. No panic could come to an end unless the more influential portion of the financial world determined to cheer up and go about its business in the ordinary way. The first step towards a rally, in all panics, is to stop running, and leave off taking distant pigs for cavalry and the rumbling of cart-wheels for artillery.

General or partial elections were held on Tuesday in this State, and in Massachusetts, New Jersey, Maryland, Virginia, Mississippi, Arkansas, Illinois, Wisconsin, Minnesota, Michigan, Kansas, and Texas. In general, a light vote was expected, as it well might be. The full returns show, for instance, that in Pennsylvania, last month, one voter in every three staid at home on election day, and in some counties, as Indiana and Allegheny, the proportion was one in two. But Tuesday's vote was not expected to be light everywhere. In Virginia, the gubernatorial term is four years; a United States senatorship, with many aspirants, was among the prizes; and, more than all, it was felt that the so-called carpet-baggers would this year make one of their bitterest fights, and perhaps their very last one, for the control of the State. The line was very sharply drawn between the whites and the blacks, so that it is hardly an exaggeration to say that it was a struggle of races. All the old cries were heard. The negroes were reminded that the Conservatives once held them in slavery, and sold their families down South; and these references were met by Conservative references to the ravishing of an aged lady by two of Kellogg's colored policemen. "It seems monstrous," says the Lynchburg *Republican*, "to suppose that any white man, having a mother, sister, wife, or daughter, can march up to the polls and vote to place in power a party which connives and smiles at such outrages." Saner references were made on every stump to the disordered finances and outraged statute-books of Louisiana and South Carolina under the unfettered control of main strength and ignorance. In the Northwestern agricultural States some interest was lent to the result by the presence of the "anti-monopolist" element, and in Mississippi the Butlerite wing of the Administration Republicans was led by young Senator Ames, who was opposed by Senator Alcorn, a native Mississippian and an independent man. The Democrats aided him by setting up no candidates of their own. Rumor has freely asserted that Ames's success would mean a revival of the famous old repudiated Mississippi bonds, some millions of which are asserted to be in good hands.

What has been the result of the election, so far as Mississippi is concerned, is not known as we write; but there as elsewhere the Administration Republicans appear to have undergone very well-earned reverses. In Massachusetts, what with the freest sort of scratching, and a strong anti-prohibition feeling in the cities—where, moreover, angry Butlerism was strong—Governor Washburn's majority on a very light vote was cut down from more than seventy thousand to something not far from twelve thousand—a most extraordinary Republican majority for Massachusetts. Evidently these are not the days of "Free Soil, Free Press, Free Speech, Fremont." Among the minor but noteworthy incidents of the contest in Massachusetts is the election of General N. P. Banks to the State Senate. His opponent was a Mr. Copeland, a completely representative Butler man, whose caucus-packing and

other small arts enabled him to carry off the regular nomination, but so enraged his opponents that they adopted the project of setting up General Banks as an independent candidate. It is neither flattery nor praise of General Banks to say that he is the better man of the two—though we little thought ever to be pleased by his return into political life. In Virginia, the Conservatives win a very decisive victory. Their majority is estimated at twenty thousand and upwards, and this although a month or so ago the Administration party were pointing to a majority for Grant last autumn, and talking of carrying the State. The truth is, however, that a great many things have happened since last autumn. In Wisconsin there is actually an anti-Republican and "anti-monopolist" majority, which is set at about five thousand. The majority last year was on the other side, and was more than eighteen thousand. In this State, where the Democrats more fully than anywhere else reaped the benefit of the disgust engendered by the financial crisis, the attempt to save the Republicans by Custom-house and Apollo-Hall alliances failed disastrously, and the Fentonite members of the party have the satisfaction of seeing the Conklingite faction enduring a worse beating than any they themselves ever contrived to get. The constitutional amendment, ordering that judges be appointed and not elected, was, we are sorry to say, lost. It would seem that the people outside the city are satisfied with their judges; that they have a natural inclination to keep in their own hands such power as they find lodged there; and that the politician class, of whatever party, were as one man against the proposed reform, and used all the party machinery against it. So far as now appears, the Assembly and Senate are still to be controlled by the Republicans. On the whole, looking at the general results of this autumn's contest, we suppose it is the politicians who will mostly regret the results. Such honest and sensible men as are not strongly partisan will not be sorry that there has been a turn in what had become an extremely dirty as it long had been an extremely strong tide.

The Senate Transportation Committee has held another meeting at St. Louis. It seems, from the report of the proceedings, that the solution of the farmers' difficulties suggested at their Chicago Convention, of "holding back their hogs till they could get five dollars for them," is not generally satisfactory. Mr. Flagg, President of the State Farmers' Association of Illinois, having presented a report on behalf of the Chicago Convention, was followed by Mr. S. F. Tufts, editor of the Centralia *Democrat*, who "descended into the valleys and brought up some further truths," which were cordially endorsed by Mr. Flagg. Mr. Tufts, among other things, suggested that a maximum rate should be established by Congress of three cents a mile for first-class passenger trains, and a maximum rate for freight which should secure a "just and reasonable" return on the capital invested, and also recommended the consideration of the propriety of enacting a law excluding from Congress any one interested in any way, directly or indirectly, in the construction or operation of any commercial thoroughfare. On being asked what he would do if Congress altered the railroad law and the change was declared unconstitutional by the Supreme Court, he replied that he would "wipe out the Supreme Court." What we wish to call attention to is that this mad talk is "endorsed" by a prominent official—perhaps the most prominent official—connected with the farmers' movement.

The *Tribune's* Grange correspondent has been giving a curious account of the life and opinions of a farmer named Stillson, a leading Wisconsin yeoman. When Mr. Stillson settled, some years ago, in Wisconsin, he was not rich; his lands were "plastered all over" with mortgages bearing a very high rate of interest. He has however raised himself from this condition to that of one of the wealthiest men in the State. His acres are numbered by thousands (one farm is mentioned containing 960 acres), he has 150 head of cattle and horses, and between 1,700 and 1,800 head of sheep. He is not a member of the Grange, but he looks with favor upon the farmers' movement. He is a Democrat and a protectionist. In short, this typical Wisconsin husbandman is in every respect the opposite of the picture presented to the popular mind by the agitators as the true representation. Far from being a poor man, he is a large capitalist; instead of being a discontented Republican, he is a Democrat; instead of feeling himself oppressed by the tariff, he feels whenever he looks at his sheep or thinks of the year's clip of 7,000 pounds of wool, how wise and just are the arrangements of Congress. Most of the farmers, this correspondent says, know and care very little about the tariff. The Grange organizations have, however, been found of great use in lowering prices through co-operative purchases.

The Stokes trial has resulted in a verdict of manslaughter in the third degree, and a sentence of four years at Sing Sing. The result cannot be said to have been received with either delight or regret by the public, who had already begun to lose their interest in the case. Those who have read the reports of the trial will be inclined to wonder whether or no there is any one who has any jurisdiction over the morals and manners of the members of the Bar. During the trial, one of the counsel accused another, almost in so many words, of "lying and knowing that he lied," throwing out at the same time broad hints as to the looseness of his opponent's private character, and insinuating that it was a piece of great hypocrisy for a man so depraved to appear in the case at all. As long as the judges never disbar anybody, and the Bar Association never expels anybody, this Billingsgate practice will continue.

Several States have laws on their statute-books requiring the courts to appoint supervisors of election, for the purpose of preventing fraud. As a general rule, these laws have not had much effect, except to drag the judiciary a little lower down in the mire; and the Massachusetts Supreme Court has now rendered a decision declaring such a law—passed by the last Massachusetts Legislature—unconstitutional, on the ground that it confuses the boundaries between the judicial and executive departments. This very sound decision, indicating as it does the revival of "tone" in the Court, and coming so soon after the defeat of Butler, is received by all Massachusetts reformers as an encouraging sign. In addition to this, the establishment of a Boston Fire Commission has been voted by both branches of the City Government. This change is the first important improvement which the conflagrations of the past three years have occasioned. Elsewhere, as in Chicago, there has been a great deal of talk, but nothing done. Some of the names of the gentlemen mentioned in connection with the newly created commission are almost too good to be true. To cap the climax, the old Hartford and Erie swindlers are being sued right and left, and along with them our great international jurist, J. C. Bancroft Davis. Mr. Davis was trustee for the bondholders of the road, and received from the Eldridge gang some $60,000, as a consideration, it is alleged, for corrupt neglect of his duties.

The Philadelphia Ring—probably the most audacious body of corruptionists in the world—may turn out to have received very unexpectedly a most damaging blow. The State Constitutional Convention has been the butt of the ridicule of these men ever since it began its sessions. They openly said that they would defeat its amendments looking toward reform by 50,000 majority, and "more if necessary"—the most insolent notification that Philadelphians had then received of the power of the ring, though since then another has been given them in the majorities accorded by the counters to Judge Gordon and the tainted Mackey respectively. The Convention paid no attention to the threats of the ring until the last day of October, when it had completed its chief work and arrived at the making of an ordinance which should provide for the method of voting on the new constitution. After making provision for the

counties in general, a special clause was reported for Philadelphia, where there is now in existence a special law governing elections—a law under which the falsifying of the returns has of late years been done, and done easily. The special clause named three Republicans and two Democrats as Commissioners to revise the registry, appoint election officers, and receive, count, and certify the votes of the city. The Philadelphia delegation in the Convention was at once in alarm, declared that there never had been any repeating done in the city, that the ordinance was an insult to Philadelphia, and so on; but out of a total vote of 113 in the Convention, but fifteen men were found to vote against the special clause. Should this ordinance stand, Philadelphia will vote to accept the new Constitution and it will become the fundamental law, "the infamous registration law" will disappear, and momentarily at least the citizens will have their city in their own hands. But it is stated that an appeal will be made to Governor Hartranft to issue his proclamation declaring that this same registration law is the law under which the election in Philadelphia must be carried on. It can hardly be believed that he will venture on this. The confession would be too open for one man to make and take the responsibility of, though the ring would not hesitate an instant. And in any case, what a confession it is for Pennsylvanians to listen to that is made by their Convention's ordinance.

The efforts of the Legitimist delegation to bring the Comte de Chambord to reason have, it is now announced, totally failed. He has written a letter, and insisted on its publication, in which he declares in substance that anybody who supposed that he was capable of entering into a compromise of any kind on any subject was greatly mistaken; that he would not concede anything to the spirit of the age; and that, in short, France must take him, if at all, just as he was, and that it was through him only that she could be saved. The letter has raised him in people's estimation morally, but has damned him as a politician, and has almost reduced the Monarchists to despair. They still maintain stoutly, however, that they have got the requisite majority in the Assembly, and they treat any indications that the tide of feeling is running against them as so many proofs that they must by hook or by crook save the country from Radicalism. MacMahon evidently sympathizes with them, and yet behaves with extraordinary discretion and reticence. He helps the Legitimists, however, in the old way, by suspending Republican newspapers, and by postponing the elections to fill vacancies to the utmost legal limit—six months. The *Siècle* is now under the ban for reporting a speech of Gambetta's. The Marshal's military reputation, by the way, has been considerably raised by the last volume of the German official history of the war, which describes his retreat after Forbach as a masterpiece of strategy, and confesses frankly that he defeated Moltke's calculations, and got off so cleanly and deftly that not only did Prince Frederic Charles fail to cut him off as ordered, but the flower of the German cavalry failed even to "feel" him.

The quarrel between the Catholic prelates and the crown in Prussia has entered on a new phase. Archbishop Ledochovski continues so contumacious that the Government proposes to have him dismissed by the new ecclesiastical court, and the Old-Catholic Bishop Reinkens of the same diocese put in, in his stead, as the only lawful bishop of the diocese, and therefore the only one authorized to receive official communications from the Pope. Should Ledochovski continue to officiate after his deposition, it is considered probable that the Government will procure legislation at the next session of Parliament empowering it to imprison in all such cases. The official paper charges the whole of the Prussian Catholic prelates with "disobedience, resistance, and rebellion."

King John of Saxony, who died last week in his seventy-third year, was something more than a mere king. He was a man of delicate temperament, refined taste, and studious disposition. The trade of royalty was not suited to him, and his reign, which began in 1854, when he unexpectedly succeeded his brother, was full of personal and political trials and reverses. In the struggle between Austria and Prussia his sympathies and his hopes led him to take part with the losing side. His kingdom virtually lost its independence; his own authority and influence as a ruler were greatly diminished, and he was forced to accept conditions which he could not but keenly feel as humiliating to himself and his family. Saxony in becoming a subordinate portion of the German Empire lost little that was worth preserving, but the lustre departed from her court, and her rulers lost all but the shadow of kingship. King John accommodated himself to the change of position with dignity and manliness. He made no useless resistance to force that he could not withstand, and he found support under his calamities in religion and in his favorite studies. His qualities were not such as to awaken an enthusiastic devotion toward him in his people, but he secured from them the respect he deserved. Of his rank and services as a scholar we have spoken in another place. He is succeeded by a son who does not inherit his literary tastes, but is said to be a respectable soldier. He won some reputation at the head of a corps in the Franco-German war; but in the case of princes it is difficult to apportion the credit due to them individually, and that due to their staff and subordinates. A prince wins credit easily.

The most striking phase, in an historic point of view, of the conflict between the Syllabus and modern civilization, has been the recent correspondence between the Pope and the Emperor William. It is not so very recent after all, for the Pope's letter bears date of August 7; but the Emperor waited before replying till all his ministers had returned to celebrate the victory of Sedan. The next day, September 3, the reply was despatched, and at the same time the diploma of the Old-Catholic Bishop Reinkens was issued. The publication of both letters was withheld till the eve of the elections in Germany, and two days later the Emperor became the guest of the Emperor of Austria. The Pope's letter, regarded as a serious attempt to influence the august personage to whom it was addressed, or to conciliate his subjects, is an inspired production. He suggests that the Emperor disapproves of the Catholic persecutions instituted by his own Government; tells him they are endangering his throne; and says he speaks frankly because "all who have received baptism"—even non-Catholics—"belong to the Pope." The Emperor's reply is very vigorous. He reminds the Holy Father that all Government measures in Prussia are subject to the royal approval; informs him of the clerical organization to disturb the peace of the state; and hopes that this news will induce him to exert his authority to put an end to this agitation, which has nothing to do with the religion of Jesus Christ nor with the truth—"the truth is my banner," the Pope had said. As for "belonging" to the Pope because he had been baptized, the Emperor calls attention to the Evangelical faith which he professes, in common with the majority of his subjects, and which admits no mediator save Christ between them and their Maker, though it "does not prevent them from living in peace" with those who do not share that faith.

This, as has been remarked, is the first time in modern history that an Emperor of Germany, writing to the Pope, has been able and, in fact, constrained to tell him that he does not belong to the Church of which the latter is the visible head. A trifling incident which has since taken place in Rome marks, in a manner scarcely less forcible, the immense gulf between the past and the present of the Papacy. One Grassi, canon of the basilica of Santa Maria Maggiore, some time in September withdrew from his office, abjured the Catholic religion, and turned Protestant. This made some stir in Rome, and sent the chapter of Santa Maria Maggiore, with an humble address, to the Pope, openly deploring the scandal and protesting its own fidelity. Somewhat later, Grassi was summoned to appear before the Tribunal of the Inquisition, and, this name not having lost all the terror of its associations, he at first refused to attend. On reflection, he concluded he had nothing to fear for his personal safety, and voluntarily presented himself. He was gratified to find no flummery, no horrid paraphernalia, no tortures. After a few formalities, he was dismissed to go about his business.

THE PRESS AND THE PRESENT CRISIS.

MR. A. A. LOW, at a late meeting of the Union Trust Company, moved a resolution, which was adopted, calling the attention of the press to the fact that "it is charged with a vast responsibility; that it has the power to mitigate the prevalent distrust or to intensify the general alarm"; and that "those journals of this city whose columns are employed to build up and sustain, and not to pull down and destroy, will command the highest degree of respect and gratitude on the part of the suffering community." This was a very timely hint, and we have no doubt will be taken in good part by those to whom it was addressed. The prevalent distrust has undoubtedly been spread and intensified by high-colored newspaper accounts of its phenomena, and this not intentionally, either, but through what may be called the *habit* of sensational writing and sensational typography. As long as the public buys more papers when it is excited than when it is calm, editors and reporters will have to be almost more than human to refrain from putting even commonplace facts in the most striking light; and the tendency in this direction is daily increased by the fact that sensational writing has ceased to be a vice, and has become an honored and highly-paid calling. The commercial world is suffering to-day simply because the reporter's lens is directed to it, not because the magnifying power of the lens is now in any degree increased. The most respectable men in the community, as well as the lovers of notoriety, have, during the last ten years, made a practice of submitting themselves in the frankest way to be questioned by newspaper emissaries, often at their own houses, concerning both their public and private affairs, and it is therefore not surprising if the notion of privacy or discretion, and even of propriety, has vanished from the reporter's mind, and he feels that he carries a general warrant to look into everybody's books and papers. The newspapers are in this particular, as in others, no worse and no better than the community requires them to be. The consequences of embellishment and sensation-mongering are just now more serious than usual, but the character of the work has not changed, and will not change, as long as the public enjoys it, as it really does.

There is one lesson of the panic, however, which has an important bearing on this point, and which the public as well as the press will do well to take to heart, and that is, that it is not possible in our day to confine a panic to any one large and important field of business. When the present crisis was brought on by the failure of Jay Cooke & Co., a storm of pitiless indignation was poured on the heads of railroad speculators and stock-jobbers. The newspapers and the merchants and professional men united in denouncing them, and even went so far as to express gratification that they had been overtaken in the midst of their sin. The panic was very generally declared to be a "Wall-Street affair," with which the rest of the community need not concern itself, and the fall of stocks was treated as a clear gain to legitimate investors. Indeed, for a week or two a "railroad man" who had not failed was treated somewhat as a criminal escaping his due. Nothing was left unsaid to bring railroad property into disrepute, or, in other words, to depreciate it, and render it difficult to sell it or borrow money on it; and all this apparently in the firm belief that it was possible to dissociate it from the other property of the country, and that the dry-goods trade, and iron trade, and all the other trades could prosper while stocks were falling, and brokers "bursting up," and railroad-builders stopping their work. The horror of "speculators" which broke forth on every side was rendered all the more remarkable by the vagueness of the term "speculation," and by the exceeding difficulty that any of us would experience in laying our hands on an American citizen, either among the laborers, or capitalists, or newsboys, or bishops, who has not at some time endeavored by hook or by crook to become possessor of a piece of property for the purpose or in the hope of selling it at an advance. Indeed, nothing in the way of moral distinctions is less plainly marked than the line which separates the Wall-Street "operator" from the great bulk of the community in his views as to the proper mode of making money, and it is just this vagueness and indefiniteness which most contributes to produce the cant which usually attends a panic. The absence of any sure way of knowing a wicked speculator from the common run of speculators, makes all the latter vociferous in denouncing everybody who speculates at all, and in pretending that they would as soon cut off their right hands as hold anything for a rise. A striking illustration of the lengths to which this kind of audacity may be carried is afforded at this moment by the performances of a most notorious advertiser and vendor of the trashy bonds of new railroad companies, on many of which he has levied blackmail. After helping, to the best of his ability, to fill the drawers of the poor with worthless securities, he is at this moment as busy and as loud as anybody in denouncing railroad-builders and speculators, and in wailing over "watered stock," a species of property which he seems to regard with positive loathing.

The fact is that railroad securities represent about $3,000,000,000 of money actually invested, some of it belonging to foreigners, some to Americans. From part of this a large income is derived; from the rest of it a large income is expected some day or other. A very considerable portion of these securities, whether yielding revenue or not, have come during the last twenty years to play a very important and useful part in commerce by being deposited as pledges for loans, not for speculative purposes simply, but for the legitimate wants of trade. They save a large body of business men the trouble of getting their notes endorsed when borrowing from banks, and they save banks the trouble of making examinations into credit. To discredit them violently and suddenly and sweepingly, as in the present panic, is therefore to cause payment of an enormous amount of borrowed money to be demanded suddenly from persons who did not expect to be called upon to pay it, and to whom payment on a falling market means ruin. It upsets the calculations of another body of persons who expected to borrow on these securities, in case they needed money, and causes an instant suspension or contraction of their operations. It also spreads intense alarm among that vast body of quiet investors all over the country who derive the whole or a portion of their income from railroad bonds or stocks, and causes them to restrict their purchases and hoard their ready cash. And, though last not least, it stops railroad construction and extension, and diminishes railroad traffic, thus striking at the iron trade a deadly blow. In short, as we now see, and as we pointed out in these columns a month ago, we have only to assail railroads and railroad securities for a very few weeks to bring every branch of industry to the verge of ruin, to fill every household with dismay, and to destroy abroad the credit or power of borrowing money to which so much of our past prosperity has been due, and from which so much of our future prosperity must come. The perennial wail over our "foreign indebtedness" has come from men who have never seriously considered in what condition the United States would be to-day if we had to depend for the development of our immense resources on the slow and scanty results of our own saving.

It is to be hoped that the lesson which was at last brought home to the public mind by the great peril of last Saturday will not be speedily forgotten. All industries in our day stand or fall together. We cannot attack one without endangering all others, and our aim about railroads should be so to reform their management that they may become not worse but better investments, and that the flow of capital into them may stimulate competition, and thus bring about that adjustment of rates to popular requirements for which, as American politics now are, or are likely to be, it is useless to ask at the hands of the Government.

MINISTERS OF FINANCE.

THE late attempt to resume payment in silver, and the subsequent explanations of its failure issued by the Treasury, have excited a good deal of merriment; but they have also, coupled with the performances of the Department in the matter of "the reserve," caused a good deal of alarm and mortification to a very large portion of the

community. We think the news from Washington—of the truth of which we know nothing—that a change was impending in the Secretaryship, gave a good deal of relief to many anxious minds. If the Treasury was now what it was from the last war with England down to the outbreak of the rebellion—that is, a place in which the taxes were received, and applied, under the direction of Congress, to the current expenses of the Government, it would make comparatively little difference who managed it, provided he was honest. But the financial policy which was adopted in 1861 has raised the Secretary from the position of a sort of paying-teller, or head clerk, into that of a Minister of Finance of the European type, with enormous discretionary powers over the banks and the currency of the country, and even the fortunes of its merchants and traders. He can build a bank up by his deposits, or save it from ruin by his indulgence; he can, as he now asserts, change the value of all property by inflating or contracting the currency; he can make the fortunes of his friends by timely information as to his intentions with regard to the sale of gold or purchase of bonds; and he can ruin any man engaged in foreign trade by the use of the army of spies and informers who now watch the importers at all the great seaports. No minister of finance has indeed exercised such powers in Europe since 1789. Something like them was to be found in France under the old régime, but yet nothing equal to them. Had Turgot wielded the authority which an inscrutable Providence lodged in the hands of Boutwell and Richardson, that great man might have saved the monarchy from ruin, and his country from eighty years of bloody and wasteful revolution.

Now the extraordinary thing in the history of our financial system is that at the very moment when it entered on its phase of greatest difficulty—the phase in which cold payment and adjustment took the place of hot and lavish outlay—there should have been a distinct and well-marked decline in the character and capacity of our financiers. There are two classes of national financiers, both of which have made a considerable figure in the world. One is composed of men who have, as bankers or foreign merchants, had practical and personal experience of the way in which human nature, impelled by the desire of gain, acts under varying conditions of trade and industry, and of the mode in which it meets or evades attempts to interfere with it by legislation. The other is composed of men who, without personal familiarity with the operations of commerce, have brought trained intellects to the study of the financial experience of the civilized nations, and have made generalizations from it for legislative use. To the former class has belonged a host of great names. Its members founded and governed, during several glorious centuries, the republics of Florence, Genoa, and Venice in the Middle Ages. To modern finance it has contributed the Rothschilds, Hopes, Barings, Ricardo, Cobden, Bright, Chevalier, and others who, if not ministers themselves, have exerted a powerful influence on the financial policy of modern nations. That they have not played a more active and prominent part in politics is largely due to the fact that successful banking and trading is too absorbing a pursuit, in the earlier years of a man's career, to render devotion to politics possible. To the other class belong Turgot, Adam Smith, Hamilton, Gallatin, Peel, Gladstone, and Chase. None of these men were bred to business; but they were all men trained to study, and who made themselves masters of that wonderful story—the efforts of the human race, from the dawn of history, to provide itself with an efficient and economical machinery for the exchange of its commodities. No man who has thoroughly familiarized himself with this record, and seeks to draw from it, not support for *à priori* crotchets of his own, but guidance for an unbiassed mind, can go very far wrong; and none of these great men did go very far wrong, considering the conditions under which they labored. The one whose policy is still open to most question, and receives most criticism, is Mr. Chase; and there are some parts of his policy which we should be sorry to defend. But then it is due to him, and to everybody else to whose lot it has fallen to provide funds for a gigantic war, to say that during a struggle in which the existence of a nation or of a government is at stake, no minister can be a financier simply; he is always, when devising ways and means, more than half a fighting man, and comes inevitably to share the feelings of the general in the field, and consider every expedient lawful and safe which promises the defeat of the enemy. Consequently, no minister has ever passed through that ordeal yet without doing many things which, when looked at afterwards with a purely economical eye, merited condemnation. Mr. Chase was no more fortunate than any of his predecessors. But he was nevertheless a statesman; he had a wide view and large aims, and had the respect of a man who has been trained in a laborious and logical and learned calling, for the work and experience of those who had gone before him.

When the time came to bring the country back to the ways of peace, to restore the connection between its monetary system and that of the rest of the world, and adopt the burden of taxation hastily assumed during the war to the shoulders of quiet industry, we needed not less of the right kind of talent and experience for the management of the finances, but more. We needed, in short, a first-rate man of either of the two classes we have named, and the President, to do him justice, seems at the outset to have had some such idea vaguely in his mind, but, as in some others of his reformatory aims, he was unable to carry it out. The result was that he handed the Treasury over to a kind of man whose appearance may be said to have constituted an absolute novelty in political finance—that is, a man who had no financial experience of his own, and openly scorned the teachings of financial history. Mr. Boutwell's commercial experience was that of the keeper of a small retail store in a country town—we do not mention this as an imputation, but as a fact. Whatever time he had to spare from the care of this establishment, whose operations were not complicated, he devoted to the pursuit which has ever since 1846 been called "politics," and which he himself bore a prominent part in introducing into this country. Before that period, "politics" was a term usually applied to the consideration and passage of measures having for their object the improvement of the machinery of government, the better protection of individual rights, the better distribution of taxation, the better administration of justice; and "a statesman" was a man to whom party, and the offices in its gifts, were simply bits of machinery for the embodiment of certain ideas in legislation. Not long after that year the new school, of which Mr. Boutwell was an active leader, triumphed, and they made "politics" what it is now—the art of multiplying and distributing offices. They created as many as possible, and made them elective and the terms short, and in this way gave a "politician" full occupation in getting himself chosen or getting his friends chosen, and preparing for re-election, so that he had no time left for the consideration of questions of government. The result was that, as we all know, the old breed of statesmen which began with the framers of the Constitution, and some few members of which have survived until our own day, who studied subjects, and had ideas, which they urged, and to which they were devoted, about taxation, and currency, and foreign policy, and civil and criminal jurisprudence, have disappeared from the political arena. The modern politician is a man who takes care not to have ideas of his own on any subject; he has as many of the ideas of his party as it requires him to have, but not one to spare, and advocates them as long as it calls upon him to do so; but *personal* connection of a public man with certain lines of policy is rare, and grows rarer. We consequently have leading "statesmen"—Mr. Conkling is a good specimen of them—who control the politics of great States, exert a powerful influence on the Administration, and wield its patronage, and hold a first claim to its leading offices, who have never been the authors or promoters of any measures of legislation, and have never been prominently connected with any particular set of opinions or with any great question, home or foreign. Their sole business is the management of canvasses and elections and the conduct of intrigues and counter-intrigues. To this class Mr. Boutwell belongs, and he does it credit. He is shrewd, adroit, hard-

headed, sure of his game in all political manœuvres, an expert manager of the men he has to deal with, and a profound disbeliever in any experience or generalization outside his own walk. He managed his little store honestly and successfully, without the aid of books on finance, and he got to be Governor of Massachusetts without studying the science of government, and it is not wonderful that it was impossible to convince him during his stay in the Treasury that there was anything, of which he was ignorant, tha tit would be well for him to know. It would be interesting, and we think it would be easy if we had the space to spare for it, to show that his policy with regard to the public debt, and the curious jumble of ideas about the currency which he has more than once produced in speeches and lectures, are those which one might expect *à priori* to grow up in the mind of a frugal and upright retail dealer.

Mr. Boutwell's appointment as Minister of Finance at a peculiarly trying time was, however, explicable by reference to his singularly successful political career, which would naturally make an impression on the mind of a man as new to civil affairs as General Grant was. The selection of his successor is very much less so. Mr. Richardson was a country lawyer, filling the honorable office of judge of probate in a country town, when Mr. Boutwell carried him to Washington as Assistant-Secretary of the Treasury. His financial training must have begun at this period, and it can hardly be said to have been begun under a great master. It is, therefore, not wonderful that, when he was left in possession of the Treasury, we should have been treated to the series of indiscretions and mistakes and bits of vacillation which have culminated in the "resumption" in silver of which the newspapers are making so much fun. We have no desire to give pain to as worthy a man as we believe Mr. Richardson to be; but he must himself see that he is in his present position greatly out of place, and he must see, too, that the school of financiers to which he and Mr Boutwell belong is hardly suited to the situation in which we find ourselves. We trust, too, that the rumor that the President is going to put in a great merchant who is familiar with the operations of trade and the laws which regulate the flow and value of money, is well founded. Political financiers are in our day a bad bargain, and no man is fitted to be the finance minister of a country like this, whose foreign commerce amounts to a thousand millions per annum, and which uses several hundred millions of foreign capital, who is not as familiar with the processes and conditions of international exchange as with his multiplication table.

ENGLAND.

LONDON, October 17, 1873.

THERE is one amusement which never seems to pall among English-speaking races, and that is what is called in Africa palavering. Englishmen of all sorts and condifions dearly love "playing at Parliament," and as an actor always goes to the play when he is not on the stage, a member of Parliament in the brief vacation is never so happy as when he is addressing somebody or other on public affairs, or assisting at the discussion of a "congress." When all has been said about their fussy and pragmatical airs, and their visionary programmes, it must be added that their congresses do bring a number of active and able minds together, intent upon the solution of the most interesting and important problems of civilization, and that they contribute in no mean measure to the promotion of that energetic public spirit and disinterested enthusiasm for the commongood which are the life and soul of public liberty, and the secret of stability in modern societies and institutions. Our Social Science Congress is gathering to itself year after year more and more of the thoughtful wisdom and good-will of unprofessional and even professional politicians. Its papers are more and more direct and practical in their aims, and it would not be difficult to point to its peaceful conquests on the statute-book. The Church Congress is a neutral territory, upon which High and Low, Ritualist and Evangelical, are invited to meet and confer with distinguished laymen upon the modes and means of promoting the interests and developing the influence of the pulpit and the altar among all ranks of society, and replacing a church-rate by voluntary devotion. It was impossible not to perceive in the general current of the papers and addresses an uneasy consciousness that, in spite of the splendor of the new ecclesiastical edifices throughout the country, of the proposed benefactions of wealthy and powerful patrons of the revival of ecclesiastical fervor, and of the feverish activity and ardor of the rival schools of theology, the days of the Establishment were numbered, and that its internal dissensions were rending it to pieces. The Bishop of Oxford is painfully anxious to disabuse the working-classes of the notion that the Church is on the side of the landowner and the capitalists in questions of wages and strikes; and Canon Girdlestone, who has proved himself the practical friend of the poor agricultural laborer, strengthened the Bishop's appeal to popular sympathies by the evidence of his own example. The prevailing opinion of the Congress was in favor of a benevolent neutrality, or rather a wise abstention from interference in secular disputes. Mr. Freeman, the historian, who is nothing if not archæological, insisted on the restoration of cathedrals to their ancient importance, whether in their offices of public worship or as centres of theological learning and discipline. But the most palpable hit was made by a Manchester alderman, who, fortified by his own experience as a tradesman, urged the bishop and clergy to "go in for" showy and attractive ritual, candles, vestments, incense, processions, and the rest of it, while the Hildebrand of the west country, Archdeacon Denison, unhappily thrown away upon a Somersetshire parish, called a meeting of his own by special ticket to protest against his own bishop's authority in withdrawing the license of a Romanizing curate, and shook a cudgel at the head of a speaker of opposite views who had somehow or other found his way into the company, and had the audacity to rise to propose an amendment.

These episodes and diversions made the Church Congress much livelier than the Social Science gathering; but whether weak brethren were edified by the proceedings, or the respect of the "masses" was conciliated by the Archdeacon's rebellious and despotic cudgel, is quite another question. The meetings of the Congressional and the Baptist Unions, which followed the Church Congress, were less dramatic in their incidents, and perhaps less remarkable for the culture and quality of their audiences; but, at all events, they met and parted in peace and harmony, and more in the spirit of primitive Christians than of a mediæval council. When, indeed, one compares these ecclesiastical and congregational parliaments with the British Association for the Advancement of Science, one is struck with the utter and fantastic unreality that pervades the former, and the perfect clearness and calmness of the latter's motions and debates. There is a need of faith as of love in the instincts of mankind which the representatives of the Church and her sects altogether fail to satisfy; there is a need of wider knowledge of nature's laws, to which the representatives of science appeal without exciting derision, even when, as sometimes happens, the physiologists or the geographers are not quite agreed. The most interesting paper at the Bradford meeting was Dr. Ferrier's account of his investigations into the functions of the brain, and his discovery, by a series of dissections, of the localized action of certain portions of the brain upon the nervous system and those muscular movements which in mankind are classified as operations of the will. Captain Markham's arrival lent a vivid interest to the discussions in the Geography Section on Arctic research, and especially the *Polaris* expedition.

Politics proper have not subsided into quiescence during the recess. It has been an unusually active season of electioneering, and the result of the contests at Bath and Taunton has revived the drooping spirits of Ministerialists, if it has not restored confidence to the Cabinet. Captain Hayter's success at Bath, however, was in point of fact a success of local influence skilfully plied, of electioneering tactics, and of the personal popularity of the candidate. Mr. Forsyth, his Conservative opponent, is an accomplished scholar and a successful lawyer; but he is rather a chamber counsel than an advocate, and more like a learned professor than a lawyer who goes into the House of Commons to qualify himself by party services and speeches for promotion. Don't believe that Mr. Disraeli's slashing letter to "My dear Grey," in the style of an election speech of fifty years ago, and probably not intended for publication, had anything to do in "turning the tide" against the Tory candidate. The tide was turned already, for Bath is essentially a Radical borough, and party spirit runs high there upon occasion. I am as far as possible from admiring the virulent, confidential rhetoric of the leader of the Opposition, but I much doubt whether even its publication was so mistaken as the Liberals suppose. It sums up, in a few stinging sentences that will stick in the average British elector's memory, a great many items of the dissatisfaction and discontent that do undoubtedly prevail far and wide in the country, and even in Liberal constituencies. The army, the navy, the universities, the charitable foundations, the shipping interest, the railway interest, the licensed victuallers, the farmers, the working-classes, the Church, and the Nonconformists, are all for various and perhaps contradictory reasons disaffected towards the Cabinet. Mr. Gladstone is perhaps paying the penalty of the prodigious popularity that swept him into power five years ago, and still more of the incessant and nauseous adulation of his organ in the London press. The rationalistic and philosophic section of the Liberal party dislike his theological and ecclesiastical tastes and twang;

ardent Protestants dislike his casuistry and his coquettings with ultramontanism in Ireland; and all the propertied classes distrust his restless and disturbing passion for change, and feel the ground crumbling beneath them just as long as he remains in power. The average Englishman prefers stability and security to all things, and he believes Mr. Gladstone's régime to be fatal to stability and security. And as to the rest of the Cabinet, they are pretty generally regarded as sentimentalists or prigs, and it is hard to decide which of these two categories the British elector hates most. Of course, there is extreme injustice, exaggeration, and unreasonableness in many of these grievances and complaints. I content myself with recording their existence.

The victory of Mr. James, the new Solicitor-General, at Taunton, was a genuine triumph for the Government, in the face of a most unfair and unusual contest for a seat vacated by his acceptance of a law office. But it must not be forgotten that Mr. James has shone in Parliament rather for his independence than for his devotion to Mr. Gladstone, and has not only conspicuously differed from the Government, but from an extreme section of the Liberal party, upon more than one point. He has partly won his promotion by his success at the bar and, what is much rarer in a lawyer, his extraordinary success in a Parliament where he has shown himself something more and better than a *nisi-prius* orator. His pleasant personal qualities have won him many friends among all parties, and he is a favorite at his club and in London society, as he is at Taunton, where he appeared for the first time five years ago, unknown except as a rising barrister. His opponent the other day is a gallant officer, who served with much distinction in the Crimea; he belongs to an old Somersetshire family, in the neighborhood of Taunton, and his father was one of the most popular leaders of the Western bar. But he himself is scarcely capable of putting two sentences or two ideas together when he is on his legs; he resides in London, and has really no local influence at Taunton; and he incurred some ridicule by being attended during his electoral contest by a spokesman, in the shape of Mr. Alfred Austin, a poet and a journalist of considerable merit, but who had also been an unsuccessful candidate in former years at Taunton. He complains, it seems, that a hundred and more Tories who promised to vote for him stayed away from the ballot urns. No doubt they repudiated the sharp practice of contesting a seat under such circumstances, and sacrificed their principles to a love of fair play.

The coming political event is the speech which Mr. Bright has undertaken to deliver to his constituents at Birmingham next week. It will probably disappoint his Radical constituents; for Mr. Bright not only feels the responsibilities of office, but the risks of over-exertion and excitement to a shattered nervous system. The plain fact is that he has never fully recovered from the attack which compelled his retirement into private life, and that he is neither equal to public speaking nor to ministerial functions. His motives in joining the Cabinet at this critical moment, with an odious and lamentable Ashantee war on hand, and an unsettled quarrel with the Nonconformists, must be supremely disinterested; how far he will strengthen a shaky administration remains to be proved.

Correspondence

"DARWINISM" AND NATURALISTS.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: As the *Nation* has done me the unexpected honor to notice my views, or supposed views, on Darwinism in two distinct articles in its number of October 16, I may claim permission, not on personal grounds, but in the interests of science, to say a few words on a subject which seems to be of some interest to your readers, and which I regard as of no little present importance.

In the discussion in the Evangelical Alliance mentioned in your "Notes," the question put to me was not whether I believed in the Darwinian theory, but whether that theory is necessarily antagonistic to Holy Scripture. In answer, I stated that the doctrine of evolution, when carried out to its full and logical consequences, appeared to me to be subversive even of theism; but that Darwinism, as expounded by its great author, seemed to require the creation of at least a few species. I further stated that natural selection, as applied to the origin of varieties and races, has an unquestionable scientific value, though its importance, even in this, is probably overrated by its enthusiastic advocates; but that, as applied to the origin of species and of man, it is not only opposed to the Biblical account of creation, but destitute of scientific proof. These theses I endeavored to support by such illustrations as occurred to me at the moment, at the same time cautioning my auditors against the error that all species received by naturalists must necessarily be good species in the sense of separate creations, and also against attributing to the writer of Genesis the doctrine that all species were produced in the same way, which cannot be fairly inferred from his words. Of course the short newspaper reports could not give any perfect notion of this line of treatment, and the portions of sentences you have quoted give no clue to my meaning.

To the temperate condemnation of my little popular book, the 'Story of the Earth,' by your reviewer I can make no objection, except that under the title of the "Attitude of Working Naturalists towards Darwinism," one would have expected a reference to other publications than those he has treated of. More especially I would commend to his attention the crushing refutation of the theory of derivation in Barrande's recent memoir on the Trilobites, the author of which, as a palæontologist, certainly stands at least on a level with any of those whose somewhat timid support of this theory your reviewer eulogizes. Even in my own case he might have referred, under the heading which he has chosen, not so much to the statements made in a popular work, and in reference merely to the application of evolution to the case of man, but to my argument as a "working naturalist" in my memoirs on the Post-pliocene shells and the Devonian plants, as to which, if I am not mistaken, he would have found himself, as a successful scientific worker, more at home than in the treatment of the question whether our remote ancestors were apes.

J. W. Dawson.

McGill College, Montreal, Oct. 28, 1873.

THE SAMANA BAY COMPANY.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: An editorial article upon the Samana Bay Company in your paper of the 23d inst. contains some errors of fact, which you will allow me to correct; and some errors of opinion, which you will perhaps permit me to controvert.

The gist of your article is this: "That the barbarous population of the interior of Santo Domingo are now in arms against him [President Baez], and threaten to descend on Samana Bay and clean out the intruders, as they regard them, to whom he has conveyed so much Dominican soil"; that Baez cannot defend the Company to which he has granted such wonderful privileges; that therefore the Company is urging our Government to protect them. This is erroneous as a whole, and erroneous in all of its parts. The "barbarous population of the interior" are not now, and have not been, in arms against Baez. You have been misled, probably by reports spread purposely by parties in Hayti, who have an interest to be promoted by misleading our press, and do mislead it systematically. You suggest the idea that the Company's possessions and its settlers have been in danger of being assailed and driven out by the barbarous population of the interior of Santo Domingo, and of course will always be so endangered. This idea, put forth by an authority so eminent as yours, may do the Company harm; and, as it is not justified by facts, should be corrected. The Company has difficulties enough to overcome in shape of stern realities at home, and should not have added to them any in the shape of popular prejudice and groundless apprehensions. The facts are as follows: In August last, a small band of Dominican exiles and roving military adventurers, with which those regions swarm, congregated in Hayti, with the purpose of getting up an invasion of Santo Domingo, and, if possible, provoking an insurrection. As usual, they found aid and comfort in that country. Some of freebooting tastes, joined by a few Haytians, crossed the mountains into the territory of Santo Domingo; others, filibusters of piratical turn, went along the coast by boats, all plundering as they went. They gathered in the western province, which has long been debatable land or disputed territory; and induced, by threats and promises, some Dominican chiefs and starving soldiers to join them, and attempted an expedition into the province of Sebao.

I have a letter from President Baez dated Santo Domingo, September 25, in which he says: "To counteract American influence, which Hayti does not know to be so small as it appears to be, the Haytian Government has again attempted to suborn some of the military chiefs of the northeast. The defection of a few of these, bought by Haytian money (or that of some other power), and the actual presence in said territory of some insurgents, armed and equipped, caused from the fourth to the fifth of the month an alarming state of affairs in the Sebao. Nevertheless, our troops and the population, always loyal to our Government, came to the rescue; and on the 11th, after three bloody and decided attacks, all of those not killed, wounded, or prisoners fled precipitately over the border into Hayti." "The arms of our Government triumphed completely; and in six days after there was no vestige seen here of that so-called rebellion organized abroad with so much care and cost."

Private correspondents confirm this statement. All has been quiet ever

since. Moreover, the Peninsula of Samana was not endangered or even threatened. The disturbances were in a distant province. No settler in Samana dreamed of any danger; least of all, that of being "cleaned out." Owing to its location and configuration, the Peninsula is impregnable against any but a regular and formidable army, supported by a fleet. Besides, its inhabitants, who are mostly descendants of colored settlers and refugee slaves from the United States, are unanimously and earnestly in favor of the occupation of the Peninsula by the Company. So strong is the feeling among them that their prosperity and all their interests will be protected by the Company, that they would, if need be, resist all invaders—even Baez himself.

Next, you say that "as Baez has not even the power to protect the Company," they are "urging our Government to do so," and that "Dr. Howe, Mr. Fabens, and Mr. O'Sullivan have come to Washington to urge our Government to protect them."

First, the Company possessions have not been endangered or even threatened. Second, they have not appealed to Baez for protection against invasion. Third, they have not appealed to our Government to do so. Dr. Howe has not had the misfortune to be in Washington for two years, and trusts to be long spared from being there. Mr. O'Sullivan has no more to do with the management of the Company than your "devil" has, perhaps a trifle less. Mr. Fabens was in Washington, but with no such purpose.

Finally, you say "that the Company should imitate its great prototype, the East India Company, and defend itself, sword in hand, against the barbarians. If it does, we shall all be proud of it." Precisely so; and if the Company gets extricated from its present embarrassment at home, and selects out of the thousands of eager applicants for emigration only two hundred sturdy Yankees, and fairly settles them on the Peninsula with their ploughs and their rifles, I trust that they will defend it from all barbarians, and all others, and that they will make you "proud of them." If they do not, I shall be ashamed of them. Respectfully,

SAMUEL G. HOWE.

BOSTON, October 28, 1873.

[We can say truly that we are heartily glad that the story, which we found in a despatch to the Boston *Advertiser*, is not true, and wish the Company all possible success, as long as it is content to take care of itself. We were ready to believe that it was seeking relief at Washington, owing to Dr. Howe's, avowal in his letter to the *Tribune* last January, that he was eager for annexation, and rejoiced over the formation of the Company as "quasi-annexation." —ED. NATION.]

THE GENEVA AWARD.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: There is one consideration which your correspondent, in the *Nation* of Oct. 23, does not mention, and yet it is one which should have some weight with those who argue this question of the rights of insurers from a premium standpoint. A very large proportion of the marine insurance of this country—so large as to make the rest hardly worth mentioning—is done upon the mutual plan, so that the owners of the vessels and cargoes lost were really their own insurers. This fact, brought out very clearly by one underwriter in a letter to the *Economist*, it seems to me very effectually disposes of the argument that the underwriters made money by the increased premium. If this increased premium had not been necessary to pay the losses, it would have been returned to the men who paid it in scrip dividends. Every dollar paid by the Government, therefore, to the mutual marine insurance companies, goes directly back to the very men who paid these war premiums, and, as every year's business is kept by itself, there would be no difficulty in determining to whom the money from any one of these claims belongs.

I only offer these suggestions for the use of those persons whose reasoning powers are unable to grasp the moral questions involved in an appropriation, by the nation, of money awarded in trust for the payment of specified claims. EDITOR INSURANCE JOURNAL.

HARTFORD, CONN., Oct. 28.

[The present members of mutual insurance companies are not, however, the men who lost their ships during the war, and to reimburse these or their heirs, the old accounts would, contrary to the practice of these companies, have to be reopened. An act was, we believe, passed by the last Legislature of this State, authorizing the New York Mutual Companies to take this course.—ED. NATION.]

A NOTE FROM DR. HALL.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the *Galaxy* of the current month, which reached me this morning, I find myself coupled with your estimable paper in an article which I need not characterize. "A writer who is allowed to use the columns of a journal of the *Nation's* position, and, above all, of its pretensions, has deemed Dr. Hall's book ['Recent Exemplifications of False Philology'] worthy of careful attention and even of commendation." Of this serious fact the public is admonished by Mr. Richard Grant White, and I trust that, in consideration of the *nexus* thus indicated, you will allow me the privilege of a few lines touching that singular phenomenon of urbanity.

Mr. White, some time ago, in a letter communicated to a journal of your city—a letter which he very credibly states that you declined to admit into your columns—compared my above-named work (the success of which has rather surprised me) to the barking of a pregnant, toothless bitch:

"Tantidem, quasi foeta canes, sine dentibu' latrat."

In the article before me, I am said to exhibit myself as "simply a man born without the sense of decency, and in whose nature self-conceit takes the place of self-knowledge"; and I am called "the Yahoo of literature, one of those creatures who, if encountered at all, must be handled without gloves, and—uncleanly task—'polished off' for the benefit of society." If this be the language of gentlemen, be my portion with—the ladies. Moreover: "Measured from the depth of his meanness to the height of his impudence, he is, indeed, an enormous creature." Can Mr. White believe that this kind of writing ever harmed any one but the person who indulged in it? Respecting a point where Mr. White and his clients have not the least conception of my very obvious meaning, the following conversational estimates of me are adduced: "The fellow is an ass," and "The man's a spluttering idiot. His evidence isn't worth a rush." Once more, as if to discredit me, I am represented as a "Vermont Yankee" and as "this Yankee pink of Anglicists." It is not of the slightest consequence, most assuredly, whether I am a Yankee or not; but it is worth while to be sure of the veracity of an assertion, even regarding so unimportant a matter as the place of my birth; and the fact happens to be that I am a native of New York.

To Mr. White I have never applied one unseemly epithet, and it lies quite beyond his ability to move me in any degree to imitate his bad example. His behavior under scarification is by no means a model of dignity or even of fortitude. As to my numerous criticisms, he and his aids have not invalidated a single one of them. This I intend to show at my leisure, and, besides, that they have often misunderstood me, and often misrepresented me. My 'Modern English,' copies of which go to America with this letter, is studded with incidental strictures on Mr. White's shallow philology, and these, in the meanwhile, will enlighten heedful readers afresh on the character of his critical pretensions. In a letter from him which you have published, he predicts that this book of mine "cannot fail to be an interesting one." I thank him for his favorable anticipation; and, in return, I wish him a speedy restoration to that peace of mind, serenity of temper, and dispassionateness of judgment by which it was benevolently inspired.

Your obedient servant, FITZEDWARD HALL.

HILL HOUSE, MARLESFORD, WICKHAM MARKET, Oct. 8, 1873.

Notes.

WE are requested to announce for Messrs. A. S. Barnes & Co. that their projected *International Review* will appear six times a year, being changed from a quarterly to a bi-monthly.——There are fifteen Brazilian students at Cornell, mostly pursuing courses in mechanical and civil engineering. They appear to have united in establishing a monthly journal in the Portuguese language, called *Aurora Brasileira*, with a view to its circulation in their native country. Sr. H. de Aquino is the editor. The first number is chiefly filled with the proceedings at the local celebration of the independence of Brazil on the 7th September, and the editor furnishes a poem on the same subject. Prof. Ch. Fred. Hartt begins a series of articles on Indian (Tupí) myths. There is an earnestness about this literary venture which recommends it pleasantly.——We have received from Scribner & Co. the first number of Mrs. M. M. Dodge's magazine for children, *St. Nicholas*. In appearance it recalls, though it hardly equals, the regretted *Riverside Magazine*, and the publishers have borrowed from the same model a bad feature along with the best. We refer to the illustrations of Mr. Stephens, which are feeble in wit, false in drawing, and vulgar in tone. Experience will doubtless show that it is difficult to conduct a magazine of this sort so as to suit at once children who can only read large-letter monosyllables and those who have begun the study of German.——Professor W. F. Allen's

selected catalogue of the Tank Library, now forming part of the Wisconsin Historical Society's Library, has been printed separately from the Society's catalogue. It describes by title and otherwise the principal works in Dutch History, Books of Travel, and General History. Mr. Motley's authorities are carefully pointed out.——The Fifth Annual Report of the Peabody Academy of Science records some very important additions to the Museum, such as remains of the Mound Builders in the Mississippi Valley; stone and bone implements from the prehistoric sites of Denmark and the Swiss Lakes; the very large and valuable collection of relics of the stone age in New Jersey, given by Dr. Charles C. Abbott of Trenton; some casts of ancient Mexican sculptures, etc., etc. "Such public institutions in the county [of Essex] as are willing to provide proper accommodations and are desirous of forming local museums," will receive what duplicate specimens the Museum can spare.——Ginn Bros. announce an edition of Balfour Stewart's 'Elementary Physics,' with questions and exercises by Prof. G. A. Hill.——Mr. William F. Poole, the accomplished librarian of the Cincinnati Public Library, formerly of the Boston Athenæum, has accepted a call to the Public Library of Chicago, his work of organization being nearly over at the former institution, and his talents in this direction being greatly needed at the latter. We dare say he shares the reluctance which Cincinnati naturally manifests in parting with him.——It appears that the newspapers were mistaken in saying that Professor W. W. Goodwin, of Harvard, had resigned his position in that university. He has, we believe, been allowed an indeterminate leave of absence, and will for some time to come reside in some part of Southern Europe, where his wife will seek restoration to health.

—In answer to several enquiries, we would state that Mr. Dorman B. Eaton's pamphlet on the New York judiciary may be procured of Mr. James Miller, 647 Broadway (price, ten cents). A correspondent, writing from Norwich on this subject, says: "I wish to call attention to a statement at the beginning of the pamphlet, which is not literally correct, and that is, that prior to 1846 all the judges in every State were appointed and not elected. In Connecticut, the judges have always been elected by the General Assembly. In the first settlement of the State, all judicial powers were vested in the General Assembly. In 1711, a Superior Court of five judges was constituted, consisting of the deputy governor and four assistants annually appointed by the legislature. Under various modifications, the system was continued until 1818, the members of the Court being, however, annually appointed by the General Assembly. In the Constitutional Convention of 1818, the question most warmly discussed was the election of judges and their tenure of office. It was finally fixed 'during good behavior,' though attempts were made to fix the term at five years, or three years, or during the pleasure of the General Assembly. The limitation of age was seventy years. The judges were elected by the General Assembly under this provision until 1857, when their term of office was fixed at eight years. It will thus be seen that the judges were never appointed in Connecticut except by the election of the legislature. The advocates of constitutional reform in this State allege that an election by the legislature is the worst system that can be devised, as it gives more chance for political trading than any other."

—It is said that there are no text-books to be recommended for students in zoölogy. This is the refrain of Mr. Agassiz's lecture on "The Structure and Growth of Domesticated Animals," published by the Massachusetts Board of Agriculture, and just reprinted in the November number of the *American Naturalist*, and also of other such discourses. Why have we not had, why may we not have, such text-books? In other departments of natural history—in geology, mineralogy, vegetable chemistry, physiology, and botany, we are fairly well supplied with American text-books, which are highly esteemed and much used in the Old World as well as at home. There is no lack of zoölogists, comparatively, at least. Those capable of doing useful work greatly outnumber the botanists. Are they doing their duty in this respect? Much is said, and justly (as in the address above referred to), of the importance and the duty on the part of the community of cherishing and supporting scientific men, especially zoölogists, that they may do their work in research and education. It seems to us that no secondary part of this work and of their duty is the preparation of fit elementary treatises, and their maintenance at the proper level in successive editions. We repeat what we had occasion to remark the other day, that "there is too much disposition among scientific men in this country to look upon the work of popularizing science as something altogether beneath the dignity of the professional investigator, and thus to abandon the field to such third-rate men as publishers may chance to pick up"; and then, we may add, to disparage or endeavor to dispense with all text-books, because poor ones have naturally sprung up like weeds in the fallow ground which should have been preoccupied with better.

—The past summer has been an unprecedentedly dull one among the journalists, owing chiefly to the stand taken by the *Tribune* with regard to the "ball of discussion." The early autumn, however, has been enlivened by a vigorous argument as to the relative merits of the Louisville *Courier-Journal* and the London *Times*. Mr. Henry Watterson, the editor of the *Courier-Journal*, has been travelling in England during this summer, and has written home a number of letters in which he has complained warmly of the dulness of the British press. Since his return, he has also made an address on American journalism. The London *Times*, he hints, would compare unfavorably with many a Southwestern journal for vigor, point, and that peculiar kind of humor which the sons of the Southwest know as "being spicy." But the great difficulty with the *Times* is its impersonality. It is owned, edited, and written, no one knows by whom; and we imagine, though Mr. Watterson does not say so, that he finds it hard to understand how newspapers managed in this way can live. Mr. Watterson has a very high opinion of journalism as a profession, and thinks that Shakespeare, if he were living now, would be editing a paper somewhere. Going over in his mind the list of the successors of Shakespeare, it has occurred to him, he says, that it is a little singular "that a man of such varied and large resources, of such vigorous, current, and racy faculties, as Dion Boucicault, should be comparatively a poor man, wandering about the world and writing plays, when he might be, had he bent himself that way, the editor of the London *Times*." This suggestion at once brought "G. W. S.," of the *Tribune*, into the discussion, he saying that Mr. Watterson is totally mistaken, and that Mr. Dion Boucicault could never have been editor of the *Times*, because, though he has many talents, that gentleman has neither judgment, steadiness, nor a sense of responsibility; is a conspicuous member of that band of Bohemians, to be found all over the world, who possess in perfection the opposite of these qualities—who have "wit, and some culture, plenty of knowledge of the wrong side of the world, views on all questions, and a familiar acquaintance with the arts which make life a failure"; and, finally, that Mr. Boucicault, had he been editor of the *Times*, would have "edited the *Times* into bankruptcy in a twelvemonth."

—The controversy, which had previously seemed a little abstract, now began to have a human interest. The assertion that he was a Bohemian, and had no judgment, steadiness, or sense of responsibility Mr. Boucicault might have possibly passed over; but the insinuation that had he been editor of the London *Times* he would have edited it into bankruptcy in a twelvemonth, touched him closely; and he has written a letter to the *Tribune*, "for his own hand," in which he says that, with reference to the charge that he has so unsteady, reckless, and Bohemian a mind as to unfit him for the discharge of such important and serious functions as those of editing the *Times*, he is obliged to admit the charge to be true. "I have neither the ability nor the conscience," he adds, "to direct the great English newspaper, for it requires the ability to adopt and sustain any set of opinions that may be popular and salable at any given moment, and the conscience to reconcile the art of tergiversation with a character for sound judgment, moral steadiness, and a sense of responsibility." He then proceeds to give a searching comparative analysis of the career of the *Times* and himself since the beginning of the century, and shows conclusively that while he has been engaged in elevating the position of the drama, or rather of dramatic literature, the *Times* has been steadily engaged in degrading journalism to the lowest level. This interesting discussion is still going on, and whatever may have been the character of the English press three months ago with regard to impersonality, it must certainly be admitted that its position is being rapidly changed; for between Mr. Watterson's denials and "G. W. S.'s" assertions we are getting now not only weekly instalments of the personal history of the large number of gentlemen who might have been connected with the London press had their minds tended that way, but of the actual editors, owners, and writers as well, with all of whom, it seems, "G. W. S." is on terms of intimacy, which, if it did not seem so very open, we should say was very close.

—"Mark Twain" has been lecturing in London on the Sandwich Islands with very good success, his object being, as he says, to assuage the rabid and devouring thirst for information on this subject with which the public mind is consuming itself. The delivery of the lecture has given the English newspapers reason to reflect for perhaps the fiftieth time on that attractive topic, American humor, and they seem now to be getting a good deal nearer a comprehension of the matter than they have been before. Hitherto, it seems to have been assumed that any American who made another American publicly laugh was a humorist, and we have been assured that we produce a greater number of them annually than any other people in this world. It did undoubtedly make some persons rub their eyes to be told that the list of American humorists includes not merely the names of such men as Lowell, Holmes, or Irving, but those of "A. Ward," "Mark

Twain," "Josh Billings," and their imitators; but we did our best to believe that the critics on the other side were right. Now, however, some considerations seem to have occurred to them which had occurred to us before, and which may materially modify the general Anglo-Saxon view on this subject. Those considerations are that the classification of all persons who make us laugh as humorists is a little too broad, and that there are other classifications which in future criticisms may be found of great use. The English language possesses not merely the word humorist, but the words wit, satirist, wag, buffoon, jester, merry-andrew—all of which have different meanings; and it formerly possessed another word, which the late Artemus Ward was in the habit of applying with great enjoyment and descriptive force to himself—the good old Saxon word, fool. All these words, however, are fit for use, and as the long list of "humorists" is continually increasing ("Max Adeler," "Bill Arp," and the "Danbury Newsman" are three of the later additions), a discriminating employment of them at home and abroad will be likely to meet a "long-felt public want."

—Mr. Thomas Nast is this autumn and winter delivering lectures which he illustrates with what his great predecessor, Hogarth, would call "caracaturas," drawn by him in presence of his audience. They naturally are pleased with this new feature of our popular American entertainment, and the course of illustrated lectures bids fair to be profitable to the lecturer, and profitable, let us trust, to his hearers and spectators. We believe his topic is American humor, and we hear it said that his favorite specimens he draws from the Western newspapers. One of the best of the kind that we have ever seen is the following. It is told in the Cincinnati *Gazette* about a gentleman named Bennett, now with the departed, we believe, but once a city editor of the Cincinnati *Enquirer*. It is well known in the profession that sometimes it happens that there is absolutely no news whatever, and also that, in spite of this destitution, the various news departments must be filled with the usual fulness. It is under such circumstances that a city editor reveals whether or not he is a man of enterprise. Our Mr. Bennett was; though he appears to have had less versatility than is commonly displayed by persons in his way of life. His regular plan, when news was scarce, was to make small children—offspring of the brain alone—fall from the Newport ferry-boat into the Ohio River, where they would certainly have perished had it not been for the gallantry of a gentleman standing near, who plunged in and rescued them, this gentleman always being some personal friend of Mr. Bennett's, whom he thus delighted to honor. They, however, or some of them, began by-and-by to cease enjoying this distinction, and one of them, a Mr. Kellum, who had several times figured as a saviour of perishing innocents, demanded that the joke should not be repeated. He was assured that his request, though it must have seemed proof of a curiously sensitive disposition, should be complied with, and complied with it was. For on the following day Mr. Kellum read in the *Enquirer* that on the day previous a beautiful little girl, the child of a prominent citizen of Newport, had fallen from the Newport ferry-boat into the river, and that Mr. Kellum, who was standing near by, and who could have rescued the child from a watery grave, refused to render the slightest assistance. Naturally, Mr. Kellum forthwith betook himself to the *Enquirer* office, where he arrived boiling over with rage, and proceeded to make the most severe threats as to what he would do with Mr. Bennett in case this pleasantry continued. Mr. Bennett, however, pulled off his coat and said, "See here, Kellum, you are not a bad fellow in your way; but I can't stand any interference with my department. If I make any statement in the *Enquirer*, you mustn't come around here contradicting it. That isn't journalism." Mr. Kellum began to see what a mysterious thing journalism is, and it is said that from that time on he and Mr. Bennett were excellent friends. This sort of thing was and is perfectly common throughout the country, though of course the West had and has the most of it—a proof rather of the freedom of Western manners than of any difference between the wit of the West and East, for many of these Western editors have been Eastern men. It is a wonderful development of journalism, and very puzzling to the foreign observer not to the manner born. It is wicked perhaps, but it is amusing too. In all conscience, it is better than the mud-flinging in which some of our eminently respectable newspapers indulge themselves.

—The eighth volume of M. Paul Mesnard's edition of Racine's works has a peculiar value for students of French, as it consists of a complete lexicon of the language of Racine, with a grammatical introduction, and a study of that author's style, besides other interesting information. The sixth and last volume of M. Feuillet de Conches's 'Louis XVI., Marie-Antoinette et Mme. Elisabeth,' from unpublished letters and documents, has appeared. It has two portraits of the Queen, at the height of her splendor and in her wretched captivity. Under the title of 'Types révolutionnaires,' the Comte de Martel publishes a study of Fouché and the Communism practised in 1793, and promises a second volume on the same subject. Fouché held that riches in the hands of individuals are only a trust which the nation has a right to dispose of as it sees fit, and he acted accordingly. 'Les Hommes de la Commune,' by M. Jules Clère, has reached a fifth edition. It is a complete biography of all those who took an official part in the insurrection of the 18th of March. From it, it appears that more than forty members of the Government were under the age of thirty-five, and the majority workingmen, with a large sprinkling of cobblers. The labor question is discussed in the interest of the so-called industrial partnerships by M. Charles Robert in his 'Le Partage des Fruits du Travail—étude sur la participation des employés et ouvriers dans les bénéfices.' The author appeals to experience to prove the advantages of this form of co-operation. While it is admitted that the Revolution and the Restoration did little or nothing for primary education in France, the extent to which public instruction existed before 1789 has been open to debate. For the diocese of Rouen, M. de Beaurepaire has undertaken to show (in three octavo volumes) that schools were abundantly provided for all classes ('Recherches sur l'instruction publique dans le diocèse de Rouen avant 1789'). His work is valuable for its facts, but the inferences to be drawn from them will largely depend upon the reader's opinion of the worth of clerical instruction in the period under review. Another historical study of some value is M. T. Perrens's 'Church and State in France in the Reign of Henry IV. and the Regency of Marie de Médicis.'

—The late King of Saxony will be remembered mainly as a scholar, and his reputation would be a creditable one even for a private man. In 1828, when he was but twenty-seven years old, he printed for private circulation a translation of the first ten cantos of Dante's 'Inferno.' It was the first specimen of a work that occupied him for many years. In 1839, his translation of the whole of the 'Inferno' was published, followed the next year by that of the 'Purgatorio,' and in 1849 the work was completed by the translation of the 'Paradiso.' It appeared anonymously, as the production of one who called himself "Philalethes." The indifference with which Dante had been regarded in Germany up to the beginning of the century, and which finds curious expression in the correspondence of Goethe and Schiller, was beginning to pass away under the influence of the newly aroused historical and critical spirit of the times. Schlegel had done much to direct the attention of the lovers of poetry to the surpassing merits of the great Italian poet. Between 1820 and 1830 the study of Dante in Germany was pursued with great zeal. Two complete translations of the 'Divine Comedy,' those of Kannegiesser and Streckfuss, were published, besides translations of the 'Vita Nuova' and the prose works of Dante. Karl Witte had already begun his series of studies, critical, historical, and explanatory, which long since gave him the place of highest authority among the students of the poet, and secured him the gratitude of future generations of scholars. To this same period belong the useful 'Beiträge für das Studium der Göttlichen Komödie' of Abeken, and the earliest publications of one of the most exact and deserving of the students of Dante, Dr. L. G. Blanc of Halle. The work of Prince John was one of the best fruits of this new zeal in Dantesque studies. In spite of the continued and unflagging interest with which these studies have been pursued, and the additions made to knowledge of all that relates to Dante and his works, the translation by "Philalethes," and the abundant comment that accompanies it, remain among the best contributions that Germany has made to the understanding and appreciation of the 'Divine Comedy.' The translation is in blank verse, and aims at as literal a rendering as is consistent with its form. It has few happy poetic felicities, but it is generally simple, direct, and fluent. It has gone through three editions, the last having appeared, with a modest and touching preface, in 1865–6. The comment is of permanent value, especially the part relating to the 'Paradiso,' from the fulness of its references to the passages in St. Thomas Aquinas and other Schoolmen that illustrate the theological conceptions of the poet. It is excellent, also, from the abundance of its historical notes, and it everywhere displays the result of the patient labor of a careful and serious student. In his preface the Prince acknowledges his obligations to his friend Dr. Carus for assistance in the notes relating to matters of physical science, and to the astronomer Lohrmann in those concerning the stars and their times. But this was not the only assistance he received. He called upon other friends for aid they were pleased to render. Before the translation was given to the public it was carefully revised; and at stated times the Prince would summon to his rooms a company of literary men, to whom he would read a bit of his work for the purpose of receiving their criticism upon it. Among those who were present at these readings were Tieck, Förster, and our own countryman, Mr. Ticknor. The relations between Mr. Ticknor and the Prince were intimate. They were correspondents for some thirty years; there were few friends to whom the King was more attached; and of late years the picture of Mr. Ticknor has hung over his desk in his inner private working-room. The life of a king, even of a king dispossessed of power, is not one in which there is likely to be much room

for studies that withdraw one from practical concerns. In his later years he regretted the giving up of his earlier pursuits. He complained of the decline of literary taste and inclination. There was no literary society left in Dresden. Times were changed since the days when he was busy with Dante. Now men cared only for war and physical science. Philosophy in its higher sense was extinct in Germany.

LESSONS OF THE FRENCH REVOLUTION.*

I.

IN 1789, the National Assembly sat at Versailles making a constitution for France. In 1873, a National Assembly is again sitting at Versailles engaged in the same occupation. In 1792, France destroyed her monarchy and established a republic. In 1873, France appears on the point of destroying her republic and recalling the representative of her ancient kings. These are big salient facts, and, from their paradoxical nature, attract an even undue amount of public attention. It is at any rate natural, if not philosophical, to conclude that the revolutionary efforts of eighty years have been in vain, and that the French people are retracing their steps to the point whence they started in 1789. This is one of those occasions on which a crowd of English writers are certain to moralize on the misfortunes of their neighbors. One author reproaches the French for not having founded a constitution on the model of that of England. Another points out that the calamities of France have arisen from the love of equality. A third traces her ruin to the opposition between the feelings of Paris and the sentiments of the provinces. English critics, in short, with one accord, assume that the French Revolution has totally failed, and thrust forward an explanation of its failure, just as in 1862 English critics were convinced that the American Union had broken to pieces, and explained, in most philosophical language, the causes which made a break-up of the Union inevitable. The Union, as a matter of fact, did not go to ruin, and it would be well if educated Englishmen, who lectured glibly ten years ago on the cause of American ruin, should learn by experience to be a little less ready to deliver homilies over French calamities, which, great as they are, may after all not turn out absolutely irreparable. Lord H. Ormathwaite's work is a feeble and somewhat Pharisaic sermon over the errors and misery of France. It is written with the twofold and not very consistent object of eulogizing the Bonapartes, and of proving that, "had the French been contented to follow the example of England, they had all the materials with which to construct the durable constitutional monarchy, composed, as ours was, of the monarchical, aristocratic, and democratic elements in due proportion to each other." As his lordship never gives any proof that these materials really existed, or affords any real explanation of the reasons why the French did not make use of their supposed advantages, we cannot say that his book effects much towards explaining the course of French politics. Its chief singularity consists in the proof which it gives that an educated Englishman may, with all the experience of eighty years to guide him, look at the Revolution from the point of view which was naturally occupied by Burke, and after all see less far into its nature than did the author of the 'Regicide Peace.' The 'Lessons of the French Revolution,' in short, teaches to our mind scarcely any other lesson than that conservative platitudes which we had supposed to have fallen into disuse, still exert considerable influence over gentlemen educated enough to write them down and ill-informed enough to think them worth publication. The book, however, and others of the same class, derive an interest from the questions they suggest without even giving them an answer. Lord Ormathwaite, and authors of greater ability than he, assume expressly or tacitly that the French Revolution has ended in failure. There is a good deal in the circumstances of the times which suggests this conclusion, whilst there are considerations which make it difficult to adopt this conclusion without reserve. The two enquiries which force themselves upon the mind of any one who considers the condition either of France or of Europe are—first, Has the Revolution failed? secondly, What are the nature and causes of at any rate the appearance of failure?

The grounds which suggest that the Revolutionary movement has missed its mark lie on the surface, and arrest the notice of English and American critics. The immediate object of every Revolutionary leader, from Mirabeau to Robespierre, was to establish the freedom of France. They all were, like Danton, willing enough to do acts by which their reputation might be tarnished, but they all, like him, supposed that by their policy they secured that France should be free. This end has indubitably not been attained. The government of the Duc de Broglie is certainly not the kind of government which any statesman meant to found, and we all know that it is quite on the cards that the government of the Duc de Broglie may be succeeded by exactly that rule of monarchical despotism, supported by priestly bigotry, which all the heroes of the Revolution thought themselves destined to destroy. Nor does the mere failure to found popular government in France measure the whole extent to which the Revolution may be held to have missed its mark. The Legitimist restoration, even should it take place, may probably be a merely transitory phenomenon in French politics. The revived influence of the priesthood is a far more permanent fact, and would seem to any Liberal of 1789 an infinitely more disappointing result of the Revolutionary struggle. All the efforts of the eighteenth century were directed to the spread of enlightenment and the destruction of superstition, and now, when we are approaching the end of the nineteenth century, France may appear to be considerably more superstitious and less enlightened than a hundred years ago. The pilgrimage to Lourdes, the support given by the French Government to all the pretensions of the priesthood, are signs of a state of opinion which would have seemed almost incredible to Voltaire or Rousseau. They and their disciples, one and all, assumed that the power of superstition was, if not dead, on the point of death. They all believed that France was the country destined to give the last blow to priestly tyranny; and of all the predictions which would have seemed to them impossible of fulfilment would have been the prophecy that France should become the last support of the Papacy. If the matter be looked at from a somewhat different point of view, the failure of the Revolution seems even more conspicuous than when you look at the political condition of modern France. The very principles on which the Revolutionists relied have fallen into discredit. All the grand maxims or platitudes which make up the declaration of the rights of man seem to have lost their magic power. The very name of a republic was at one time sufficient to cause excitement throughout Europe. It now is a name with which men can no longer be either charmed or terrified. The French may establish a republic if they like to do so, and no monarch will interpose to prevent them. But if the republic is established, it will be in all probability as humdrum and, so to speak, as commonplace a form of government as any of the constitutional monarchies existing in Europe. Its establishment excites no opposition from monarchs, because it arouses no enthusiasm among their subjects. The grandiloquent maxims and sentiments of the Revolution have suffered a good deal from the errors of their authors, but they have suffered still more from the searching criticism to which for more than eighty years they have been exposed. Any tyro in political philosophy can now expose the fallacy underlying the doctrines of the social contract. Any one who thinks it worth the trouble can point out the errors involved in the assumption that men are born equal, or that the will of the people is the necessary source of sovereignty. The words Liberty, Equality, and Fraternity are still to be seen put up on the public buildings in France. They are a sort of official intimation that France is still a nominal republic. But they no longer stir the feelings even of the multitude. They resemble the formal statement on coins that the English Queen rules *Dei gratia*. This formula had once a definite and important meaning. It now is an historical formula, and nothing more. Suppose, then, for a moment that Mirabeau or Danton could arise from the dead and see the result of his labors. He would find that France is not free, that kings are still powerful, that nations are still superstitious, that the Roman Catholic priesthood hold doctrines which even the priests of 1789 would have called superstitious and yet have acquired a new lease of power, that the grandest maxims of the Revolution have been discredited by critics and hardly command the belief of the populace. His first, if not his last, impression would certainly be that all the heroism, the struggles, and daring of the Revolution had been in vain. He, like modern English critics, would pronounce the greatest effort ever made for the promotion of freedom to have ended in failure.

There is, nevertheless, another side to the picture which is constantly overlooked by Englishmen or Americans. The Revolutionary movement in France is only a part of a great change influencing the whole of the civilized world. This general Revolution, which dates rather from the Declaration of Independence than from the assembling of the States-General, has not yet nearly run out its course. You can no more measure its results by looking solely to the condition of France than you could have determined whether the Reformation had succeeded or not by looking solely to the condition of French Protestantism after the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes. To this must be added, that no great movement which the world has seen has ever produced exactly the result which was looked for by its original authors. No body of men, for example, ever produced greater effects by their labors than did the Pilgrim Fathers; but if the crew of the *Mayflower* could revisit Massachusetts, they would be perplexed to find in modern Boston the realization of the political and religious ideal in search of which they crossed the Atlantic. But when due allowance is made for the extent to which every great movement frustrates the hopes of its originators, it must, we conceive, be admitted that the general Revolutionary movement has not failed of some

* 'Lessons of the French Revolution—1789–1873. By Lord H. Ormathwaite.' London: Richard Bentley & Son.

very marked success. The substance of the Revolutionary doctrines has again and again been obtained when the forms in which these doctrines have been expressed have become discredited. Thus, no dogma has been more attacked than that of the sovereignty of the people, and Lord Ormathwaite, in common with the school to which he belongs, notes a belief in this dogma as one of the special errors of the Revolutionists. The theoretical objections to the doctrine are easily enough perceived. In practice, however, the sovereignty of the people, or something very like it, has become a received axiom throughout Europe and America. Thus, in England no one ever maintains in fact that an institution or law can be permanently supported which runs counter to the deliberate convictions and wishes of the vast majority of the people. Even in states like Prussia or Austria, where the power of the crown is undoubtedly much greater than it has been for nearly two centuries in England, a tacit if not expressed deference to the will of the nation forms part of the doctrine of government. No minister has, in a certain sense, defied the voice of the people so vigorously as Bismarck, yet any one who examines his career will see that the source to which the great German statesman owes his strength is that he has sought the objects which command the strongest sympathies of the whole German Empire. The dogma of popular sovereignty may be denied, but respect to the will of the nation is the rule to which all modern governments, except the Government of France itself, make their policy conform.

In nothing, again, have the Revolutionists in appearance more completely failed than in establishing the equality of mankind. Yet even here the failure has been, perhaps, rather apparent than real. The teachers who wrote or harangued about the equality of man had before their eyes a society which, originally founded on feudalism, exhibited the most marked distinctions of classes. Any student who wants to realize the condition of Europe, say a century ago, should examine the state of Switzerland. The small Swiss republics kept up all the distinctions of classes which had gradually been more or less broken down throughout the rest of Europe. One canton might be a little more liberally governed than another, but wherever the observer looked he would find distinctions of rights depending upon distinctions of birth. Small oligarchies ruled the towns, the towns tyrannized over the country districts, and the greater cantons held the smaller in subjection. Inequality was everywhere the rule. The proclamation of human equality was in effect a protest against a system based on the inequality of classes. The protest has done its work. Such a condition of things as was to be found in Switzerland is now to be found in no corner of Europe. Let any one consider how impossible it would be at the present day to introduce into any civilized nation the rule that the nobility and clergy should be free from the payment of all direct taxes, and then remember that this rule prevailed in France down to 1789, and he will realize that even the doctrines of equality have not been preached in vain for the last eighty years. Nor, again, has the Revolutionary movement really failed in effecting the spread of what was known in the last century as enlightenment. Persons who are astonished at the revival of superstition and the increase in the claims, if not in the power, of the Catholic priesthood, are apt to forget the immense progress made throughout Europe in establishing that freedom of opinion and liberty of discussion which, in the long run, are absolutely fatal to priestly domination. The progress that has been made may be measured by observing how entirely impossible it would be to repeat in any country in Europe transactions which took place as it were quite naturally during the last century. No existing government could hinder, or would think of hindering, the publication of a work such as the famous 'Encyclopædia.' There is not to be found a state in Europe where the tragedy of Calas, or one in any degree like it, could take place. It is safe to publish in Rome itself works which eighty years ago would have exposed their author to prosecution in England. The judge and jury who could scarcely bear with calmness to hear Tom Paine's so-called blasphemies read out in court would have found it hardly possible to look with toleration on works, such as Colenso's criticisms or 'Literature and Dogma,' which now lie on every drawing-room table, and are considered to have rather a religious tendency than otherwise. In many respects, in short, the triumph of what were once termed Revolutionary principles has been so complete that we have ceased to think the principles themselves revolutionary, and underrate the effect of the movement with which they are connected.

Our first enquiry, therefore, leads to a conclusion which, though it may sound paradoxical, is really obvious enough, and is apt to be overlooked only because it is opposed to the prejudices both of extreme Liberals and of ardent Conservatives. The Revolution has, as the best French writers admit, ended in failure, or something very like failure, as regards France herself, and there is too much reason to fear that the fate of France in the 19th century may bear a melancholy resemblance to her fortunes in the 16th century, and that the country which was the apostle of the Revolution may fail in establishing her own freedom, just as the country which was all but the leader in the struggle to reform religion failed in freeing herself from the domination of Rome. But as regards Europe generally, the Revolution has neither failed nor seems likely to fail. Its essential doctrines have spread far and wide, even where the forms in which these doctrines were expressed have been rejected. The question, however, remains, how it has happened that France has failed in her efforts to establish anything like rational freedom. This enquiry is so curious in itself that it deserves separate consideration.

Oldport Days. By Thomas Wentworth Higginson. (Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 1873.)—The announcement immediately below the author's name that the ten heliotype illustrations are from views taken in Newport, R. I., expressly for this work, at once dispels the slight mystification of the catch-title. In so doing, it reveals perhaps too much. These essays, many if not all of which had already appeared in the *Atlantic*, find in Newport only a feeble *nexus*. Five only out of the ten can be fairly said to relate naturally and directly to Newport, while the other five—"An Artist's Creation," "Madame Delia's Expectations," "Sunshine and Petrarch," "A Shadow," and "Footpaths"—have no necessary connection with the place. It is only by reference to the essayist himself that the real unity appears. This notwithstanding, and in spite of a certain thinness in the matter, 'Oldport Days' will generally, we imagine, be found entertaining.

As a novelist, Mr. Higginson was already well known, and we need not detain ourselves with his "Haunted Window" or "Madame Delia's Expectations," of which the gaiety of the one cancels the gloom of the other. As a poet, however, he has less frequently appeared in print, and we have read with interest and attention the versions now put forth of a dozen or so of Petrarch's sonnets. After carefully comparing them with the originals, we feel obliged to say that we get more of Mr. Higginson than of Laura's lover. As accident or faulty judgment would have it, he puts in the forefront the very poorest of his efforts—Sonnet 129. The first line, for instance, is but half a rendering of the Italian:

"O joyous, blossoming, ever-blessed flowers!"

It says nothing of the lucky grasses, the "ben nate erbe," equally with the "Lieti fiori e felici" the object of the poet's apostrophe and envy. The plain which, according to Petrarch, preserves some vestige of Madonna's lovely footstep, according to Mr. Higginson

"—— hold'st her memory in thy leafy bowers."

In the next line the "spring-time" implied in *acerbe* is properly enough expressed, but its repetition immediately afterwards—

"And spring-time's pale and tender violets"—

conveys the false impression that the repetition is Petrarch's also. The same defect, we may here point out, recurs in Mr. Higginson's Sonnet 223 ("Qual donna attende"), which we have marked as one of his best:

"There learn *soft* speech, beyond all poet's skill,
And *softer* silence, and those holy ways."

Petrarch applies no epithet to "speech," and would certainly not have chosen "soft"; while "softer silence" really stands for *'l bel tacere—le beau silence,* or Laura's gift of holding her tongue at the right time. On the other hand, where Petrarch himself repeats, Mr. Higginson has been at needless pains to vary the form. Thus, in the same sonnet, the phrase "Ivi s' impara" ("There thou mayst learn") occurs twice, and is caught up again at the close in "Non vi s' impara," which is here rendered "This none may copy," instead of, more naturally, "Thou mayst not learn," or "Mayst not learn there."

But to return to No. 129. Such blemishes as "*your* towers" for "thy" (spoken of a grove), and "can" for "canst" (joined by "and" to "mirrorest"), have been strangely overlooked in this elaborated version. Finally, the last three lines of the sonnet are neither faithful nor felicitous. Our author is, indeed, seldom notably successful with the climax of the sonnet. In 191:

"O stream too bright to grieve!
Why can I not float with thee at thy call?"

is a weak perversion of:

"Che non poss' io cangiar teco viaggio?"

—"Why can I not exchange courses with thee?" And in general, it must be said of Mr. Higginson's paraphrases that they too often rob the original of its vigor, often strangely overload it with his own conceits, or even obscure the sense altogether. We might have instanced in 129 the translation of *ascolti* (givest ear to) by "*keep'st* her words *for amulets*"; but we will conclude our fault-finding with a few connected examples from 123 ("I' vidi in terra"):

"I once beheld on earth celestial graces,
And heavenly beauties scarce to mortals known,
Whose memory lends nor joy nor grief alone,
But all things else bewilders and effaces.
I saw how tears had left their weary traces
Within those eyes that once *like sunbeams shone*,
I heard those lips breathe low and plaintive moan,
Whose spell might once have taught the hills their places."

For the sentence first italicized, the Italian reads: "Since all I see seems dreams, and shadows, and smoke." In the second case, Laura's eyes did not shine "like sunbeams," but "a thousand times they had filled the Sun with envy." The last line is simply incomprehensible as a version of

"Che farian gir i monti e stare i fiumi"

—"Which (*i.e.* the "moan," not the "lips") would make mountains move and rivers pause."

Here, however, is Mr. Higginson at his best, and with this we take leave of him (Sonnet 261: "Levommi il mio pensiero"):

"Dreams bore my fancy to that region where
She dwells whom here I seek, but cannot see.
'Mid those who in the loftiest heaven be
I looked on her, less haughty and more fair.
She touched my hand, she said: 'Within this sphere,
If hope deceive not, thou shalt dwell with me:
I filled thy life with war's wild agony;
Mine own day closed ere evening could appear.
My bliss no human brain can understand;
I wait for thee alone, and that fair veil
Of beauty thou dost love shalt wear again.'
Why was she silent then, why dropped my hand
Ere those delicious tones could quite avail
To bid my mortal soul in heaven remain?"

A Sketch of the Life and a List of some of the Works of John Singleton Copley. By Augustus Thorndike Perkins, A.M. (Boston: Privately printed: 1873. 4to, pp. 144.)—This book derives its main interest rather from the list than from the memoir, as the latter is but an abridgment for the most part of the life in Allan Cunningham's well-known book. No importance attaches to Copley's pedigree, whether we hold with Burke that the father of the artist was an Irish squireen, or with Hinman we note that there were Copleys in Connecticut of traditionary repute as painters. It is certain that Richard Copley of Boston, whose widow, Mary (Singleton) Copley, administered on his estate in 1748, would have dropped for ever out of mind but for the lucky fact that he left behind him a son, John Singleton, then aged some ten years. In a review of the Exhibition in 1811, a London critic wrote that the father of the artist was parish clerk at Salem. He was undoubtedly a tradesman in Boston, and possibly not a very successful one. His widow seems to have married soon, but at all events she was wedded, May 22, 1748, to Peter Pelham of Boston. Pelham was an artist of considerable ability, a very good engraver, and was an emigrant from London who had resided some twenty years among us. He lived for three years and a half after the date of this marriage, and had one son by Mary Copley.

It is not idle to suppose that Copley derived the rudiments of his art from Pelham. The latter could draw, paint, and engrave, and was therefore able to give all the instruction a boy of fifteen could receive. Pelham published a number of very good mezzotint engravings of the resident clergymen, and in 1753, two years after Pelham's death, Copley published in the same style the portrait of Rev. William Welsteed, signed "J. S. Copley, pinxt et fecit." Copley was, then, no prodigy, but simply an admirable example of the success obtainable by native ability well grounded in the essentials of the art, and imitative solely of nature. It must also be remembered that in drawing and painting portraits the lack of academic instruction would be least perceptible. The portrait-painter is always making variations of one theme, and each picture is a source of instruction in a limited field. It is enough praise to give Copley to say that he pursued his art with industry and intelligence, and that his careful study of nature was rewarded by the power of reproducing his subjects with vigor and grace.

From 1753 to 1774, Copley delineated the faces and figures of his contemporaries with a constantly increasing success in fame and fortune. His after-life belongs rather to the history of English art than of our own, and need not here be discussed. The record of his twenty years of American art-life has been investigated by Mr. Perkins with the results detailed in this volume. The book is a list of about three hundred pictures, arranged according to the names of the persons depicted, in alphabetical order. The greater portion of the pictures have been examined by Mr. Perkins; the remainder have been described by the present possessors. The descriptions of the pictures have a somewhat quaint appearance, as they give the details of the costume and accessories; yet there is little more to be said of any portrait beyond general criticism, and in this case the particularity of the description affords the means of future identification of the pictures. Mr. Perkins has performed most acceptably the task of collecting information in regard to Copley's pictures. Of course there are a few errors and more omissions, all of which can be corrected in another edition. But the main fact remains that he has shown us not only the industry of the artist for twenty years, but the more satisfactory proof of the preservation in this country of so many interesting portraits. So many art-critics are content to give their impression upon inspecting one or two pictures, that it is pleasant to find such an example of patient industry in the accumulation of materials for the history of an artist. We not only respect Mr. Perkins's zeal in cataloguing, but we shall be prepared to confess the value of his judgments when we reflect that he has carefully examined more of Copley's pictures than any other living critic.

It is, of course, impossible to give any description of the contents of the book; but we will mention the names of a few of the more distinguished patrons of the artist: John Adams, John Quincy Adams, Samuel Adams, Thomas Amory, Rev. Nathaniel Appleton, Judge Samuel Barrett, Gov. James Bowdoin, Gen. William Brattle, Rev. Samuel Cooper, John Singleton Copley, and many members of the family, including his son, Lord Lyndhurst, Thomas Fluker, Gov. Moses Gill, Harrison Gray, Thomas Hancock, John Hancock, Rev. Edward Holyoke, Nathaniel Hurd, Gov. Thomas Hutchinson, Henry Laurens, Judge John Lowell, Judge Nymphas Marston, Peter Oliver, Andrew Oliver, *Col.* James Otis, Lady Pepperrell, Josiah Quincy, Samuel Quincy, Paul Revere, Judge Richard Saltonstall, Sir Roger Sheaffe, Sir John Temple, Gen. Joseph Warren, Brook Watson, Sir John Wentworth, Judge Adam Winthrop, and George Washington. Certainly this is a famous list of worthies to be painted by one artist, and we repeat that our thanks are due to the chronicler who has made public the existence of these invaluable illustrations of our national history. As regards Copley's rank as an artist, there need be little dispute. He was not only almost the first in point of time in New England, but he still remains at the head of the list in merit. It is, moreover, no national vanity which makes us consider his name as one of the ornaments of the Royal Academy. He earned his position there in a competition with the giants of the English school, and his fame will probably be as enduring as that of any of his associates. His highest repute is as a portrait-painter; and we may esteem it a fortunate chance not only for ourselves, but for the artist, that so great a portion of his life was spent in the study of nature. Had he lived in London, he would probably have adopted the prevailing fashion, and wasted on frigid allegories and ambitious historical pieces the talents which have preserved for us the great men of our Revolutionary period. As the matter stands, his fame, at least in America, grows from year to year, and we shall be much surprised if this book of Mr. Perkins's be not an important aid in extending and increasing it.

Foods. By Edward Smith, M.D. (New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1873.)—This volume is one of the international scientific series now in process of publication under the superintendence of Prof. Youmans. The author tells us in his preface that it has been his object to produce a work "which should embrace all the generally known and some less-known foods, and contain the latest scientific knowledge respecting them, whilst at the same time the subject should be treated in a popular manner." In this last particular the book must certainly be considered a success, for it contains a clearly written description of all the principal articles of food in use among civilized nations, including modes of cultivation, methods of preparation by cooking, and rules for the detection of adulterations. For descriptive purposes, foods are divided by Dr. Smith into *solid* and *liquid* foods, a rather primitive mode of classification, which has the disadvantage of separating such closely allied articles as milk and butter. It is moreover not very strictly adhered to, for we find honey and molasses described amongst the solid foods. The last part of the book is devoted to gaseous food, *i.e.*, atmospheric air, a substance not usually regarded as a food, but which naturally finds its place under the comprehensive definition adopted by the author, viz., "a substance which, when introduced into the body, supplies material which renews some structure or maintains some vital process." The style throughout is easy and readable, and the dryness of the descriptive portions is relieved by extracts from cookery-books of the fourteenth century, and by a scene in a police-court illustrating the effects of alcoholic liquors.

Dr. Smith has, unfortunately, not been equally successful in giving us "the latest scientific knowledge" respecting the various articles of food. The principal scientific data of the volume are the author's tables, originally published in 1859, showing by the graphic method the effect of various sorts of food on the respiration, and Frankland's observations on the combustion-warmth of various nutritious substances. Many important contributions made during the last few years in the Munich Laboratory and elsewhere to our knowledge of the physiology of nutrition are scarcely even alluded to; though this is the less to be regretted, since our estimate of the nutritive value of any given food must, after all, in the present state of science, depend chiefly on the result of long practical experience. It cannot be supposed, however, that it was a recognition of this fact which led the author thus to ignore recent investigations; for the tendency, manifested through-

out the work, is rather to exaggerate than to undervalue the importance of scientific data. Thus, we find conclusions drawn as to the nutritive value of foods from their effect on the excretion of carbonic acid, though, in the present state of our knowledge of the processes which lead to this excretion, such inferences are hazardous in the extreme.

In a popular treatise one does not, of course, expect minute details of a scientific nature; but from a writer of Dr. Smith's reputation one may fairly demand that such details as he does give shall not be characterized by gross inaccuracy of statement. When, therefore, we are told that the muscles of the heart are not striated; that in bread-making carbonic acid is produced by the change of starch into sugar; and that eighty-seven per cent. of the animal body consists of water, we cannot help feeling that a strange degree of carelessness has entered into the preparation of his work. Although the book will certainly not increase his scientific reputation, it deserves and will undoubtedly meet with an extensive sale, for it contains, in a convenient form for reference, a large amount of information likely to be useful, not only to every practising physician, but to every father of a family, and, in fact, to every one who wishes to know something of the nature of those substances by means of which vital activity is maintained.

A School Manual of English Etymology, and Text-book of Derivatives, Prefixes, and Suffixes. With numerous exercises for the use of schools. By Epes Sargent, author of the 'Etymological Reader,' etc. (Philadelphia: J. H. Butler & Co.)—This is a very good little book. It has, besides the usual array of prefixes, suffixes, and derivatives, words from Anglo-Saxon, Latin, and Greek, a large body of exercises, in which the scholar is set at work investigating, comparing, explaining, and composing. This is surely the true way of studying language—making the lessons as little as possible the work of memory, as much as possible the work of reason, judgment, active energy. The exercises seem to be prepared with skill. It is not quite plain that they would be as good in the hands of a good teacher as the continuous text of Milton or some other classic, with which the whole mind of the scholar might be awakened to continuous interest and effort, but they certainly would be better for a teacher unskilled in etymology; and for every one they have the advantage of bringing up at each lesson just the words which the lesson naturally calls for. The book contains no very profound or subtle philologist's work. It is not like Haldemann's 'Affixes'; but what is done is well done, under the guidance of good authorities, and with sound judgment and caution, as such elementary works should be. There should be an alphabetical vocabulary of all the words. Old scholars and practised etymologists are often worried by a new dictionary which has its words only in etymological groups. What beginner in Anglo-Saxon has not grumbled over Ettmüller?

A preface and introduction contain a brief history of the English language and some other general matter, well chosen for the most part, and well expressed. Some of it, however, needs retouching. There is no objection to quoting Brande and Lord Stanley, and referring to Ernest Adams, G. P. Mason, James Stormouth, and Dr. James Douglas as authorities used along with Scheler, Max Müller, Whitney, and the like. Every man knows best to whom he is really indebted. But we do not quite like the reference to "Dr. Mahn of Prussia," with no mention of 'Webster's Dictionary,' which *is* Dr. Mahn, we suppose, so far as this book is concerned, though Mahn himself would not probably like an absolute identification with the American work. On page 26 we read:

"The number of words in the English language is probably about eighty-five thousand. By actual enumeration of those contained in the best dictionaries, it has been ascertained that 13,330 Anglo-Saxon words (remotely Teutonic), and 29,354 of classical origin (from the Latin and Greek), are now registered."

Instead of the "best dictionaries" it should be said "Johnson's dictionary," for this is M. Thommerel's count of the words in that very venerable but not very copious old book. There will be plenty of boys and girls sharp enough to notice that 13,330 and 29,354 do not make 85,000. There were said to be more than 114,000 words in the Webster of 1864, and if what is called Old English be included, it would be easy now to add 10,000 more. But Mr. Sargent doubtless uses *English* with some critical limitations, and would rightly reject large numbers of this great heap of vocables. On page 23: "We may reason thus: As the act of *binding* precedes the existence of the bond, *bond* is derived from *bind*." That would be very poor reasoning. Things are not named from the order of their creation. The order of derivation should be deduced from the forms of the words, and that suggests in this example, as in so many others, that the noun and verb are from a common root, and not either from the other, Webster or Mahn to the contrary notwithstanding.

We are sorry to see that Mr. Sargent favors the monstrous spelling of the English language which is now in use. He tells his pupils that though it is "puzzling, it gives the origin and history of the words, and we gain by it much more than we lose." He might as well talk of preserving the history of America by never making any new maps and faithfully reprinting old Ortelius for a school geography till the latest generation. Faithful phonetic writing is the foundation of scientific etymology. That the English is not respelt into some system is the regret of all scientific linguists, and the standing reproach of English and American scholars. Has Mr. Sargent never noticed the infinite labor with which Ellis accumulates his huge volumes of evidence to establish the real history concealed in the shell of our spelling? or heard the groans of the Germans over English anomalies? or of the Japanese? or imagined universal childhood reciting its spelling-lesson in that time seen in prophetic vision by President Grant, when all the world shall learn English? As the school-bell takes the place of Webster's morning drum and follows the sun round the world, will not that world then be girt with one unbroken wail?

Poems. By W. D. Howells. (Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 1873.)—Mr. Howells having drawn about himself a public which warmly admires his later productions, it is no more than is natural and usual that his earlier ones should be brought into the light, so that his friends may have all there is of their favorite, and see him from as many points of view as possible. This volume of verse, then, contains some pieces written a number of years ago, before Mr. Howells had won an enviable reputation by what he had written in prose, and these earlier pieces are doubtless more numerous than the poems written of late years. Almost all of them, however, the old and the new alike, have something of the qualities which are admired in the author's other productions. The style in general—of which it is not fair to speak first in speaking of Mr. Howells's work, although fairer than it would be in the case of nine out of ten writers, so carefully and successfully does he attend to it—seems to be not altogether equal to that of his prose, his ear for the music of metres and rhythms seeming to be not so good as might have been expected. Though, for that matter, we do not know what very rational ground there may be for inferring that an author who writes smooth and finished prose of a somewhat dainty diction should have the natural, elegant grace of a Longfellow in handling all sorts of metres, however fluent or however rigid. Yet one does at first make the demand. Some of Mr. Howells's metres appear to us to move a little stiffly; and these not his hexameters and pentameters only, nor only one or two rather odd metres which we take to be variations of his own devising, but some which are common to all the poets. Of the more important qualities which shine in our author's prose works—as, for instance, of the easy humor, sometimes slyly keen and sometimes poetical and delicate, which doubtless is his strongest point—there are here plenty of specimens, as, for instance, the fanciful "Little Bopeep," which in its gaiety and prettiness is very taking; while in "Caprice" and "Before the Gate" we have the slyer humor, and the close, observant glance which finds the material for the humorous touch, and the insight which must always in some degree accompany this gift. In these last two poems, also, the neatness with which some feminine mysteries are dealt with may be mentioned as a specific form of the general capacity for humorous observation with which Mr. Howells's stories and sketches have made us more familiar; and equally visible are the refinement and sincere good liking with which women are always treated in Mr. Howells's books. If, besides this, there is in the present volume a certain quantity of what elderly men or unrighteous men would call sentimentality about the sex, youth may probably plead itself as its excuse for this transgression, which certainly has been here committed; as has also a certain amount of sighing and grief. But these latter the author ingenuously confesses to have been, in part at least, done with malice, when care was a stranger to his heart. A few such pieces we believe we should have left out; but doubtless the audience for whom the collection was made would not thank any one who should make such an omission.

"The First Cricket" we had intended to quote as a specimen which seems to us the best of these poems—good enough in its way to be placed beside "Bopeep," with its gaiety of fancy, or beside "Forlorn," imaginatively and delicately sombre—something as Hood's "Haunted House" is. But, as being rather more cheering, if we consider the season of the year, and what impends over us, we take instead something quite equal to that poem—"In Earliest Spring":

> "Tossing his mane of snows in wildest eddies and tangles,
> Lion-like, March cometh in, hoarse, with tempestuous breath,
> Through all the moaning chimneys, and thwart all the hollows and angles
> Round the shuddering house, threating of winter and death.
>
> "But in my heart I feel the life of the wood and the meadow
> Thrilling the pulses that own kindred with fibres that lift
> Bud and blade to the sunward, within the inscrutable shadow,
> Deep in the oak's chill core, under the gathering drift.

"Nay, to earth's life in mine some prescience, or dream, or desire
(How shall I name it aright?) comes for a moment and goes—
Rapture of life ineffable, perfect—as if in the brier,
Leafless there by my door, trembled a sense of the rose."

Evidently Mr. Howells, whether or not he hereafter produces many poems of a high order, will have enough of poetry in store to transfuse with some of the divine light such portions of his work in prose as may be the better for the transfusion.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*	
Collins (W.), Hide and Seek: A Tale, swd	(T. B Peterson & Bros.)	
After Dark, swd	" "	$0 75
The Stolen Mask, swd	" "	0 25
Sister Rose, swd	" "	0 25
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Basil; or, The Crossed Path, swd	" "	0 75
The Queen's Revenge, etc., swd	" "	0 57
Pike (N.), Sub-tropical Rambles in the Land of the Aphanapteryx	(Harper & Bros.)	
Pellegrin (V.), Theory and Practice of Linear Perspective	(G. P. Putnam's Sons)	$1 00
Petermann (K.), Litera urgeschichtliches Lesebuch, Vol. I	(L. W. Schmidt)	
Raymond (R. W.), Silver and Gold	(J. B. Ford & Co.)	3 50
Ruskin (J.), Love's Meinie	(John Wiley & Son)	0 75
Rowton (F.), How to Conduct a Debate	(Dick & Fitzgerald)	
Salius (F. S.), Honey and Gall: Poems	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)	
Spruner (Dr. K. von) Hand Atlas des Mittelalters und der neueren Zeit, Parts 7, 8, 9, swd	(B. Westermann)	
Schmitz (—), Student's Atlas of Classical Geography	(G. P. Putnam's Sons)	1 50
Schuyler (Prof. A.), Surveying and Navigation	(Wilson, Hinkle & Co.)	
Spencer (J. A.), Course of English Reading	(James Miller)	
Stanford (C. S.), Plato's Phædo	" "	
Stretton (H.), Hester Morley's Promise	(Dodd & Mead)	1 75
The Organ at Home	(O. Ditson & Co.)	2 50
The Best Reading, new ed.	(G. P. Putnam's Sons)	1 50
The Fiend's Delight	(John Camden Hotten)	
The Story of Wandering Willie, swd	(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.)	0 50
Thompson (Edith), History of England	(Henry Holt & Co.)	1 25
Tristram (H. B.), The Land of Moab	(Harper & Bros.)	
Tyerman (Rev. L.), The Oxford Methodists	" "	
Ueberweg (F.), History of Philosophy, Vol. II	(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.)	

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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

NOVEMBER 3, 1873.

THE financial situation has steadily improved. The banks have gained largely in legal tenders, and, according to the best information we can get, they now hold about $15,000,000. At one time the amount held by them had fallen off to $5,000,000. The "pooling" arrangement was discontinued on the 1st inst., but the banks still have the right to avail themselves of the use of Clearing-House certificates, which will probably continue for some months to come.

Money during the week has been active at rates varying from 7 per cent. per annum to ¼ per cent. per diem. Commercial paper has moved very slowly, and only the best names have been salable at any rates. The lowest quotation we have heard for paper was 12 per cent., but we judge little if any has been placed at that. Good names have been readily obtainable at 18 per cent. and even higher.

The trustees of the Union Trust Company met on Thursday, and, as stated in the *Nation* a few weeks ago would probably be the case, they voted to increase the capital from $1,000,000, the present amount, to $2,000,000, and to resume business on or before December 1. 25 per cent. of the new capital is to be paid in on or before November 20, 25 per cent. by December 10, and the remaining 50 per cent. at the call of the trustees, after December 1, 1873, upon 30 days' notice.

The failure of Messrs. Hoyt, Sprague & Co. took place on Wednesday, followed on Thursday by that of Messrs. A. & W. Sprague, of Providence. An examination of the assets and liabilities of the two firms, by a committee appointed by the Providence banks to do so with a view to rendering assistance and enabling the latter firm to continue their mills in operation, has revealed the fact that the total liabilities of the Providence house amount to $11,475,443, while their assets are $19,495,247, leaving a surplus of assets over liabilities of over $8,000,000. Besides this, the surplus assets of Messrs. Hoyt, Sprague & Co. amount to $3,700,000, making the total surplus of the two firms $11,700,000. It is sincerely to be hoped that an arrangement may be made with the creditors whereby the Providence firm may continue its business, as, in the event of the stoppage at the mills, thousands of operatives will be thrown out of employment for the winter, and much suffering will ensue in consequence.

There were rumors current on Friday and Saturday affecting the standing of a large dry-goods jobbing-house, but the house will undoubtedly be able to sustain itself, as most of their liabilities are on open-book account, while those in the form of endorsements on paper are understood to be fully provided for. It is a noticeable fact that all the houses among the merchants who have become embarrassed during the present financial disturbance have been extended in business beyond the bounds of prudence, and the great wonder is that so few mercantile failures have taken place; from which we are brought to the conclusion that business has been conducted upon sound principles, and we need have no fear that suspension will be in any way general among mercantile houses.

The Street was surprised on Saturday at the announcement that the directors of the Bank of England had raised the minimum rate of discount to 8 per cent. Saturday being a holiday in London, the raising of the Bank rate created considerable comment, there having been no news received from abroad which would influence the directors in their action. Possibly there may be a storm brewing over the water which may develop itself during the present week.

The stock market has been free from "special features" and the course of prices may be summed up in a very few words. The market remained steady, comparatively speaking, until Thursday, when the Hoyt, Sprague & Co. and A. & W. Sprague troubles brought about a very uneasy feeling, which, on Friday, developed itself into a panic. The market gave way on everything, and on Saturday morning the lowest prices of the "season" were made. Central and Hudson sold at 79¼; Harlem at par; Lake Shore at 57¼; Wabash at 33½; Northwestern Common at 31⅝; Rock Island at 83; St. Paul at 31½; Ohio and Mississippi at 21½; Union Pacific at 14¾; C., C. and I. C. at 16½; Western Union at 43¼; and Pacific Mail at 25. Every small operator in the exchange went "short" of stocks, expecting new and important failures among merchants would send prices down still lower, but when it became known that the merchants had pretty much decided not to fail, and that Claflin was all right, the scramble which ensued to buy back the stocks they had previously sold sent prices up more rapidly, if anything, than they had come down. The advance which followed was equal to 4 per cent. on Central and Hudson; 7 per cent. on Lake Shore; 4 per cent. on Wabash; 4 per cent. on Northwestern Common; and 6½ per cent. on Western Union.

The following shows the highest and lowest sales of the leading stocks at the Stock Exchange for the week ending November 1:

	Monday.		Tuesday.		Wed'day		Thursday		Friday.		Saturday		Sales.
N. Y. C. & H. R...	83⅞	86¼	85½	87	85⅜	86½	83	85⅞	80¾	84	79¾	83¾	128,200
Lake Shore.....	60	63¾	62¾	64½	62½	64⅜	60½	63	58	61⅜	57¼	64¼	132,400
Erie.....	45¾	46½	46¼	47	44½	46⅞	44	45½	43½	45	44	44½	6,300
Do. pfd.....	.....	.....	65	.....	65	.....	65¼	.....	64½	.....	.....	.....	.....
Union Pacific.....	16⅜	17	17	17⅞	16¼	17⅜	16⅝	....	15¼	16¼	14⅜	16¼	37,800
Chi. & N. W.....	32¾	35	35½	36¾	35	36½	33	35	31½	33½	31⅝	35	19,400
N. J. Central.....	86	88	87	.....	86¾	87½	86	.....	85½	86	.....	.....	400
Rock Island.....	86½	88⅝	88	89⅞	88	89⅜	86½	88¼	84½	86½	83	87¼	23,400
Mil. & St. Paul....	26	27½	27⅜	29	25½	28¼	28⅝	26	22½	24½	21⅜	25	18,200
Do. pfd....	50	.....	50½	51	48	50	46	48⅝	41¾	46¾	44½	47	4,400
Wabash.....	36⅝	38½	38	39⅜	38¾	39¾	36½	38½	33	37	33½	37½	41,100
D., L. & W.....	84	85	84¾	85	85¾	85½	84½	85¼	81	84	79½	82¾	4,700
O. & M.....	22¼	23⅝	23	24⅜	23¼	24½	22½	23⅝	22	23⅜	21½	23¾	37,200
C., C. & I. C.....	18½	19	19	20¼	19	19½	18	19¼	16½	18½	16½	18	11,100
W. U. Tel.....	50⅝	52¾	52¼	54¾	29¾	31½	49	54¾	45⅝	50	43¼	49¾	199,500
Pacific Mail.....	30	31½	30¾	31⅜	29¾	31⅜	26¾	30	26	28	25	28½	31,000

Several railroad corporations, we regret to say, have defaulted in the payment of the interest on their bonds due November 1. Among these, the Kansas Pacific, which is understood to have spent its earnings in building a new line of road, expecting to sell bonds to reimburse itself in time to meet the interest payments on 1st inst.; but the present being a very bad time to negotiate new railroad bonds, and it being impossible to procure money, the Company was forced to let the interest go by default. The Chesapeake and Ohio Railroad Company was unable to provide sufficient funds in time to meet its interest, although one of its directors offered to advance $100,000 in gold, provided the others would provide the balance required—$350,000. As may readily be imagined, bonds on new roads are just now in no demand whatever, while bonds of the old roads are inactive and generally lower.

The gold market has remained steady at about the quotations current last week. The range of fluctuations has been between 108⅛ and 108¾.

The public debt statement for the month of October shows an increase in the debt of about $3,000,000. The market for Government bonds has fallen off in the absence of any considerable demand, while there has been a disposition on the part of Eastern savings institutions to sell, influenced, no doubt, by the probability of many mill hands being thrown out of work, and that consequently a considerable demand will be made upon them for money on deposit.

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THE TRIBUNE, New York.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 13, 1873.

The Week.

WE have as yet to hear of any newspaper or man of any influence and reputation for financial sagacity who is in favor of inflation. Indeed, one of the most remarkable things about the present crisis is that, though it is taken for granted on all hands that Congress, as soon as it meets, must inflate, the avowed object of every one who speaks or writes on the subject, including the President and Secretary of the Treasury, is to get back to specie payments as soon as possible. It is also a singular fact that the cheaper money gets (it has been lent at 5 per cent. within the past week), and the more greenbacks come into the banks, and so into the circulation again, the louder becomes the cry for another issue of legal tenders. The Chamber of Commerce of this city has now this subject under consideration, and they might do a very good thing by exposing, by the publication of a few simple figures, the absurdity and impudence of the truculent beggars who are now getting ready for their descent upon the Treasury at Washington.

Messrs. W. A. A. Carsey, G. W. Maddox, and H. M. Walton have petitioned the President to call immediately an extra session of Congress, and begin work on the internal improvements which he recommended in his last message, and at the same time issue some legal tenders to set the financial machine in operation again. These gentlemen, however, do not ask it as a personal favor, but as representing the Federal Council of the International Workingmen's Association, and their proposal is of some importance as an example of the kind of appeal that will be made to the Government during the winter. The sum and substance of all the talk one now hears about internal improvements, and "the duty of the Government in this hour of our financial trouble," is simply this, that every large insolvent corporation, and almost every insolvent individual, in the country is going on to Washington, or going to get somebody else to go on to Washington, to get a few greenbacks, or to get a little em ployment on Government work, or to get a small guarantee of bonds; and the Government may as well make up its mind first as last that the alternative before it is to pay everybody's debts or pay nobody's.

The Pennsylvania Reformers are having a fight with their Ring almost as important as the struggle with Tweed, in this city, two years ago. The Ring is determined to prevent the adoption of the constitution, and the Constitutional Convention is determined to prevent frauds in the vote on this question, which takes place next month. For this purpose the Convention passed an ordinance before adjourning that the vote should be taken in Philadelphia under the supervision of a special commission, and not under the Ring registry law. It seems hardly credible, but it is nevertheless a fact that the Ring have got Chief-Justice Read to write a letter declaring the act of the Convention illegal. The Pennsylvania Assembly, it seems, undertook to pass an act imposing certain limitations on the Convention, one of which was that the vote on the amended constitution should be taken under the Registry law. If the Assembly can limit the Convention's powers in one way, it can in another, and it follows logically and inevitably that the Assembly can take away all power from the Convention, and, in that way, from the people, and, in fact, pocket the State of Pennsylvania, and do whatever they please with it. This question about the powers of constitutional conventions has arisen a dozen times in American politics, and it is in reality a practical question, and not a legal one. The Secretary of State says that he shall disregard the constitutional ordinance in issuing election notices, and affairs seem to be in a very critical condition.

The case of the Bank of England forgers has had a curious sequel. It will be remembered that in March last the head of the gang, George Macdonnell, was arrested on board the *Thuringia* as she was entering this port, and, greatly to the surprise of the counsel of the Bank of England, was found to have nothing of value in his possession. The arrest was made by Captain James Irving and Officer James Farley of the detective force; and these two officers are now being tried by the Police Commissioners for having secured and appropriated the proceeds of the forgery which it was expected would be found on the person of Macdonnell. From the evidence in the case these facts are clear: For the purpose of arresting Macdonnell, the New York counsel for the Bank—Messrs. Blatchford, Seward, Griswold, and Da Costa—had secured the services last spring of Pinkerton's Private Detective Agency (a rival of the municipal force), when suddenly Irving and Farley appeared on the scene with an order from Inspector Bailey, of the London police. They told the firm very plainly that they, and nobody else, were going to arrest Macdonnell, and, by their threats, secured employment in the case. The firm, however, not feeling very safe, got Deputy-Sheriff Judson Jarvis "deputized" as United States marshal to co-operate with Irving and Farley. The *Thuringia* was boarded by Irving and Farley, but Mr. Judson Jarvis was prevented by the quarantine officers in charge from coming on board, and, when he at last did get on the ship, Macdonnell had nothing in his possession.

Mr. Jarvis is of the opinion that while he was trying to get on board Macdonnell was "cleaned out" by the detectives, and some of the evidence points that way. Macdonnell is an old New York forger, well known to the police here; and as he was a man of education, and had capital at his command, it was antecedently probable that he would make any arrangements he could with the police. He has made a confession, in which he says that he telegraphed Irving to meet him first on the *Cuba* and then on the *Thuringia;* that when Irving and Farley appeared on board, and explained to him that they should be obliged to arrest him, he handed to them $17,250 in U. S. bonds, a draft for £500, and a diamond ring worth £400, on the express understanding that it was to be used for his defence in New York; but that, though often requested, they kept all of it, except $6,000 in bonds, which they returned. The detectives deny the whole story, and the evidence is hopelessly conflicting. Indeed, most of the evidence is not in the case at all, for the Police Commissioners, who are trying it, have got an opinion from the learned Corporation Counsel, Mr. Delafield Smith, in which he takes the ground that the confession of Macdonnell must not be regarded at all, chiefly because Macdonnell is a felon. It will be news to most people that the only way to enquire into the character of a public employee, like a detective, is by the aid of the common-law rules of evidence; but then an enquiry into character by Hugh Gardner, Oliver Charlick, and "Hank" Smith, guided by legal opinions furnished by Delafield Smith, the accused being defended by Oakey Hall, is a curiosity in itself.

The labor question is attracting the attention of the authorities in Brooklyn, and a movement is on foot to get the city to spend a hundred thousand dollars in securing "the largest possible relief to the most needy and deserving laborers." The discharge of laborers all over the country seems to be considerable, and it is certainly the duty of those in comfortable circumstances to relieve distress during the coming winter. Issuing town or city bonds is not the way to do it. The money for the loans must be raised by taxation, and the increased taxation will fall next year on the very workingmen who now get the aid, and then more loans will have to be raised in Brooklyn and elsewhere. If any city in the United States wishes to ruin its credit, the way to do it is to get some enterprising broker to market a few issues of bonds in aid of the suffering poor.

The trial of Tweed has begun, or rather a beginning has been made of getting a jury for the purpose of the trial. The counsel for the defence at first resorted to the extraordinary device of submitting to Judge Davis a paper suggesting to him that he was biased against the prisoner, and therefore unfit to try the case. This not unnaturally occasioned a little warmth of feeling, and on a subsequent day a disgraceful scene occurred, in which that distinguished jurist, Mr. Wm. O. Bartlett, having been told that a point was decided, and that the Court wished to hear no more argument upon the matter, requested to know whether he might not cite a case; on being asked what case he had in mind, he began with some distant allusions to the late Chief-Justice Chase, apparently meaning to draw a moral from Mr. Chase's politico-judicial career for the benefit of Judge Davis; but he was again told to sit down. The difficulty of getting impartial and at the same time highly intelligent jurors for such trials as this was well illustrated on Monday in the case of Mr. Daniel Bradley. Mr. Bradley, who had been drawn as juror, was a citizen for seven years of Tweed's ward (the Seventh), by occupation a stable-keeper, and about thirty-five years old. He testified that he had formed no opinion as to Tweed's guilt; should not know him (here he pointed at Tweed himself, who was in court) "if he was sitting right there"; had heard plenty of talk about Tweed, but had enough to do to mind his own business without forming opinions; did not know whether he had ever voted for Tweed, for he had generally voted the Democratic ticket straight, apparently without knowing the names on it; had heard that Wm. M. Tweed and Green (the Comptroller) were "engaged together in frauds," and "didn't want to get on the jury a bit." His answers caused a great deal of merriment, and he was challenged peremptorily by the prosecution.

No explanation has as yet been given of the $187,000 illegally deposited by the Secretary of the Treasury with the First National Bank of Washington, and lost in the panic on the bank's failure. It is now said, however, that the Secretary, frightened at the noise made in the newspapers on the subject, induced Jay Cooke & Co. to deposit securities with the Government to the amount of $200,000, thus making the Treasury safe. Where Jay Cooke & Co. got this money, no one seems to know, as the firm are insolvent, and making terms with their creditors; and the creditors of Jay Cooke & Co. and the First National Bank, who find the Government treated as having a preferred claim, are naturally alarmed. Altogether, it is a very mysterious piece of business, and one which will need clearing up.

The Canadian Opposition has gained a decided victory, and forced the resignation of the ministry. After a long debate on the Pacific Railroad scandal, at the close of which Sir J. Macdonald made a speech in which he defended himself on all sorts of grounds, among others that he had done nothing more than many other ministers both in Canada and out of it, the temper of the House of Commons was so clearly adverse that he suddenly sent in his resignation. A new ministry was at once formed, with McKenzie as Premier, and Parliament was prorogued. It has since come out, greatly to the disgust of the Opposition, that just before retiring the ministry filled a number of vacant offices.

It seems useless, in the present uncertainty as to the facts, to attempt to say exactly what the "case of the *Virginius*" amounts to. The facts known are that, on the 23d instant, the steamer left Kingston, Jamaica, having on board a large number of Cubans and a quantity of war material. She sailed under the American flag and had American papers. The *Virginius* was subsequently overhauled by the Spanish gun-boat *Tornado*, and taken into Santiago de Cuba, where four of the passengers were at once shot, according to official dispatch to the Captain-General, "for being traitors to their country, and for being insurgent chiefs." Their names were "Bernabe Varona, *alias* Bembeta, general of division; Pedro Cespedes, commanding general of Cienfuegos; General Jesus de Sol; and Brigadier-General Washington Ryan"—the last an old Cuban filibuster and American citizen. Where the *Virginius* was boarded, whether on the high seas or not, is not yet clear, and the matter is already the subject of correspondence and negotiation between the Spanish Government and our own. The Cubans have held an indignation meeting in New York, but sympathy with either side seems to be quite wasted. The Cuban sympathizers are spending their days and nights in trying to embroil this country in a quarrel with Spain, and the Spaniards in return (who cannot govern their own country) are shooting and cutting the throats of the sympathizers wherever they find them. The American Consul at Santiago, it is said, was absent without leave; but he denies this.

Beyond the report of a severe defeat sustained by the Republican troops at the hands of the Carlists, there is little that is new in the affairs of Spain. But it is certain that things improve under Castelar. The army is gaining in discipline and numbers; this may be said without saying much for its present condition, which the continued resistance of the Intransigentes and Carlists shows to be poor at best; but any change for the better gives more certainty about the future. Then the chiefs of the Conservative and Radical parties which divided the old Cortes under Amadeus, have at last decided to give in their adhesion to the Republic *de facto*, as represented by Castelar's dictatorship. The Conservatives have held a meeting in Madrid, at the house of Admiral Topete, under the presidency of Marshal Serrano, at which, without coming to any conclusion about monarchy or republic, it was agreed to support the present government in the restoration of public order. The Radicals met under the auspices of Senor Martos, and made overtures for union of action with the Conservatives, who refused to have anything to say to them; but they then passed resolutions binding themselves to support a republic based on the national unity, the most absolute integrity of the Spanish territory, and the decentralization "established by the constitution of 1869, and to combat by all lawful means within their power the application of the federative system to the Spanish Republic."

The letter of the Comte de Chambord, besides making him an impossible candidate, naturally has had a dissolving effect on the Legitimist majority, and one of its first results was the desertion of a considerable portion of the Left Centre, which had voted with the Monarchists at the overthrow of Thiers, and this now leaves it very doubtful whether they could hold their ground in an open fight in the Assembly. The only piece of comfort which has fallen to them since Chambord's *fiasco* is to be found in MacMahon's message, in which he says the Government must have more power and a more permanent tenure of office if it is to preserve order. He causes it to be understood also that, if the Republic is definitively proclaimed, he will not remain President, though he has no objection to command the army. These declarations and hints have opened up the road to a compromise, by which the Republic is not to be definitively proclaimed, but MacMahon's powers and the present provisional state of things are to be prolonged for five years at least, and which at this writing is likely to be adopted. In this way, the Monarchists obtain a respite, during which they hope "something will turn up," and the Republicans obtain a further chance of familiarizing the people with republican forms, and associating the Republic in the popular mind with order and tranquillity.

Those who are dissatisfied with the present state of things in France, and long for the meeting of a Constituent Assembly to draw up a brand-new constitution, would do well to read Mr. Freeman's paper, in the last *Fortnightly*, on the growth of commonwealths, in which he repeats, and enforces with numerous illustrations, a suggestion made many months ago in these columns, that the government which the French are now building up, piecemeal, as the wants of the hour dictate and as party struggles will permit, is, as long as the work is done peaceably, and in fair parliamentary fight, far more

likely to last and be useful than any "fundamental law" which could be drafted by a Constitutional Convention. In fact, we do not hesitate to say that the majority is rendering France one of the greatest services she has ever received in refusing to dissolve, and thus accustoming the country to the spectacle of constitutional changes, without bloodshed, "manifestations," or "appeals." If constitutions drawn up by "thinkers" on "great principles" could save nations, France would now be the happiest and best-governed country on the globe.

Mr. Richardson's plan of secret resumption, if successful, would be hailed with delight by several other countries which are laboring in a heavy sea of paper money. Austria, France, Italy, and Turkey are all in financial difficulties. Austria has been bearing an irredeemable paper for over twenty years, and is just going through the first panic, produced by the upward turn taken by the Empire after 1866. The establishment of representative institutions in that year, the pacification of Hungary, and the release from Venetia, gave a prodigious impetus to industrial and commercial enterprise, and the progress of the country has since that period been very remarkable; in fact, it may be said to have emerged from mediæval into modern life. The consequence has been a rapid growth of habits of speculation, which the preparations for the great Exposition of last summer stimulated to a deplorable degree, resulting in the panic of last April. That panic was momentarily suppressed by Government making heavy loans, but there was no real recovery. Confidence has been declining all summer, under the spectacle of the commercial failure of the Exposition, and the innumerable financial and banking companies which have sprung up during the last seven years have been gradually going to the wall, and the panic has now broken out worse than ever. It is agreed, on all hands, that these institutions, representing a nominal capital of about $70,000,000, will have to be wound up somehow, and it is proposed to take their shares at their real value, and out of the whole build up one big bank, a process which a syndicate composed of the Rothschilds and two other houses are trying to bring about. Among the other catastrophes of the crisis, and one which will illustrate its nature, is the collapse of thirteen building companies, which were organized to erect buildings on the land reclaimed by the regulation of the banks of the Danube. They bid against each other for lots offered for sale by the Government, broke down in the first panic; then tried to pull through by coalition, and now collapse altogether.

In Italy, the deficit for the current year is expected to reach at least $30,000,000 in a revenue of $260,000,000, and some estimate it as high as $50,000,000; and the debt is $807,472,920, and there is a full supply of irredeemable paper. In France, the situation is fully as perplexing. The Bank of France was, before the war, the greatest and perhaps the most carefully managed in the world. It suspended specie payments after the war, but never had paper enough out to depreciate it sensibly, and gold and paper circulate nearly at par; or rather, the paper circulates nearly at par, for the gold has disappeared. The times, too, are growing bad in France. The indemnity to Germany begins to tell, because the money to pay it was borrowed, and people now begin to feel fairly the burden of the loan; and as all classes are economizing, and the political future is very uncertain, business is bad and grows worse. Applications for discount begin to press on the bank, and it has not money to meet them, and has raised its rate of interest to stave them off. But the necessity of issuing more paper, and thus parting company with gold, stares it in the face, and specie payments recede visibly into the remote distance.

Poor old Turkey brings up the rear among nations in difficulties. She, like a great many gentlemen in this country at the present moment, is laden down with "assets" on which she finds difficulty in "realizing." She has borrowed, between 1854 and 1871, $354,810,000, and we believe the financiers in London and Amsterdam are just now enquiring with some anxiety what has become of the money, and it appears that a very large share of it has gone into palaces, and iron-clads, and jewelry, while no Turkish port possesses a good wharf or public warehouse, there are no roads through the interior, the taxes are farmed out, the total debt is $733,620,000, and there is every year a heavy deficit in the revenue. Another loan is now needed, but lenders have grown wary, so extensive reforms are promised. The Minister of Foreign Affairs writes to London that the Vacouf—real estate belonging to the mosques—is to be "secularized," and sold outright in Constantinople, and throughout the rest of the empire subjected to taxation. The tax on tobacco, hitherto only levied at Constantinople, is to be extended to the rest of the country. The stamp tax is to be collected with greater efficiency, and the public mines and forests leased to the highest bidder, and improvements are to be made in the general system of collecting. Nevertheless, as these are all nothing but promises, the "moneyed mind" still hesitates, and asks for proofs. Whichever way we look in Europe, political finance is in a bad condition, which furnishes another strong argument for our getting out of the slough while we may.

The Japanese Government, to complete its imitation of European civilization, aims at establishing a foreign postal service under the control of its own officials, and has made a convention with the United States, which will likewise be pressed for acceptance upon all the Treaty Powers. This news has been received with anything but favor by foreign residents, who have under their eyes the "abject failure" of the telegraphic and railroad enterprises of the Japanese. The Americans, especially, look with alarm on the proposal to entrust their letters to Japanese officials; and we do not know that their confidence will be wholly restored by the appointment, as superintendent of foreign mails, of "a gentleman whose acquaintance with his duties is best vouched for by the fact that he occupied the 'British desk' in the Post-office at Washington." We have formerly had occasion to point out the low grade of American civil servants in the employ of Japan; and, while we know nothing—not even the name—of the superintendent just mentioned, we venture to think that his nationality does not afford all the assurance which the American, let alone the European, resident requires in the present instance. We are credibly informed that the need of the service first occurred to the Pacific Mail Steamship Company, and that both the agent who negotiated the convention in Japan and the minister who supported him have interested relations with the company. This may or may not be the case; and if it is, it must be admitted that the innovation is only a logical development of the transformation of the Japanese Government, and was sure to be attempted sooner or later. That it will share the unsuccess of kindred experiments, and will for a time inflict a certain amount of damage on foreign interests in the country, is also pretty certain.

The steps which Japan is taking to educate native civil servants, and which consist chiefly in sending them abroad, are not producing the desired fruit. There are some exceptions to the following picture of them which we take from the *Japan Mail*, but it is applicable in the main:

"The majority of these youths come back to their own country with the most imperfect understanding of what they have seen elsewhere, a superficial smattering of two or three 'ologies' or 'isms,' a taste for beef and beer, and a prodigious contempt for their own country. They are insolent to their fellows, ambitious of the notice of foreigners, contemptuous towards the learning and traditions of Japan, and profoundly ignorant of ours. Their minds, which might have been of some use if developed at home, bear the same relation to those of their more regularly educated countrymen who have remained in Japan as gruel does to good solid brain matter. They have not a single well-defined thought or belief, except the conviction of their immeasurable superiority over the general average of their fellows. Their language is euphuistic and absurd. If educated in America, they deliver themselves of the feeblest platitudes on the subject of republican institutions; if in England, they are equally profound in praise of monarchy. Of the working or meaning, of the safeguards or dangers, of the underlying principles, of the advantages and disadvantages, of these two widely different systems, they know no more than a child does of conic sections."

THE PROPOSED SCHEME OF INFLATION.

IT is all but certain that a vigorous effort will be made in the coming session of Congress, not to return to specie payments, but to inflate the currency, and postpone indefinitely a return to specie payments. The West will probably support this plan very energetically, and it will meet, we fear, only a half-hearted opposition from the Eastern members, for the very simple reason that the monetary crisis through which the country is passing has proved so severe that nearly everybody, whatever his general opinions may be on the conditions of sound finance, has an almost overwhelming personal interest in the provision of an immediate escape from the present trouble. Everybody who owes money, or who has investments which have undergone "shrinkage," or the future of which the present stringency has endangered, no matter how honest-minded he may be, or however deeply convinced of the dangers of irredeemable paper, will be himself easily reconciled to a measure which promises to defer the evil day, and to give him a chance of getting rid of his encumbrances before the "grand crash" comes.

The form which the proposed inflation will take, and in which it will be recommended, we are assured, in the President's Message, is already foreshadowed. We have it lying on our table in a dozen printed pamphlets or programmes, and Treasurer Spinner has set it forth with some elaboration in his recent report. Stripped of details and technicalities, the plan is substantially this: That the United States should issue a certain quantity of bonds, bearing interest at $3\frac{65}{100}$ per annum, and should issue an equal quantity of greenbacks, which should be exchangeable for the bonds, the bonds being also exchangeable for greenbacks at par at pleasure of the holders. The theory of the plan is that it would supply the currency with that "elasticity" in which the present crisis has shown that it is wanting, and which is supplied to redeemable currency by the action of foreign exchange. That is to say, when money was plenty, or, in other words, lying idle—in the summer, for instance—the owners, instead of handing it over to the New York banks to be lent by them to brokers for purposes of speculation, would put it into the bonds for the sake of the interest, and then, when it was wanted again in the fall "to move the crops," would draw it out. In short, the Government would, at a small annual cost in interest, supply a machine by which the process of contraction and expansion could be carried on by the people themselves as their wants might dictate. If too much money is afloat, it is argued, it will be taken out of circulation and put into bonds; if too little, the bonds will be used to draw it forth; and, as the history of the greenbacks has shown, currency thus issued and secured will at all times command as much of popular confidence as, if not more than, any redeemable paper ever did. The great defect of our present currency is, it is said, not that it is not redeemable in coin, for the community, we see, values it as much as if it were, but that no power to expand it is lodged anywhere; and it is to the exercise of this power of expansion we must always look, as the history of the Bank of England proves, to prevent or mitigate panics. The "reserve" has never yet prevented one, much importance as some writers attach to it. In fact, in every monetary crisis from which England has suffered, it seems to have served no purpose but to increase the popular terror by the spectacle of its decline.

What, then, are the objections to the proposed plan? If, as many good judges think, we are suffering from a scarcity of legal-tenders, what is the harm of issuing more of them, if we provide the means of natural contraction when they are in excess? The answer to this question is, it seems to us, obvious, and it is an answer which is to be found on every page of financial history. The proposed issue would be inflation pure and simple, and would, in spite of the convertibility into bonds, have all the consequences of inflation. The bonds would, in fact, serve no other purpose than that of supplying the country banks with a place of safe deposit for their unemployed balances during the hot weather, and might thus, in some slight degree, restrain speculation in Wall Street. It would do nothing whatever to prevent or mitigate the fall and winter stringency, and for the simple reason, which all inflationists overlook, *that all issues of irredeemable paper are at once absorbed, irretrievably, by the consequent rise in prices*, and that once they have entered into prices there is no means of extracting them but *forcible* contraction. Suppose we have now $400,000,000 greenbacks afloat, and we add to this $50,000,000 more. The new issue at once raises prices, and thus renders $450,000,000 as necessary to the discharge of the ordinary business of the country as the $400,000,000 were previously. In other words, every man needs $4 50 to produce the result which he had previously produced with $4; and, this process once accomplished, the notion that your $50,000,000 will ever go back into bonds is a chimæra, and one of a very dangerous sort, which has been a hundred times exposed, and which, nevertheless, is continually reproduced as the basis of new schemes of inflation. $5,000,000 or $10,000,000 might possibly every summer, for a year or two, go back to Washington in the dull season, but the quantity would steadily diminish. The pressure of trade on the currency limits would be speedily as great as ever, and the demand for further expansion—that is, for more greenbacks and more bonds—would be as loud in four or five years as now, and would be supported by the same arguments. The phenomena of the financial situation would be the same as now; the fever of speculation, excited by the prospect of indefinite, never-ending inflation, would be higher than it has ever been, and in a very short time we should have to seek relief in a general "wiping out," or, in other words, national bankruptcy.

The use of redeemability in coin, as we all now know, or ought to know, is to keep up our monetary connection with the other civilized nations. To say that foreign exchange may be left to take care of itself as long as our foreign trade amounts to $1,000,000,000 a year and is yearly increasing, and our payments of interest abroad to $100,000,000, is useless. As long as this is the case, the state of the foreign market must be a serious consideration to us. But, in addition to this, it is only through monetary connection with the civilized world that any natural check on undue expansion can be exercised. If we were in proper monetary relations with the rest of the world, or, in other words, if our paper were redeemable in coin, we could not issue too much, or enough to affect prices permanently in our own country; because, as soon as this tendency to a rise showed itself, all persons having payments to make abroad in behalf of those who use foreign goods would begin to contract the currency by exporting bullion; and they would do this, not in the hot weather, or for the pious purpose of preventing speculation, but at all seasons of the year, in the ordinary course of their business; and it is on the conduct of the mass of men in the ordinary course of their business that all sound financial legislation has to be based. Currency, on the other hand, which men cannot contract in the ordinary course of their business by diffusing it over other countries, inevitably and permanently raises prices, and all efforts to prevent it by offering them tempting little investments in Government bonds will prove futile.

What we are saying here is not, we beg our readers to remember, any theory of our own. It is an inference from the experience of many ages and many nations. It is firmly imbedded in financial science, and we most earnestly trust that the thinking people of the country will examine it, and lay fast hold of it, in this most serious juncture, and not be led away by fantastic theories and quack remedies. We stand at the parting of two ways—one leads through some suffering, much of which has been already endured, to as sound a currency as human nature and the physical conditions of human life admit of; the other leads rapidly through several stages of drunken enjoyment to a bottomless pit of repudiation. The adoption of the proposed plan of issuing interchangeable bonds and greenbacks would be an unmistakable choice of the latter. Fresh issues would be called for year after year, and with the same result. Our financial separation from the rest of the world would grow wider and wider; the disadvantages of our producers in the markets of the world, and the consequent difficulty of the profitable exportation of any commodity but bullion,

would become greater and greater; we should consequently have that famous old "balance of trade" perennially against us, and have the Boutwells and Kelleys for ever inviting us to try to turn it in our favor by piling on higher duties, and have them continually telling us, when it would not turn, that it was because American industry was "not sufficiently protected." The story is an old one; it is one of the most familiar now in human experience. We surely can extract some wisdom from it.

THE RESULTS OF "HARMONY AND DISCIPLINE" IN NEW YORK.

TO make inferences from the results of the fall elections in "off-years" as to the general political drift of opinion, is usually unsafe. Since the war, the money and men controlled by the politicians who manage the State governments have been so small in comparison with the money and men controlled by the central power at Washington, that to maintain a continued direction of the affairs of the country, vigorous action once in four years has been quite enough. Provided the country can be induced once in four years to confide the great machinery of the civil service to the dominant party, it makes less difference now than formerly what is done at intermediate periods. Looking back for a period of twelve years, we may see that since the Republican party came into power, there have been ebbs and flows of the tide at almost regularly alternating biennial periods. In 1860, Mr. Lincoln was elected; in 1862, there was a Democratic revival; in 1864, Mr. Lincoln was re-elected by an overwhelming majority; in 1865, there was again a Democratic revival; in 1868, General Grant was elected by a decisive vote; in 1870, there was a "conservative" reaction; in 1872, General Grant was re-elected by an overwhelming vote; and now, in 1873, we see again the movement in the direction of "conservatism" begin which will undoubtedly by next year have attained considerable strength. Whether it will be followed by the usual Republican "tidal wave" in 1876 remains to be seen; but the steady alternation of ebb and flow for the past twelve years is enough to make us hesitate before we draw any very far-reaching moral as to the next Presidential election from this autumn's vote.

Nevertheless, the falling-off in the Republican vote this year has been so unusually enormous that some explanation seems necessary, and the explanation given by the leading Republican organs themselves is a simple one—that of gross mismanagement. Of what sort the mismanagement has been, the canvass in this State has furnished a most conspicuous illustration. A year ago, the grasp of the Republican party on New York seemed as firm as the most ardent partisan could have desired. It had in its control not merely the well-disciplined force of the largest custom-house in the country, but it had the prestige of an overwhelming victory in the Presidential election; and, more than this, it had fortunately allied itself with, and to a very great extent obtained the direction of, the Reform movement—the only really popular movement which had taken place in municipal politics for many years; while at the same time everything gained to the Republicans by the rising against Tweed's Ring had been doubly lost to the Democrats through the long association in the public mind of corruption with the dominance of the Democratic party. More than this, by very skilful manœuvres, the leading Republican politicians freed themselves from any suspicion of alliance with the faction known as Apollo Hall—an organization got up, as every one in the city knew, by a leading Democratic politician of the lowest order, for the purpose of selling its vote to the highest bidder.

Affairs being in this position, what was the true policy for the Republicans to adopt—not to adopt as moralists and children of light, but as children of this world, as politicians endowed with ordinary shrewdness? Obviously, it was to associate themselves so intimately with the Reformers, and manifest publicly such an utter loathing of all corrupt alliances and all bargains and sales of votes, as to convince the solid, respectable, and intelligent part of the community that there was but one way to obtain the fruits of reform—by voting the Republican ticket straight. But this is not the way in which the politicians looked at all. To judge by what they have done, at least, the leaders evidently regarded the party vote as a force which only needed a proper amount of exhortation and intimidation to bring it out, in accordance with a theory of long standing that, no matter what nominations are made, the voter can be made to cast his vote by an appeal to "harmony," and, no matter what scandalous wire-pulling may go on in caucuses and committees, the leaders themselves can be forced to work in harness by the more forcible means of "discipline."

Looking at the matter, for instance, simply as politicians, one would have said that a winning card for the Republicans to have played this year was the renomination of General Barlow. General Barlow's name was one of the chief connecting links between the party and the Reform movement. He had been concerned in the prosecution of the Erie thieves, and was now engaged in the prosecution of the members of the Tammany Ring themselves. He had distinguished himself in the army; his reputation was above suspicion; and, more than all, his name was widely and favorably known. He was eminently a public character. Besides this, it was understood by every one that the dishonest Republican politicians, and particularly the members of the "Canal Ring," were opposed to General Barlow, who had himself written a letter denouncing the principal member of the Ring, Mr. William B. Taylor, as a corrupt and venal man. A child in politics would have foreseen, under these circumstances, that if the managers dropped General Barlow, this letter would unquestionably see the light, be read by every human being in the State, and disgust every human being who read it.

The reason why General Barlow was dropped was the necessity of maintaining what is called harmony. It was the necessity of maintaining "discipline" which led to the affair in the Eighteenth Assembly District in this city—small in itself, but important as an indication of the way things have been going. The Eighteenth Assembly District lies in the upper portion of this city, and is inhabited partly by the class of men who furnished the bone and sinew of the Reform movement—men of wealth, intelligence, and, in the main, taking little or no interest in the game of politics as it is usually played. It embraces a much larger portion of ignorant and easily-controlled voters, who can be "voted" in any way the dominant party pleases. Two years ago, the Republicans having, as they supposed, secured the support of the Reformers of the district, put up as candidate for the Assembly Mr. Bernard Biglin, a man of extremely doubtful antecedents himself, and belonging to a class—that of "professional rowing-men"—which has always been in very bad odor. To set on foot some religious enterprise for the Christianization of the heathen by placing at its head an active gambler, would not be much more singular than to select a "professional rowing-man" as a Reform candidate. These general considerations, however, there was no necessity of applying in this case, for any one who had ever seen Mr. Bernard Biglin knew him to be totally unfitted by cultivation or natural endowments for the position he was called upon to fill. The rich and intelligent voters protested, but they were solemnly assured by the managers that no one but Mr. Biglin would have any chance, and that the discipline of the party required them to vote for him.

A few gentlemen nominated an independent candidate of reputation and ability, and the result showed that the Republicans had quite enough votes to spare to make it a ridiculous absurdity to say that their candidate—commonly known as "Barney Biglin"—was a necessity to the party. The independent candidate secured a very respectable vote, but Barney was elected, and Barney went to the Legislature. What he did there is best known to himself, for he is not a man to distinguish himself in debate; but this year, if it will be believed, he was again nominated, and the most wealthy and intelligent part of his constituents again bolted. This year the independent candidate was Mr. William G. Choate, a man of education, position, and reputation, between whom and Mr. Biglin it would be ridiculous to institute comparisons;

but Mr. Biglin had secured the regular party nomination, and Mr. Biglin must be elected. Party discipline must be maintained at all hazards, and so in the chief Republican organ and chief Reform newspaper appeared paragraphs exhorting the supporters of Mr. Choate to abandon him and vote the straight ticket, arguing, of course, exactly as the case had been argued before, that no one but Mr. Biglin could be elected. The result is exactly what might have been expected. Mr. Biglin is again declared elected; but this year, some queer facts connected with the returns appear. The returns themselves are not made known by the Republican and Reform Police Commissioners till the day after the election, and loud cries of fraud are raised. The knowing Democrats call a meeting of Tammany Hall, and, amid much virtuous indignation, Mr. Oliver Charlick is expelled from the Tammany Committee for connivance at these frauds; so that the result of two years' disciplining of the voters of a single Republican and Reform district is the confirmation of the old suspicion that, no matter how much interest a man of intelligence and education may take in politics, he can effect nothing, and will be defrauded in the end.

As for the alliance made this year with Apollo Hall, we hardly know how to speak of it at all. It is so impossible to understand the calculations on which this alliance was based, that one feels almost inclined to attribute it to the machinations of the malignant European despots who, a few years ago, took such delight in any development in American politics which pointed to "a failure of free institutions." Why any one in the world should have supposed that a bargain with Apollo Hall would enure to the advantage of the party, particularly after its overtures had just been rejected with contempt by Tammany itself, and the alliance had been declined the year before on high moral grounds, we cannot imagine. But, whatever may have been the origin of the delusion, the alliance was effected, and, the alliance having been effected, party "fidelity" required that the ticket should be swallowed. Down to the very last day before the election, the *Times* was exhorting its readers to vote for the ticket as a whole, not because it approved of the alliance with Apollo Hall, or the rejection of General Barlow, but for the sake of "discipline" and "harmony."

And now the din of battle is over, the vote has been polled, and the Democrats have carried the State and the Senate; and on turning to the columns of the newspaper to which we have just referred—the same newspaper which advised the voters of one of the most important districts in the State to vote for "Barney Biglin," for the sake of "harmony," and swallowed the rejection of Barlow and the nomination of Taylor as a matter of "discipline," and exhorted Republicans to vote the straight ticket after the alliance with Apollo Hall for the sake of "harmony" and "discipline" together—what does this newspaper say? It says that the defeat of its party was due to these causes—putting up "all sorts of candidates" for office, and trusting to the "party papers" to "pull them through"; leaving "the management of the party in New York in two or three hands" of such a character that the *Times* does not like to mention them by name; and the alliance with Apollo Hall. We might add some reflections of our own on the queer reputation for extraordinary shrewdness which our politicians have managed to acquire, and the evidence of this shrewdness shown in the result of this election, but they are reflections which "make themselves."

THE ODIUM PHILOLOGICUM.

OUR readers and those of the *Galaxy* are familiar with the controversy between Dr. Fitzedward Hall and Mr. Grant White, of which Mr. White announces the close, so far as he is concerned, in our issue of to-day. When one comes to enquire what it was all about, and why Mr. White was led to consider Dr. Hall a "yahoo of literature," and "a man born without a sense of decency," one finds himself engaged in an investigation of great difficulty, but of considerable interest. The controversy between these two gentlemen by no means brings up the problem for the first time. That verbal criticism, such as Mr. White has been producing for some time back, is sure to end sooner or later in one or more savage quarrels, is one of the most familiar facts of the literary life of our day. Indeed, so far as our observation has gone, the rule has no exceptions. Whenever we see a gentleman, no matter how great his accomplishments or sweet his temper, announcing that he is about to write articles or deliver lectures on "Words and their Uses," or on the "English of Everyday Life," or on "Familiar Faults of Conversation," or "Newspaper English," or any cognate theme, we feel all but certain that we shall soon see him engaged in an encounter with another laborer in the same field, in which all dignity will be laid aside, and in which, figuratively speaking, clothes, hair, and features will suffer terribly, and out of which, unless he is very lucky, he will issue with the gravest imputations resting on his character in every relation of life. We have seen so many illustrations of the tendency of these attempts to improve popular speech to end in vituperation, that we have felt ourselves obliged, in the interests of peace, to exclude them from our columns, and even to decline answering the enquiries of correspondents on nice points of grammar or usage. Our late contemporary, the *Round Table*, having less regard for public order, or greater love of sensation, at a very early period in its brief life engaged the services of a professional word-critic of the name of George Washington Moon, who was then fresh from a very ugly encounter with Dean Alford. The result was a series of rows, in which Moon was compelled to tell several of his adversaries his low opinion of their morals and manners, and in which they repaid him in kind. We might multiply these cases almost indefinitely. If they were collected, they would form a melancholy and yet somewhat amusing appendix to the 'Quarrels of Authors.'

Now, why is it that attempts to get one's fellow-men to talk correctly, to frame their sentences in accordance with good usage, and take their words from the best authors, have this tendency to arouse some of the worst passions of our nature, and predispose even eminent philologists—men of dainty language, and soft manners, and lofty aims—to assail each other in the rough vernacular of the fish-market and the forecastle? A careless observer will be apt to say that it is an ordinary result of disputation; that when men differ or argue on any subject, they are apt to get angry, and indulge in "personalities." But this is not true. Lawyers, for instance, live by controversy, and their controversies touch interests of the gravest and most delicate character—such as fortune and reputation; and yet the spectacle of two lawyers abusing each other in cold blood, in print, is almost unknown. Currency and banking are, at certain seasons, subjects of absorbing interest, and, for the last seventy years, the discussions over them have been numerous and voluminous almost beyond example, and yet we remember no case in which a bullionist called a paper-money man bad names, or in which a friend of free banking accused a restrictionist of defrauding the poor or defacing tombstones. Politics, too, home and foreign, is a fertile source of difference of opinion; and yet gross abuse, on paper, of each other, by political disputants, discussing abstract questions having no present relation to power or pay, are very rare indeed. It seems, at first blush, as if an examination of the well-known *odium theologicum*, or the traditional bitterness which has been apt to characterize controversies about points of doctrine, from the Middle Ages down to a period within our own memory, would throw some light on the matter. But a little consideration will show that there are special causes for the rancor of theologians for which word-criticism has no parallel. The *odium theologicum* was the natural and inevitable result of the general belief that the holding of certain opinions was necessary to salvation, and that the formation of opinions could be wholly regulated by the will. This belief, pushed to its extreme limits and embodied in legislation, led to the burning of heretics in nearly all Christian countries. When B's failure to adopt A's conclusions was by A regarded as a sign of depravity of nature which would lead to B's damnation, nothing was more natural than that when they came into collision in pamphlets or sermons they should have attributed to each other the worst motives. A man who was deliberately getting himself ready for perdition was not a person to whom anybody owed courtesy or consideration, or whose arguments, being probably supplied by Satan, deserved respectful examination. We accordingly find that as the list of "essential" opinions has become shortened, and as doubts as to men's responsibility for their opinions have made their way from the world into the church, theological controversy has lost its acrimony and indeed has almost ceased. No theologian of high standing or character now permits himself to show bad temper in a doctrinal or hermeneutical discussion, and a large and increasing proportion of theologians acknowledge that the road to heaven is so hard for us all that the less quarrelling and jostling there is in it, the better for everybody.

Nor does the *odium scientificum*, of which we have now happily but occasional manifestations, furnish us with any suggestions. Controversy between scientific men begins to be bitter and frequent, as the field of investigation grows wider and the investigation itself grows deeper. But then this is easily accounted for. All scientific men of the first rank are engaged in

original research—that is, in attempts to discover laws and phenomena previously unknown. The workers in all departments are very numerous, and are scattered over various countries, and as one discovery, however slight, is very apt to help in some degree in the making of another, scientific men are constantly exposed to having their claims to originality contested, either as regards priority in point of time or completeness. Consequently, they may be said to stand in delicate relations to each other, and are more than usually sensitive about the recognition of their achievements by their brethren—a state of things which, while it cultivates a very nice sense of honor, leads occasionally to encounters in which free-will seems for the moment to get the better of law. The differences of the scientific world, too, are complicated by the theological bearing of a good deal of scientific discovery and discussion, and many a scientific man finds himself either compelled to defend himself against theologians, or to aid theologians in bringing an erring brother to reason.

The true source of the *odium philologicum* is, we think, to be found in the fact that a man's speech is apt to be, or to be considered, an indication of the manner in which he has been bred, and of the character of the company he keeps. Criticism of his mode of using words, or his pronunciation, or the manner in which he compounds his sentences, almost inevitably takes the character of an attack on his birth, parentage, education, and social position; or, in other words, on everything which he feels most sensitive about or holds most dear. If you say that his pronunciation is bad, or that his language is slangy or ill-chosen, you insinuate that when he lived at home with his papa and mamma he was surrounded by bad models, or, in plain English, that his parents were vulgar or ignorant people; when you say that he writes bad grammar, or is guilty of glaring solecisms, or displays want of etymological knowledge, you insinuate that his education was neglected, or that he has not associated with correct speakers. Usually, too, you do all this in the most provoking way by selecting passages from his writings on which he probably prided himself, and separating them totally from the thought of which he was full when he produced them, and then examining them mechanically, as if they were algebraic signs, which he used without knowing what they meant or where they would bring him out. Nobody stands this process very long with equanimity, because nobody can be subjected to it without being presented to the public somewhat in the light of an ignorant, careless, and pretentious donkey. Nor will it do to cite your examples from deceased authors. You cannot do so without assailing some form of expression which an eager, listening enemy is himself in the habit of using, and is waiting for you to take up, and through which he hopes to bring you to shame. No man, moreover, can perform the process without taking on airs which rouse his victim to madness, because he assumes a position not only of grammatical, but, as we have said, of social superiority. He says plainly enough, no matter how polite or scientific he may try to seem, "I was better born and bred than you, and acquired these correct turns of expression, of which you know nothing, from cultivated relatives"; or, "I live in cultivated circles, and am consequently familiar with the best usage, which you, poor fellow! are not. I am therefore able to decide this matter without argument or citations, and your best course is to take my corrections in silence or with thankfulness." It is easy to understand how all interest in orthography, etymology, syntax, and prosody speedily disappears in a controversy of this sort, and how the disputants begin to burn with mutual dislike, and how each longs to inflict pain and anguish on his opponent, and make him, no matter by what means, an object of popular pity and contempt, and make his parts of speech odious and ridiculous. The influence of all good men ought to be directed either to repressing verbal criticism, or restricting indulgence in it to the family circle or to schools and colleges.

CHAMBORD AT HIS ZENITH.

PARIS, October 23.

I HAVE thought sometimes of making an essay under the title of "History written by Photographs." As I go daily along the line of the boulevards I can measure, as it were, the tide of popular passions. The faces of the members of the Commune have long since disappeared, as well as those of the members of the Government of the 4th of September; I see no longer Favre, or Trochu, or Cluseret. At one time Thiers filled the whole space; the grim little *bourgeois* seemed to smile, behind his spectacles, on every passer-by. He was so long in power that his bust was made in *terra cotta;* a mere photograph was not enough for him; some unknown sculptor represented him wrapped up in a mantle, in a solemn attitude. The bust is gone, the photographs also. Now the time is come for MacMahon; the old white-haired soldier is represented in a thousand ways, and his wife has also a small share in his popularity; she appears often by his side, while Madame Thiers was never allowed to have a place by her husband. The Princes and Princesses of Orleans have been constantly shown to the public during the last two years, but they have had to take their place where they could find it. The Comtesse de Paris was sometimes patronized by the Empress Eugénie in her widow's cap; the Comte de Paris seemed to protect the young Prince Imperial, reading a book by the marble bust of his father. The Duc de Nemours, a living image of Henri IV. as we see him on the Pont Neuf, was gazing on Napoleon III. lying on his death-bed. The Duchesse de Chartres was gracefully making way for the Princess Clothilde, the wife of Prince Napoleon. But now we have changed all that; we have a royal family, and all the princes and princesses stand in a row behind the Comte de Chambord; I ought to say behind the King. The Comte de Chambord is the lion of the photograph windows; we see him not only photographed, but engraved (a very fine engraving, by the way), and all the Parisians look eagerly at the features of the man who proudly tells the French: "I need the support of all; but you all need me." The face is noble and animated, the forehead large; the Bourbon expression is somewhat concealed by a moustache and a beard; the hair is sparse on the top of the head. The only rival of the Comte de Chambord at present is the Duc d'Aumale, since the beginning of the Bazaine trial. It is difficult to imagine how eagerly the French of all classes read the debates at Trianon. I know of one newspaper which sells twenty thousand copies more since the trial began than formerly. The poorest peasants in the country, who don't care for politics, will have the last news from Bazaine. The Duc d'Aumale has presided with much impartiality and dignity; he has produced a most favorable impression on men of all parti by his patriotic attitude, and some of the expressions which he has used hav become rapidly popular. Of course, he became at once the prey of the photographer; he is seen everywhere with Bazaine. Sometimes the marshal is represented with his wife standing by him and his two young children, one of these on a rocking-horse. This appeal to the sensibilities of the public was found necessary after the interrogations which took place at the court-martial. Madame Bazaine and the boy on the rocking-horse are perhaps the best advocates of the marshal, and will do more for him than M. Lachaud, his lawyer, who said to a friend some time ago, "Why! this Bazaine trial is the biggest trial we have had since *l'affaire* Louis XVI." He said "l'affaire Louis XVI.," just as poor Gaboriau, who died lately, entitled one of his sensational novels "L'Affaire Lerouge."

But let us return to the Comte de Chambord. He is now the undisputed king of the shop-windows—we have the Chambord paper, marked with the *fleur-de-lys;* the Chambord perfume, etc. These indications are the material symptoms of an eager desire on the part of the Parisians. Three months ago, the shopkeepers knew very little of the Comte de Chambord. They pronounced him "impossible"; but now he has become, so to speak, the head of the Orleans family, he has renounced the white flag, and taken the position of a constitutional sovereign. He has therefore become "possible," and from possible to necessary there is but a short distance. My Republican friends make reconnoissances in the faubourgs, to Belleville, to Valette, and Montmartre; but those who have returned from the hulks—those who escaped from the jaws of death in the terrible days of the Commune—care little for the Republicans who were at Versailles during the struggle. They don't vote for Rémusat; they vote for Barodet. If there is to be a king, they like the Comte de Chambord quite as much as any other. They will not move a finger for our conservative Republic, for Thiers, even for Gambetta. They want work and good wages; they turn round with contempt on those who did not fight with them, with guns in their hands; upon the *avocats,* who can only fight with their tongues. The faubourgs of Paris are as safe to-day for the Comte de Chambord as the gardens of Frohsdorf. Paris is very much in the state in which Henry IV. found it after the dreadful days of the League. The Béarnais found that his capital was well worth a mass; the Comte de Chambord sees that it is worth a tricolor flag. The Commune committed hardly as many horrors as the famous Committee of the *Seize;* the Spaniards kept Paris in fermentation; the Germans saw, from St. Denis, the shells falling on Paris, and witnessed the conflagration of its palaces. They now make pious wishes for the success of the Republic in France. The loyal subjects of Emperor William, who writes to the Pope that his power comes from God, are not willing to see France gathering strength under a hereditary monarchy.

I opened once, after the Commune, the *Satire Ménippée,* and fell upon these lines of the admirable speech of M. d'Aubray, who spoke for the third estate:

"O Paris, which is no longer Paris, but a pit of ferocious beasts, a citadel of Spaniards, of Walloons and Neapolitans; an asylum and a retreat of murderous thieves! will you not remember your dignity, and remember what you have been, seeing what you are; will you never get cured of this frenzy which, for one legitimate and gracious king, has engendered for you fifty kings and fifty tyrants? You are in irons: you are in the hands of the Spanish Inquisition, more intolerable a thousand times, and harder to bear for French-born spirits, than the most cruel deaths. . . ."

A few pages further, after having explained the necessity of establishing a national government, and attacked the candidate of Spain, d'Aubray says:

"We want a king—a natural chief, not artificial—a king already made, and not to be made: and we will not take the advice of the Spaniards, our inveterate enemies, who wish to be our trustees by force, and to teach us to believe in God and in the Christian faith. We will not have for councillors or doctors those of Lorraine, who so long have been waiting for our death. The king whom we ask for has been made by nature; he is born in the garden of the lilies of France, a straight and green stalk of the stem of St. Louis. Those who speak of making another are deceived and cannot do it; they can make sceptres and crowns, but no king to bear them; they can build a house, but not a tree, nor a green branch. Nature but produced it in space of time from the juice of the earth. We can make marshals by the dozen, and peers, and admirals, and secretaries, and councillors of state, but not a king."

How strange that the force of historical tradition, so well described here by the *Satire Ménippée*, should be as well felt even now, after 1789, after 1793, after the First Empire, after 1830, after the Second Empire, after the 4th of September! The feelings which are expressed in the quaint language of the *Satire Ménippée* have been kept like those springs which run under low strata and suddenly come to light again. The highest barrier between the Comte de Chambord and the country was the white flag; this barrier is now down, and king and people look at each other with a sort of astonishment, with mixed feelings of pride and shame, of regret and of hope. He would be imprudent who should predict with certainty that the monarchy will be re-established. The two armies are nearly equal in numbers in the Chamber; each party counts the votes which it hopes to secure, and each claims the victory. But on one side we see all the Monarchists united on the same ground, capable of carrying on a government on some fixed constitutional principles; on the other, we have the Conservative Republicans, the Red Republicans, the Communists, and the Bonapartists united only for an hour.

France must choose between a monarchy and a red republic; and in France the red republic is the republic of Gambetta, of Barodet, of Rane. The marriage of France with the monarchy, if it takes place, will not be a marriage of inclination; it will be a marriage of reason. There is too much blood between the Comte de Chambord and the country; and we are as slow to pardon the wrong we have inflicted ourselves as the wrong which has been inflicted on us. The marriage of France with the Republic will be a marriage of fear. The revolution will take the bride to the altar pale and trembling and downcast. The marriage of inclination would have been the marriage of the sons of Louis Philippe with the Orleanists. Yet who but M. Thiers tried to keep the princes in exile? Who disorganized, even before the fall of the empire, the old Orleanist party? Who tempted the Rémusats, the Dufaures, the Casimir-Périers, and told them that they would find it easier to be his ministers than the ministers of a new king? Who threw the Comte de Paris, abandoned and betrayed by all those whom he had considered as the friends of his father, of his mother, into the arms of his cousin, the Comte de Chambord? If even at this late hour, after M. Thiers has succeeded in forming out of the old Orleanist party the party of the Conservative Republic, the monarchists of the Chamber can balance the republican force, who will say that the monarchists were not in a majority on the day when the Chamber met at Bordeaux? This majority obeyed the will of M. Thiers, and it was only on the 24th of May that it rejected him, when it saw that the Republic was only becoming the screen of the Commune. Now all is undecided; the destinies of the country are in suspense, and nobody can say with any certainty what is to be the future of France.

Correspondence.

THE PEACE POLICY.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Respected Friend: A question so grave as the right management of the uncivilized Indians of the Southwest should be treated dispassionately. Complicated as it is by all the untoward events which have occurred since General Coronado first met the Indians of the Plains three hundred years ago, and murdered his captives, it specially demands fairness and accuracy. The former requisite can scarcely be said to have been fulfilled in a letter in the last number of the *Nation* by calling the peace policy of the Government, as carried out through the Friends, "a bloody nuisance." The latter, probably unwittingly, has been violated by the assertion that the promise of the release of Satanta and Big Tree was made without authority, by a Quaker agent. These chiefs belong to the Kiowas, not to the Comanches, and the two tribes, though associated, neither intermarry nor have the same tribal organization. Satanta and Big Tree undoubtedly committed great crimes, for which they were arrested at the request of Agent Tatum, a Friend, to whom they had admitted their guilt. It was no sympathy for them, but the belief that their return to their tribe, after being humbled by imprisonment, and upon the fulfilment of certain conditions by it, would prevent raids into Texas, which induced Superintendent Hoag and others most informed to ask their release. This was promised to the Kiowas, after careful explanation of the terms, by the agent and others, but only by authority from Washington, as official records will show.

The Kiowas fulfilled the conditions at first demanded. They returned all captives to the agent, and also the stolen stock, it is believed, as fully as the chiefs were able to identify it. The chiefs, moreover, organized their people into companies, and thus prevented their bad young men from raiding—in some instances surrounding the camps of those suspected of criminal designs. The Comanches did commit some depredations, and were punished by a military force attacking the camp of one of their parties while off their reservation, killing several men and taking captive a number of women and children. But the Kiowas, having fulfilled the conditions at first imposed, were surprised at new and difficult terms being proposed at the Fort Sill council by Governor Davis; and it was confidence in the Quaker officials which induced them to continue the negotiations.

It scarcely admits of a doubt that it was the influence of the Friends, seconding the efforts of Commissioner Smith, which averted the Indian war hinted at by the correspondent of the *Nation*—a war in which other tribes of the Plains would almost certainly have been involved, and of which the results to whites and Indians would have been terrible indeed. There were thirteen murders by Indians in Texas in 1871, eight in 1872, and five in 1873, the last by Comanches only. It is sad, indeed, that there should be any; but this diminution gives hope for better results in the future. In one county of Kansas, bordering upon the Indian Territory, we are informed, upon what seems reliable evidence, that thirty-one murders were committed by citizens upon each other during the past year, and that not one of the murderers was brought to punishment. It appears, then, that the combined influence of the United States Government and that of the chiefs of the Kiowas and Comanches has done vastly more to prevent crime among them than the government of one of our sovereign States among its own white citizens.

It is impossible that the habits and passions of an uncivilized race, smarting under loss of territory—the wanton destruction of the buffalo, their main support—and the violence and treachery of bad white men reaching through generations to near the present time, should be changed quickly. Much has been accomplished in three years. Confidence in the good faith of the Government, and of *some* white men, has been restored. All the chiefs, it is believed, now desire to maintain their promises to the Government to the extent of their power. They say truly, "We suffer from Texan horse-thieves. Washington cannot control all his bad men, neither can we all of ours." Some of the chiefs have begun raising cattle. One small band tills the soil. A school is open for their children. Another will soon be opened, for which pupils are promised. One missionary follows the camp of "Kicking Bird" from place to place, and has obtained a strong influence over his band. Two others offer to enter upon the same life of hardship and self-sacrifice, and will probably soon be in the field. To-day the Friends most closely interested and engaged in the management of these Indians have more hope of their ultimate Christian civilization than ever before. The present policy of the United States Government, so far as it is one of peace and justice, and places men with Christian motives in close relation to the Indians, is more in accordance with the laws of God and of human nature than any hitherto pursued. It is just so far certain of final success, if sustained by the patience, sound sense, and Christianity of the nation.—Respectfully,

James E. Rhoads.

Philadelphia, Nov. 2.

A LETTER FROM MR. GRANT WHITE.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: A resolution to submit in becoming silence to the wholesome strictures of the *Nation* is hardly broken by a request to be allowed to say a final word in reply to a letter from one of its correspondents (Dr. Hall), whom you have permitted to refer to an article and to answer a letter, neither of which were published in your columns. Dr. Hall announces his intention of doing something dreadful about my philological pretensions, and of refuting, at his leisure, the censures to which he has exposed himself. As to which I would say that, be my philological ability and acquirement less or more, I have never made any philological "pretensions"—so far from it, that finding my articles in the *Galaxy* described in the proof of a publisher's circular as "philological," I struck the word out, and requested the whole character of the announcement to be changed.

Because I quoted old Ennius about barking *sine dentibus*, he insists upon exposing in bare English all of that which I left under the veil of what he urbanely calls my "cheap Latin"; but I think that our readers, like Morose in Epicœne, would say to him, "I understood you before: good sir, avoid your impertinency of translation."

If he had done no more than to endeavor to counteract what were in his judgment the "erroneous teachings" in any book or article of mine, I should have learned from him in silence, or have disputed his positions with respect. Criticism we must all submit to; and even unjust censure it is generally prudent to leave unnoticed. Misrepresentation and derogatory personal reflection stand quite in another category. Also, I desire to say now, beforehand, that as this "unpleasantness" between the author of 'Recent Exemplifications' and myself was neither of my seeking nor of my beginning, if it has not been ended by me, it, at least, shall not be by me continued. There are some disputes in which no man of ordinary prudence will care to have the last word, even if he did not have the first. With my review of 'Recent Exemplifications' published, and to be published, this controversy, as far as I am concerned, is closed.

Your obedient servant, R. G. W.

New York, November 7, 1873.

Notes.

ROBERT CLARKE & CO., Cincinnati, have in press 'Essays on Educational Reformers,' by Robert Herbert Quick, M.A., Trinity College. ——Mr. C. C. Fulton's recent letters from abroad to his paper, the Baltimore *American*, are to be collected in book-form under the title, 'Europe Viewed through American Spectacles,' and published by J. B. Lippincott & Co. The same house announces also 'The Border-land of Science,' by Richard A. Proctor; a 'Dictionary of Sects, Heresies, and Schools of Thought,' by various writers, edited by Rev. John Henry Blunt, already editor of the useful 'Dictionary of Doctrinal and Historical Theology'; a 'History of French Literature,' adapted from the French of Demogeot by Christina Bridge; and a new edition of the long-since scarce work of the late Dr. Lieber on 'Civil Liberty and Self-Government,' revised by President Woolsey.——Prof. Bonghi, one of the Italian jurors for public instruction at the Vienna Exposition just closed, has procured permission of the ministers of agriculture and commerce and of public instruction to found at Rome a permanent museum (*museo scolastico*) for the reception of all the instruments of education (*oggetti attinenti all' istruzione*) which may be obtainable of foreign governments, either by exchange or by purchase at a moderate cost. He appears to have undertaken a journey to Vienna with a view to taking advantage of the collections already there.——It is announced in No. 42 of Paul Lindau's *Gegenwart* (Berlin) that hereafter the attempt will be made to add to the present attractions of that very readable paper a brief *résumé* of the most important articles in the periodical press of Europe and the United States; a service like that performed by the *Academy*.——The German Congo Expedition on the coast of Africa has fallen in with a German-American making sketches for *Harper's Weekly*—fresh evidence to the Berlin Geographical Society of the enterprise of the American press. He has acted as artist for the Expedition in their common field of operations.——G. W. Carleton & Co. have in press Robert Dale Owen's autobiography, 'Threading My Way,' a work which offers singular points of contrast to Mr. Mill's autobiography; and they will also publish a brief life of the late Mrs. Parton ("Fanny Fern"), forming, with selections from her best writings, a memorial volume, illustrated by Arthur Lumley.——We have received from B. Westermann & Co. Parts 15 and 16 of Stieler's 'Hand-Atlas.' As already noted, the former contains an oro-hydrographical map of Germany and the adjacent countries, and maps of Russia and Scandinavia. Part 16 gives the first of a series of four plates of France, and the whole of South America in two plates, with enlarged-scale plans of Paris and Rio, and the Bay of Rio.

—On Friday, the 14th instant, Mr. William Page, at the request of Mr. Bryant, Judge Daly, Mr. W. T. Blodgett, Mr. Taylor Johnston, and numerous others of our best-known citizens, will deliver a lecture on what he believes the best and most satisfactory of all the portraits of Shakspeare, and quite authentic. And his descriptions and arguments Mr. Page will illustrate by means of two copies in plaster of a colossal mask upon which he has long been at work, and which is now completed. To many of our readers the story of this beautiful portrait, if portrait it be, is already known. To others it is not, and to these we may briefly indicate its main points. In 1847, a German gentleman, Ludwig Becker, resident we believe in or near Cologne, came into possession of a small painting done in oil, upon parchment, and bearing the date of 1637, which purported to be a picture of the great English poet, Shakspeare, lying on his death-bed. It had long been in the picture-gallery of a noble family, Von Kesselstadt by name, one of whom had, in 1616, the year of Shakspeare's death, been attached to a German embassy in England. In 1847, the Von Kesselstadt gallery was for some reason broken up, and Mr. Becker acquired the little painting in question. He at once perceived, and so stated to some of his brother antiquarians, that his painting might very probably have been copied from a mask. Enquiry on the spot informed him that persons familiar with the gallery from which the picture came had always seen hanging near it a mask in plaster which professed to be a portrait of Shakspeare, brought from England by the Von Kesselstadt of the embassy above-mentioned. Examining the picture, its new possessor came to the conclusion that it had been ignorantly named "The Deathbed of Shakspeare," and that it clearly was a representation of the poet, laurel-crowned, lying in state after death. The date, 1637, he accounted for by supposing that the returned ambassador or ambassador's attendant, twenty years after procuring a mask of the face of the poet, just dead, had commissioned a clever painter to reproduce for him the scene which he himself, in April, 1616, had witnessed in Stratford Church, and that the painter in doing so had the use of the mask. To find this mask, which local rumor asserted to have but recently been hanging beside the picture, Mr. Becker searched for some time, and was rewarded by discovering it lying disregarded in a small shop, whence he easily rescued it. Photographs of various views of this ill-used and now somewhat battered work Mr. Page procured about four years ago, and being a most enthusiastic student and admirer and personal lover of Shakspeare, whom we may say truly he "knows by heart," he has devoted many months to an attempt to produce the true counterfeit presentment of our great poet. The colossal mask with its solemn beauty is the result, and Mr. Page's business at the lecture which he is invited to give will be to show how, in every detail, his favorite portrait sustains and is sustained by other portrait pictures and the portrait bust at Stratford, and is to be regarded as a veritable portrait, and not only that but also as artistically the best. We are very glad that the subject is to be brought to the attention of the general public.

—As of most of the recent documents of the Bureau of Education, we have to say of Circular of Information No. 4 that the idea is good, but the execution imperfect. This one, however, is confessedly only tentative, and designed to obtain "information" for the Bureau as much as to impart it to the public. The Bureau, it seems, is bent on getting in readiness for the Centennial "a complete and exhaustive catalogue of all the published works, large and small, of the college professors and instructors" of the United States that have appeared during the five years 1868–72—at least we infer this limitation, though the circular is not explicit. The catalogue now given embraces only this period. First we have an alphabetical list of authors; then, classified lists of their works. But the former is unaccompanied by any index, so that one cannot, except by searching every department, ascertain how many works of any given author have been recorded. This imposes a very unnecessary labor on those who are disposed to furnish the corrections and additions requested. The authors themselves have in most cases been applied to, while the Bureau has for its own part searched a number of volumes of proceedings of learned societies, reviews, etc., etc., with here and there a gap in the series which one would think might have been filled with a little waiting. School-books do not appear under "Education" nor by themselves, but are classified by subject-matter, and we do not find Searing's Æneid, Chase's Horace, Gray's School and Field-Book of Botany (even *under* "Gray"), Loomis's Elements of Astronomy (even *under* "Loomis"), Johnson's Analytic Geometry (1869); Waddell's Greek Grammar (1869), nor Latin (1871); Comfort's German Course (1870), nor German Reader (1872), Harkness's Cæsar, Spencer's Greek for Beginners, Whitney's German Reader (even *under* "Whitney") (1870); nor Swinton's U. S. School-history, and Word-Analysis (1871). Omissions where the author is mentioned (like the three just noted) also occur under Schele De Vere—Great Empress (1869), and Romance of American History (1872); A. S. Packard, jr.—Guide to the Study of Insects (1869–70); H. B. Hackett—editing of Dr. Smith's Bible Dictionary (1870); and J. S. Newberry—Geological Survey of Ohio (1872). The following named authors (professors) are entirely omitted: G. F. Barker—Correlation of Vital and Physical Forces (1870), Elementary Chemistry (1871); A. S. Bickmore—Travels in the Indian Archipelago (1869); Hiram Corson—Anglo-Saxon and Early English (1871); E. P. Evans—Abriss der deutschen Literaturgeschichte (1869); G. P. Fisher—Supernatural Origin of Christianity, and Council of Constance (1870); Austin Flint, jr.—Physiology of Man (1869), Physical Effects of Muscular Exercise (1871); G. W. Greene—Life of Gen. Nath. Greene, and 3d ed. of Historical View of Am. Revolution (1871); W. A. Hammond—Physiology and Pathology of the Cerebellum (1869), Diseases of the Nervous System (1871); Joel Parker—First Charter and Early Religious Legislation of

Massachusetts, and The Three Powers of Government (1869); Theophilus Parsons—Shipping and Admiralty (1869); J. N. Pomeroy—Education in Politics (1869); R. Pumpelly—Across America and Asia (1869); M. C. Tyler—Brownville Papers (1869). All which we offer, errors excepted, as our contribution towards the more perfect list.

—The list of names in the International Juristical Conference, held at Brussels October 10, shows that the attendance, though not numerous, was of a character to give weight to its conclusions, and was fairly representative of the leading nations of Christendom. The Conference was organized by the choice of the following officers: Mr. D. D. Field, Hon. President; M. A. Visschers, President; Messrs. Bluntschli, Mountague Bernard, Giraud, and Mancini, Vice-Presidents; and Messrs. De Laveleye, Jencken, and Miles, Secretaries. When the Conference resolved itself into a permanent Association, these gentlemen were constituted the Bureau for the ensuing year, to report to a meeting at Geneva in August next. The deputies of each country were empowered to add to the membership of the Association from their several nations, subject to the approval of the Bureau. The style of the body is the Association for the Promotion of International Law. At first there were some signs of friction between this body and the "Institut de droit international," lately constituted at Ghent; but as many gentlemen of the Conference were members of both bodies, the apparent rivalry was obviated by an agreement to the effect that the Institute should devote itself to purely scientific treatises, while the Association should solicit such treatises from the Institute and other sources as the basis of its appeals to governments, to parliaments, and to public opinion. The Association was unanimous in the result that the codification of international law, defining with as much precision as possible the rights and duties of nations and of their members, is desirable for the peace, the harmony, and the convenience of nations; and in this view, a committee was appointed to prepare a *projet* of the different parts of such a code, to be submitted to a future meeting. It was subsequently recommended that this committee should commence its work with the private rights affected by international treaties and conventions. The interest of the Conference centred in the question of arbitration, the discussion of which occupied nearly two days. At one time, it seemed likely that the body would dissolve without reaching any conclusion; but, by patience and good-will, a result harmonizing the views represented by Messrs. Bernard, Bluntschli, Mancini, Passy, and Richard was reached, and a resolution passed declaring arbitration "just and reasonable," and even "*obligatory* on all nations," and that though this mode of solution is not always applicable, it is applicable in most cases; and that no difference ought to be considered insoluble until all pacific modes of adjustment have been exhausted. What was meant by "obligatory" here did not clearly appear, and yet it was the most important term in the resolution. Mr. Mountague Bernard writes to the London *Times*, apparently wishing to guard himself against responsibility for the proceedings, declaring that he did not consider the codification of international law possible, and that the resolutions passed were not of "great practical importance," but that he thinks that great good must come, and in this we cordially agree with him, from the discussion of this class of questions by English and American and Continental lawyers, as their mode of approaching judicial subjects differs to a degree which causes real inconvenience when an attempt is made at arbitration.

—The feudal right of disembowelling serfs has, we believe, at last been traced to its source. Rougebief, cited by a correspondent as an authority (*Nation*, No. 428), evidently obtained his knowledge of the lawsuit which was said to have brought out the facts, either from A. Barginet ('Histoire du gouvernement féodal,' Paris, 1825), or directly from the 'Cri de la raison' of the curate Clerget, relied upon by Barginet and by Dulaure in his 'Historical Sketches of the Principal Events of the French Revolution.' According to these narrators the suit was brought in the *parlement* of Besançon (no date), before a magistrate (anonymous), and the Count de —— produced an act in which the inhabitants of —— agreed to assume certain charges for sixty years on condition that meantime the seigneur should renounce his right to make them accompany him on the hunt, and in winter to disembowel them in order to warm his feet in their entrails. On the famous night of the 4th of August, 1789, Lapoule, a deputy of the third estate for the bailiwick of Besançon, made in the Assembly a speech so extravagant that it was interrupted, and was not inserted in the *Moniteur*. Villiaumé, in his 'History of the Revolution,' states that the interruption was caused by a cry of indignation, due to the mention of the seigneurial right in question. We suppose it is doubtful (other historians being silent) whether this was really the subject of Lapoule's remarks, and whether Clerget is not the only authority for the story, which has been caught up and repeated by a host of modern historians, including Cesare Cantù in his 'Universal History.' At all events, the evidence proves to be fatally defective. In the September *Polybiblion*, from which we derive these facts and references, a contributor, writing on the same subject, states that in the Gallic laws collected by Hoël, at the beginning of the 10th century, there figures among the officers attached to the person of the prince or *brenin* of the canton a *Troydyane* (*pedifer*), whose functions were to hold in his lap the feet of the brenin from the time of his sitting down at table till bed-time (or nap-time), to rub his legs, and keep him from harm. He was a free man, eating out of the same plate with the brenin, and holding a fief. It is suggested that this custom may have been imitated by less powerful seigneurs, on their return from the chase, and that the vague reminiscence of it has given rise to the barbarous tradition first recorded by the curate Clerget.

LESSONS OF THE FRENCH REVOLUTION.*

II.

LORD ORMATHWAITE thus writes of the Revolutionary leaders: "They succeeded more completely than any revolutionists had ever done in uprooting every principle, every institution, every belief, every tradition, political, moral, and religious, which had ever been received by nations or exercised influence over mankind." This statement will be accepted without criticism by men who disagree in their whole view of the Revolution, by writers who admire Robespierre no less than by authors who, like his lordship, adore the Bonapartes. It contains exactly the amount of truth sufficient to make it pass current; for it is undoubtedly true that the Revolutionists, or rather some of them (for it is childish to lump up together in one class, after the manner of Lord Ormathwaite, men so different as Mirabeau, Lafayette, and Robespierre), did attempt to change the institutions and sentiments of mankind, and believed themselves to have succeeded in their endeavor. The new calendar, the worship of reason, and all the fantastic performances of Revolutionary legislation, would become as unmeaning as they were childish, did we not know that to the minds of their authors they appeared to be the appropriate outward signs of the foundation of a new state of society, resting on new principles and sentiments. Yet the assertion we have quoted is at bottom one of those delusive platitudes which, accepted alike by Tories and Jacobins, contain more falsehood than truth, obscure the nature of the Revolution, and hide the causes of its failure. As a matter of fact, the Revolution did not uproot the beliefs, traditions, or principles which had long prevailed in France. Many institutions were destroyed; many more were in fact left standing, but were called by new names. A critic who surveys the result of the movement as regards France will be more struck, the more deeply he examines, with its curious superficiality. In one instance after another the spirit of the *ancien régime* has survived where its forms have been altered. It was the policy of the monarchy, for example, to promote centralization and to weaken the nobility. No one now doubts that the Revolution gave still greater force to exactly the same tendencies. Look, again, at the startling difference of sentiment which seems to set an almost impassable division between the towns of France, which are, roughly speaking, republican, and the country districts, which are conservative, if not monarchical, in sentiment. The distinction is one which certainly dates back to a time prior to 1789, and its existence proves that the Revolutionists did not succeed in imbuing the country with liberal principles.

Look, again, at the influence of the Catholic priesthood. The Revolutionary leaders differed greatly in their political views, but they all agreed in their desire to spread enlightenment, and in their belief that the Revolution had struck a fatal blow at the rule of superstition. In fact, it is in the domain of religion that their failure has been most conspicuous. The Roman Catholic Church exerts at this moment greater influence in France than it has exerted at any time during the last century. It has, in fact, revived in such power that it possibly may be able to restore for a time at least the rule of the Bourbons. We do not for a moment wish to exaggerate the extent and permanent power of the present clerical and conservative reaction. The general revolutionary movement of which France once took the lead has not, as we before pointed out, been defeated either by nobles or by priests. Any calm observer who surveys the whole condition of Europe will see that her hierarchical power has lost far more than it has gained in the long conflict between it and liberalism which has now gone on with varying success for more than a century. What we do maintain is that in France itself the Revolutionists did not root up the religious tradition of the country. Two facts are in this point of view most instructive. Divorce is still unknown to the law of France, and has never been legalized except for a limited period during the first Revolution, and, unless we are mistaken, during the First Empire. The marriage of a Roman Catholic priest is still in all probability illegal. The Code preserves on this point an ambiguous silence. No one dares confi-

* 'Lessons of the French Revolution—1789-1872. By Lord H. Ormathwaite.' London: Richard Bentley & Son.

dently assert such a marriage to be valid, and the best French lawyers are apparently of opinion that the rule of the Church of Rome is still in this respect the law of France. In spite of outward revolutions, the spirit of the French people is still controlled by Roman Catholic sentiment and tradition. If any one objects that the French leaders, if they did not totally break with the past, yet achieved as fundamental a revolution as ever can be carried out by the efforts of one generation, he should in fairness compare what we have termed the superficiality of the Revolution with the thoroughgoing effectiveness of the Reformation. In no country did the Reformers apparently effect such slight alterations as in England. The movement of the sixteenth century left the Church of England so little changed as regards names, forms, and even doctrines, that antiquarian pedantry has of recent years maintained the paradox, that the Church of England was never in effect reformed at all, and remained after as before the Reformation the same body in its essential features which it was in the time of Thomas of Canterbury. This paradox can, however, never deceive any student who looks rather to things than to names. The Church is at bottom a Protestant body. The breach with Rome and the marriage of the clergy effected an essential change which no antiquarian of ecclesiastical subtlety can explain away. The Reformers went to the root of the matter. They changed the spirit of the nation, and could afford to neglect forms when they had secured the substance. The French Revolutionists again and again have sacrificed the substance in their anxiety about words and formulas. Whatever be the cause, they have not uprooted some of the most important of the traditions, principles, and beliefs which were handed down to them by the *ancien régime*.

The recognition of the Revolutionary failure does not of itself explain the cause of this failure. The question still remains, why did the efforts of the Revolutionists effect so little for the freedom of France? Lord Ormathwaite and the authorities he follows attribute the errors and failure of the Revolution to the false political and social principles impressed on the Revolutionists by the philosophers of the eighteenth century. This explanation contains, no doubt, an element of truth, but cannot, we should think, give satisfaction to any unprejudiced reader. The theories of Voltaire and Rousseau are, in the first place, by no means absolutely false. In many respects they have modified, and beneficially modified, the whole condition of the civilized world. Moreover, no statesmen whom the world has seen have ever held absolutely true speculative beliefs. Yet, in fact, unsound theory has not always led to mistaken practice. The founders of the American Union, for example, held most of the political dogmas which were entertained by their French imitators, yet they founded a constitution which, though not free from defects, has lasted for nearly a century, and has been found adapted to the wants of the country, whilst no French statesman has been able to erect a constitution which should last as long as twenty-five years. Passages, again, might be quoted from Blackstone which come very near the doctrine of an original contract, and certainly countenance that notion of natural rights, or even of popular sovereignty, to which English writers are fond of tracing the errors of the Revolution. Add to this, that the speculative views of writers like Lord Ormathwaite are themselves by no means above criticism. His favorite theory of the balance in the constitution of monarchical, aristocratic, and democratic elements, would find no more favor in the eyes of a critic such as Bentham than would the pretentious dogmas embodied in the declaration of the rights of man. If erroneous speculative beliefs were in themselves inconsistent with sound statesmanship, it is difficult to see why England and America should not have fallen into calamities as great as those which have marked the course of French politics.

The truth appears to be, that the failure of the French Revolutionists to secure the freedom of France—a failure which the most judicious French writers, such as De Tocqueville and Quinet, frankly admit—is due to causes which both English conservatives, who see in the Revolution nothing but evil, and French republicans, who would fain see in it nothing but good, equally overlook. The task which in 1789 the French people were called upon to perform was one which the circumstances of the case made all but impossible of performance. The men into whose hands the guidance of the country fell were unequal to their work, and the country itself was perhaps of all the countries in Europe the one least capable of carrying out with success the changes which the times required.

The task was all but impossible of performance. The work before the States-General in 1789 was not the foundation of the republic, but the modification of the monarchy so as to make it compatible with the sovereignty of the nation. Englishmen talk as if this were an easy matter. "The original constitution of the States-General properly worked," writes Lord Ormathwaite, "or the adoption of our own system of two independent chambers, would gradually have swept away abuses, and assimilated her condition to ours. France had all the materials previous to the meeting of the States-General for entering on a course, if not precisely identical, yet not dissimilar from our own." So says Lord Ormathwaite, and so Burke and others have said in effect before him, but no allegation can be more unfounded. France never had possessed before 1789 any real constitution; France did not possess that powerful aristocracy which has at bottom been, under monarchical forms, the support of the aristocratic constitution of England. Moreover, England herself did not establish the sovereignty of the nation, which is the essential feature of popular government, until after nearly a century of revolution. It is very characteristic of Burke and of the school of writers who, with none of his genius, repeat the most doubtful part of his doctrines, to dwell exclusively on the English Revolution, and to forget the great rebellion which, after all, made the Revolution possible. Moreover, English history, if it is to be appealed to at all, teaches that you cannot establish a constitutional government under a monarch who has been used to absolute power. Modern experience repeats the same lesson. For the success of a revolution, it is necessary that the government that it founds should sympathize with it. You may effect this by a change of dynasty, you also may effect it, as in modern Italy, by making the power of the dynasty depend on the maintenance of the new constitution. But it still remains to be proved that you can found a popular government, and yet leave at its head the man whose powers have been taken by the people. No one can believe that American independence could have been secured had the founders of the Republic felt themselves bound to leave George III. nominally at its head. Yet the difficulty of an American commonwealth with the English king for president was not as great as that of forming a constitution for France of which Louis XVI. should be the nominal head. We have in our own days seen a similar difficulty lead to a less bloody but not more decisive catastrophe. In 1846, both Italy and the Pope believed that Pius IX. might guide the country to freedom and independence. The Italian Revolution of 1848 was mainly rendered abortive by the delusion that the modern Papacy was reconcilable with modern ideas of liberty and national unity.

The men of the Revolution were unequal to their task. They have passed as giants because of the greatness of the crisis with which they dealt. It would be unjust to call them dwarfs, but they certainly were for the most part persons both morally and intellectually of average stature. On this point it is necessary carefully to eschew the mass of legend with which the zeal of followers as well as the hatred of opponents has surrounded the Revolutionary heroes. Statesmen must be judged of by their foresight, and by their judicious use of means. According to either criterion, the greater number of the men of the Revolution must be pronounced politicians of not more than ordinary ability. Their want of foresight is conspicuous. Even the men who were ultimately the most ardent republicans hardly foresaw the approach of the republic. Not one of them seems to have perceived the great inconvenience incurred by bringing back the king from Varennes, or even to have suspected that could Louis have been suffered to cross the frontier he might have saved not only himself but the country from ruin. Even the most remarkable of their body do not seem either to have realized the difficulty of dealing with the Catholic priesthood, or to have imagined a consistent policy by which to regulate the relations of the state and the church. They could neither conceive of disestablishment combined with absolute and impartial toleration, nor of the substitution of one form of national religion for another. The policy they actually adopted was one which ensured all the evils without giving any of the advantages of persecution. For their use of means was on the whole as injudicious as their views were short-sighted. Spectators who saw the horrors of the Reign of Terror were mainly struck with the reckless inhumanity of the Revolutionists.* Later critics wonder rather at their political incapacity. When the Shah of Persia heard that M. Thiers was driven from power, he is said to have asked, "Why have they not cut off his head?" The story, true or not, exactly represents a barbarian's idea of the right way of dealing with a political opponent. The notion of the Shah was exactly that of the Revolutionists. Neither they nor he could understand all the evil results to their own cause produced by reckless violence against political enemies. Neither they nor he could enter into the spirit of the words which Cavour is reported, truly or not, to have muttered on his death-bed, "I will have no state of siege; any one can govern with a state of siege." The mode of government which Cavour rejected was exactly that which in spirit the heroes of the Revolution adopted, and which has been the favorite recourse of every French government since their time. It has been well observed that the cruelty of the Terrorists can be at least accounted for by the inhumanity of the old French criminal law. The remark is both true in itself and admits of very wide application. The policy of the Revolutionary government might fairly be explained as the application on behalf of the Revolution of the method of government which had been invented by the monarchy. The French Revolutionists, in other words, inherited the arbitrary character of the government they had overthrown. When the Jacobins chose to consider the mob of Paris as armed with the

authority of the country, they practically carried out exactly the same idea which made Louis XIV. identify himself with the state. They could not root up the sentiments and traditions of the monarchy, because they themselves, and to a great extent the country also, were imbued with these sentiments and traditions.

For, despite of the mixed pity and admiration which the history of modern France must excite in those who study it, it must be candidly admitted that the defects of the French themselves were almost incompatible with the success of the Revolutionary experiment. It is possible for us to see many things which were inevitably concealed from the generation who witnessed the meeting of the National Assembly. It is, for example, perfectly clear that the state of the French peasantry and of the country districts made it almost impossible to carry out at once a thoroughgoing reform. It is equally clear that the Roman Catholic Church could not adopt the principles of modern liberalism even in their most moderate form, and that the Catholic Church exerted an amount of permanent influence in France beyond that for which either friends or foes gave it credit. It is again certain that a despotic government of centuries had by degrees rendered the mass of the people almost incapable of performing their part under the rule of freedom. For the people themselves, it must in fairness be said that they were at the commencement of the Revolution ready enough to trust educated guides, and it should carefully be noted that even to the very end of the movement of 1789, the leading Revolutionists were men who in position and education stood far above the populace; and if either the king could have made himself the leader of the Revolution, or any one statesman could have come to the head and made himself, as it were, the representative of the people, the French nation might have been guided to liberty by a king or a minister, as the Italians have let themselves be guided to independence under the guidance at one time of Mazzini, at another of Cavour. That this was not their good fortune arises partly from circumstances which can only be summed up under the very vague designation of chance. But it arises also from what no good-will towards France can conceal from any honest observer. For the last eighty years France has again and again suffered from the incapacity of the majority of moderate and sensible men to impose their will on violent partisans. The nation has constantly been made the sport of a faction. It is perplexing to see what is the source of this incapacity in a nation as rich in talent as any country in the world. To explain it entirely one would need to trace the whole course of French history. Two partial explanations deserve consideration. The first consists in the effect produced by years of revolution. The mass of every nation is, it may be suspected, cowardly and apathetic. It soon learns, after one or two revolutions, to stand by and let violent men fight out their contest for power without its interposition. In 1745, the mass of Englishmen stood quietly by whilst a body of five or six thousand Highlanders marched from Scotland to the middle of England to overthrow the government, and then marched quietly back unmolested. The second is to be found in the history of French Protestantism. All the qualities which we miss in modern Frenchmen were found in the French Huguenots. The destruction of Protestantism was in some sense the destruction of the nation. The Massacre of St. Bartholomew and the Edict of Nantes explain both the outbreak and the failure of the Revolution.

CLARKE'S SEX IN EDUCATION.*

IT is an unquestionable fact that the health of American women has on the average distinctly deteriorated during the past forty years. The delicate beauty of American girls quickly fades; the diseases peculiar to women are commoner than they used to be, and women of the educated classes are less able than formerly to bear and nurse children. The medical profession testifies with singular unanimity to this sad truth, common observation corroborates their testimony, and the census adds its statistics to complete the unwelcome demonstration. Moreover, the sterilizing influences, whatever they are, undoubtedly affect the refined classes more strongly than the ignorant and rude. The women who are morally and mentally best fitted to perpetuate and improve the race are precisely those who are physically least likely to do so. It is imperative that the American community should be awakened to the gravity of this danger, and be instructed in the means of avoiding it.

Dr. Clarke's book is a strong presentation of *one* of the chief causes of the evil. A rigorous climate, an unwholesome diet, foolish clothing, indoor life, and the unseasonable excitements of society, all contribute to the disastrous result; but Dr. Clarke, while recognizing the influence of all these causes, purposely confines himself to a discussion of a cause of weakness and suffering in women which is more universal, fundamental, and potent than any other. This cause is the prevalent neglect during girlhood, both at home and at school, or at work, of the most delicate and characteristic part of woman's organization.

Dr. Clarke's argument may be abridged somewhat as follows, though not without doing it injustice: The periodical movements which characterize woman's structure for more than half her life are fountains of power, not hindrances or signs of inferiority; no woman can be symmetrically and completely developed in *any* part of her organization—body, mind, or soul—in whom these most essential and characteristic parts of her structure have been stifled or aborted by neglect. To ensure the healthy development of the wonderfully intricate reproductive system in the woman, it is essential that the girl should always have a remission and sometimes an intermission of labor, study, exercise, and excitement during a part of every fourth week, from about the fourteenth to about the nineteenth year of her life. The amount of the remission, or the length of the intermission, varies with different individuals; but comparative rest, or diminished activity, is a physiological necessity for all girls, however robust they may seem to be. Activity of brain at the period which should be given to rest and repair is quite as dangerous as activity of body. Disproportionate brain-activity exerts a sterilizing influence upon both sexes, but this influence is more potent upon the female than upon the male. The penalties for violating these physiological laws are terribly severe. Headache, neuralgia, hysteria, and a monthly torture which makes life miserable are among the commoner forms of punishment. Barrenness is the extreme penalty. When the evil does not go so far as this, it is, nevertheless, dreadful enough. The influence of her reproductive system upon the character of woman is strong and deep. When one member suffers, all the other members suffer with it. "A woman, whether married or unmarried, whether called to the offices of maternity or relieved from them, who has been defrauded by her education or otherwise of such an essential part of her development, is not so much of a woman intellectually and morally, as well as physically, in consequence of this defect" (p. 91).

Having explained the physiological principles and rules which are involved in this discussion, Dr. Clarke proceeds to illustrate them by actual cases of a typical sort which have occurred in his own practice. The record of these cases is sad reading, but no one can fail to recognize the truthfulness of the descriptions, and almost every one will be able to match them within the range of his own observation. They are so lifelike, or, rather, deathlike, that they will convince anybody whose mind is open that there is great danger in stimulating girls and young women to unremitted mental or bodily activity, and keeping them constantly in a state of intellectual and emotional tension during the period of sexual development. This period coincides with the ordinary period of school life for an American girl, and hence all the methods and processes of schools for girls should be devised with express reference to the periodicity of the female organization.

Instead of this requisite adaptation to the needs of girlhood, Dr. Clarke finds that our methods of educating girls do not give the female organization a fair chance, but, on the contrary, that they check development and invite weakness. The schools for girls have been modelled after schools for boys, and have imposed upon their pupils a boy's regimen, apparently upon the theory that a girl, like a boy, develops health and strength, blood and nerve, intellect and life, by a regular, uninterrupted, and sustained course of work. It is against this fatal theory that Dr. Clarke protests with all the weight of his learning and his experience. He maintains (p. 126) that "girls lose health, strength, blood, and nerve by a regimen that ignores the periodical tides and reproductive apparatus of their organization." Here is the fundamental reason for separating boys and girls in educating them, as soon as the age of puberty is reached. The methods which are safe and judicious for one sex are unsafe for the other. The stimulus which is harmless and even essential for boys is altogether unnecessary and harmful for girls. What Dr. Clarke thinks of identical coeducation for the two sexes may be inferred from the following forcible passages (pp. 135–136):

"Put a boy and girl together upon the same course of study, with the same lofty ideal before them, and hold up to their eyes the daily incitements of comparative progress, and there will be awakened within them a stimulus unknown before, and that separate study does not excite. . . . The first sex to suffer in this exhilarating and costly competition must be, as experience shows it is, the one that has the largest amount of force in readiness for immediate call; and this is the female sex. At the age of development, nature mobilizes the forces of a girl's organization for the purpose of establishing a function that shall endure for a generation, and for constructing an apparatus that shall cradle and nurse a race. These mobilized forces, which, at the technical educational period, the girl possesses and controls largely in excess of the boy, under the passionate stimulus of identical coeducation are turned from their divinely-appointed field of operations to the region of brain-activity. The result is a most brilliant show of cerebral pyrotechnics, and the degenerations that we have described."

Dr. Clarke's book should be carefully studied by every teacher of girls,

* 'Sex in Education; or, A Fair Chance for the Girls. By Edward H. Clarke, M.D.' Boston: James R. Osgood & Company. 1873.

and by every trustee or committee-man who has a voice in the management of a girls' school; but it will not do all the good it is capable of doing unless it is also widely read by American mothers. The physiological laws which Dr. Clarke has expounded are, to be sure, constantly violated in the schools and colleges to which girls resort; but they are also violated quite as dangerously in the homes from which the girls come, and as often in mere pleasure-seeking as in study or other serious labor. American mothers seem too often not to exercise a due control over their daughters at the catamenial period. They sin in this way, sometimes from dense ignorance, sometimes from a reckless inclination to grant their daughters present pleasure, at whatever risk of future pain, and sometimes from an entire lack of effective control over their children. Near the end of Dr. Clarke's treatise is an admirable letter from a German lady about the course which German mothers adopt with their daughters at the catamenial period. It is so compendious and practical a bit of advice that we quote the principal passages (p. 175):

"As soon as a girl attains maturity in this respect, which is seldom before the age of sixteen, she is ordered to observe complete rest; not only rest of body, but rest of mind. Many mothers oblige their daughters to remain in bed for three days, if they are at all delicate in health; but even those who are physically very strong are obliged to abstain from study, to remain in their rooms for three days, and keep perfectly quiet. During the whole of each period they are not allowed to run, walk much, ride, skate, or dance. In fact, entire repose is strictly enforced in every well-regulated household and school. A German girl would consider the idea of going to a party at such times as simply preposterous; and the difference that exists in this respect in America is wholly unintelligible to them. As a general rule, a married woman in Germany, even after she has had many children, is as strong and healthy, if not more so, than when she was a girl. In America, with a few exceptions, it appears to be the reverse; and I have no doubt it is owing to the want of care on the part of girls at this particular time, and to the neglect of their mothers to enforce proper rules in this most important matter."

Some of the people who are already professionally committed as journalists, teachers, or philanthropists to dangerous experiments in female education, experiments costly in life and health if not in money, will doubtless attempt to prevent the circulation of Dr. Clarke's book by denouncing it as indecent or coarse. Those who know Dr. Clarke's character and standing will not need any denial of such a charge; but for the benefit of those who have never before heard of Dr. Clarke, it is proper to say that the book is simply plain-spoken. There are a few jocose remarks in it which are unpleasing in connection with so grave a subject, and the author's aversion to masculine women has betrayed him into the use of a few repulsive, and perhaps unfeeling phrases; but these are trifling blemishes in comparison with the great merits of frankness, clearness, and earnest sincerity. The subject has long needed some plain-speaking by a competent authority. Dr. Clarke is emphatically a trustworthy authority. He was for many years a professor in the Medical School of Harvard University, and is now, by the choice of the alumni, one of the overseers of the university. The fact that he is a general practitioner and not a specialist only adds to the weight of his opinions. A specialist easily comes to think that the whole world is afflicted with the diseases which he treats. No member of the medical profession in Boston stands higher than Dr. Clarke in public estimation, whether as regards scientific attainments, professional skill, or practical sagacity. To question his authority is as useless as to decry his character. Moreover all the eminent physiologists of the world are on his side.

The terrible evil to the cure of which Dr. Clarke hopes to contribute through the teachings of this book presses nearly as heavily upon men as upon women; for in the first place all males as well as all females must be born of woman, and inherit in one form or another the weakness of the mother, and in the next place the happiness and welfare of most men are bound up with the health and happiness of their wives and children. It is a great consolation and encouragement to believe with Dr. Clarke and many other physiologists that the evil, when once apprehended and vigorously combated on true physiological principles, is curable in two or three generations, and the publication of this treatise is in itself an indication that the process of improvement has already begun.

It is so desirable that this treatise should be widely read, by the poorer classes as well as the luxurious, that we regret very much the unnecessarily costly form in which it is published. The matter could have been well printed and sold with a large profit for fifty cents; yet by using thick paper and a narrow page of only twenty-four lines, Messrs. James R. Osgood & Co. have made it up into a book for which it does not seem wholly preposterous to ask a dollar and a quarter. We hope that a cheap edition will be published at once.

The Perfect Horse. By Rev. W. H. H. Murray. (Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.)—Mr. Murray has given us a volume on a subject which might be supposed to be somewhat out of the line of a minister of the Gospel, and which, like his former work on the Adirondacks, will be apt to mislead those who go to it for information, though perhaps in a less degree. Its title would more properly indicate the aim of the author if the word "trotting" were inserted after "perfect," as it is in this particular branch of the horse business that Mr. Murray finds his specialty and his sphere as an instructor. He starts off by proposing to point out the marks which characterize the perfect or ideal horse, and to do it in so plain a manner that hereafter any one who knows his rules, and observes them, can, even at a casual glance, recognize the merits and failings of the animal he contemplates purchasing, and fix certainly and immediately the value, set the wiles and arts of horse jockeys and copers at naught, and acquire in an hour a knowledge the want of which has, we dare say, cost much money and bitter reflection to many of Mr. Murray's lambs, if they share the tastes of their pastor. After a few pages of instruction on the different kinds of temperament in horses, Mr. Murray gets at the real substance of his work in treating of the form, disposition, etc., to be selected in breeding horses for trotting purposes. His argument can scarcely be termed inductive, as he has taken as his ideal the Morgan family of horses, with which his earthly fortunes are linked, and makes strength in the characteristics of that family the test of perfection. Mr. Murray is careful to state in his preface that he does not mean to advertise any particular strains of blood in his book, and we can only suppose that the ownership of two stallions of the Morgan stock has unconsciously led him to devote so large a portion of his space to panegyrics on this New England family of trotting-horses and defamation of their rivals.

The Morgans—in which sweeping appellation Mr. Murray includes nearly all the New England families of trotters, descended from a horse called Justin Morgan, which died early in the present century—are generally small, though full of nervous energy and vigor, and, while they have distinguished themselves on the turf, are not to be compared in the particulars of speed or endurance in trotting with the descendants of Messenger, a thoroughbred race-horse of great repute which was imported here from England, and did service in the stud at the same time as did Justin Morgan, the ancestor of Mr. Murray's two stallions. Our best trotters and many of our best race-horses are descendants of Messenger, and his immediate and remote issue are noted, as he himself was, for great hardiness of constitution and invincible determination. Mr. Murray, on p. 300, gives us a compilation of forty-nine of the descendants of Justin Morgan that have trotted a mile in 2:36 and faster, by the record, and immediately afterwards states that "the family of horses which has been distinguished by and embodied the four great essentials of the perfect horse—beauty, docility, endurance, and speed—is the Morgan." We will look a little into the question of speed, on which Mr. Murray lays the greatest stress. In the list of trotters above-mentioned, which contains errors of omission and commission, the most glaring blunder is in giving Ethan Allen's time as 2:15. That he trotted in this time is true, but it was in an unusual manner, he being harnessed with a running mate, which not only pulled all the load, but Ethan Allen as well. Under these circumstances the horse was very much like a boy running behind a wagon of which he has hold, and by the help of which he can run much faster than he could alone. The fastest Ethan Allen has ever been able to go, drawing a sulky, is about 2:25, and his 2:15 is not admitted as a trotting record. The next fastest time on the list is by Rolla Golddust—2:21—and was made under the saddle, a much faster way of going than in harness, though this fact is suppressed. The fastest time of this horse, drawing a sulky, is about the same as Ethan Allen's. Of the remainder of the forty-nine horses named, ten of them have the blood of Messenger in their veins, and the best of them have more of that than of the blood of Justin Morgan. On the other hand, not going back so far as imported Messenger, we find at least ten of his descendants through Hambletonian, a horse now living, that have trotted faster in single harness than any in Mr. Murray's list, and none of these have, so far as known, a drop of the Morgan blood. Moreover, of all the horses which have ever trotted below 2:20 (and a horse must do that to be considered first-rate now), one half are of Hambletonian descent and none of Morgan.

On p. 338, we find that Hambletonian's best sons (for breeding purposes) "are out of 'Star' mares, or thoroughbreds of other families." Now Mr. Murray evidently considered American Star, the sire of the "Star" mares, a thoroughbred, as he gives his pedigree several times as by Henry, which is a mistake. But it is a well-known fact among breeders that no son of Hambletonian from a Star or thoroughbred mare has yet distinguished himself in the stud. Perhaps the most remarkable crotchet ventilated in the book is on pp. 127 and 128, where Mr. Murray proposes, and gives many reasons for doing so, to broaden the present definition of "thoroughbred," by making it include any animal that is handsome according to his ideas of equine beauty and is possessed of "power of endurance and desire to do." To appreciate

the extreme coolness of this proposition, we must remember that an animal to be "thoroughbred" must trace back on both sides to five generations at least of pure blood, and that the term was originally used in England for horses of the highest lineage, brought there from the East, which became the ancestors of their and our families of thoroughbreds. Mr. Murray might as well profess to be a member of the French Academy because he is a literary man, or of the Royal family of England because he is as athletic as some of its members.

The instructions about breaking colts are good, and those on the foot and shoeing show that the author has adopted the best and most sensible views. The remarks on the structural formation of the horse are also worthy of careful study by those interested in the subject. Mr. Beecher's introduction and Mr. Loring's supplement, which is quite long, are both good and amusing. The book closes with tabulated pedigrees of twenty-nine noted horses, among which we notice seven given incorrectly; instructions for laying out a mile track; and a "gallery of celebrated horses," in which Mr. Murray's two stallions figure of course.

The Atmosphere. Translated from the French of Camille Flammarion. Edited by J. Glaisher, F.R.S. With ten chromo-lithographs and eighty wood-cuts. (New York: Harpers. 1873. 453 pp. 8vo.)—Both of these gentlemen are eminent aeronauts, Mr. Glaisher having ascended to an elevation of thirty-seven thousand feet—the highest on record. The chromo-lithographs are the most praiseworthy feature of the book, one of them, representing a sunrise on Mount Righi, being more pleasing than most landscape paintings. But in the titles of the woodcuts the author's contempt for accuracy appears. Thus, one view is named "Ice *at* the North Pole," teaching that that place has been seen. But M. Flammarion sacrifices truth about all other subjects for the sake of brilliancy in emphasizing his point at the moment. A specimen occurs on p. 18: "Situated as we are about the globe, infinitely small *mollusks*"! The author's style is pompous, vague, and unballasted. The editor in his preface makes confessions not calculated to encourage intending purchasers: "It is impossible for any one man to have a complete knowledge of so great a variety of subjects as are treated of by M. Flammarion, and the compiler of such a book must include many things taken from others, of the accuracy of which he is not fully competent to judge." "Every one who is acquainted with French popular works on science is aware that very many exhibit a tendency to imaginative . . . writing, which ill accords with the precision and accuracy that ought to be a characteristic of scientific information." The editor should, perhaps, rather have styled such writing fanciful than imaginative, for it is the author's gravest defect that he is destitute of scientific imagination; otherwise he would not have endorsed as "probable" several whimsical notions such as that "a detached train of the lighter gases remains constantly in the rear of the globe during its rapid revolution around the sun." His lack of imagination is impartial; it rejects as blindly as it admits, so that the hypothetical portions of the work are simply worthless.

The arrangement, as usual in compilations, is merely topical; the choice of subjects is adapted to attract; a flash of lightning is gilded upon the binding.

Fine Arts.

THE METROPOLITAN MUSEUM.

THE LOAN COLLECTION.—I. EUROPEAN CERAMICS.

THE complete property of the Museum is now assembled in Fourteenth Street, together with an interesting and generous loan collection. The possessions of the Museum include the pictures by the old masters, bought a year and a half ago, and described by us at the time, and the Di Cesnola antiquities, also passed in review before our readers. Both of these collections are now improved—the gallery with two or three additional pictures of value, and the Cyprus statuary by the careful and methodical arrangement of the discoverer himself. The loan collection, considerably reinforced during the summer interval, is now the prominent novelty. It includes old and new paintings, statuary, and several rooms full of virtù. The latter, not yet catalogued, is decidedly rich and choice; and as one's ideal of a loan collection begins, if it does not end, with *bric-à-brac*, we will pass by the artistic sublimities to commence frankly at the chinaware.

Potteries from Asia and potteries from Europe are piled in a number of cases upstairs and downstairs. Their classification is done in the visitor's head. The materials for a tolerably full lesson in European ceramics may be gathered by piecing together the specimens from the different cases; these, being arranged according to owners, instead of by any scientific system, afford a wholesome exercise to the mind, and shrewdly tax the memory of the eye.

The fine memorial case furnished from the collection of the late Mrs. Prime shows European porcelain at its beginning, in the ware of Böttcher; this, with its warm white hue and exceptional heaviness, may have come to us from the artist's luxurious prison in the castle of Meissen, where he was tied to his craft in petted slavery by August the Strong. To pass from this ware to the specimens of Italian majolica—and it is singularly easy to bestride international boundaries in the collection—is to find a harsher material and a superior art. It is curious to think what new perfections might have been reached, by painters like those of the so-called "Raphael ware," and statuaries like Della Robbia, if they could have found a material so obedient, so beautiful in itself, and so flexible in expressing the artist's most delicate shade of meaning, as the kaolin of Dresden. A contribution of Gubbio ware, from the estate of Mrs. Prime, instances the florid development of ceramic industry in the Duchy of Urbino, where Maestro Giorgio brought up his lead glazes to their most admirable mother-of-pearl lustre. Doccia ware, with its purity and intensity of tin glaze and elevation of form, associates ceramics directly with the art of sculpture, through the great name of Luca della Robbia, to whose school the Florentine pottery belongs. By Luca there are two or three large and fairly good pieces, one of them unfortunately much patched; that of the Madonna kneeling before her child, who lies among lilies, while a crown descends upon her head and two adoring cherubs watch the scene, is full of the artist's mystic grace; the other, in which the girl-mother caresses her babe, is more severe and monumental. Some imposing specimens of the great Italian buffet-pieces, the "piatti di pompa," are lent by Mr. S. L. M. Barlow; among his majoliche may be mentioned the Bassano plate with imitation of Persian decoration in pinks and violets; the Pesaro dish, with Baptism of the Virgin in many figures; a Faenza plate, with white ground, another of Castelli ne' Abruzzi; a dish of white perforated pattern with coat of arms; a dish of Treviso; and the large platter completely covered with a design of St. George and the dragon, and marked with the letter S. This group of Central-Italian pieces, with their bold, loud style, daring Renaissance models, large scale and rich color, are highly effective. In the Prime collection, a white glazed statue of Capo di Monte, and another Naples specimen—a plate showing a border of white and black, resembling an inlaid pattern of ivory on ebony—personify the impulse of South Italy. The porcelains of France are but imperfectly exhibited; we notice no contributions of Palissy pottery, and there are more gaps than stepping-stones until we come down to modern Sèvres, from which *fabrique*, under one of the late superintendents (Brongniart), there is an elaborate dinner-set; the plates are painted with antique heads, in arbitrary camaïeu colors; the dessert dishes are encircled by a band of very rich yolk-of-egg yellow; a set of accompanying vases are adorned with highly finished miniatures of Louis XI., Francis I., and Henry IV.

The lessons originally due to Böttcher, and spread through Germany from the great centre of illumination at Dresden, are shown in a selection of specimens; there are pieces from the works (peremptorily established under experts transferred from Dresden by Frederick the Great) at Frankenthal and Höchst. The independent school existing since the fourteenth century in Holland, and a direct result from that nation's ancient traffic with Japan, is partly represented in the scattered pieces of Delft ware. Some of the last-century Dresden is adorned with the daintiest miniature painting; and a curious study of taste is afforded by the various and often fantastic decoration of the ware from Berlin, Fürstenberg, Marienberg, Ludwigsberg, and Nuremberg. The English potteries, save for one great name, do not in this collection make any great show; there are scattering pieces of Liverpool, Crown Derby, Worcester, Lowestoft, Chelsea, Copeland; but British credit is redeemed only in the exhibition of the various *chefs-d'œuvre* of Wedgwood, Staffordshire, including numbers of the Flaxman bas-reliefs, and a specimen, lent by H. G. Marquand, of Wedgwood's fac-simile of the Portland vase. Of all the pieces we have mentioned, not many would seem in a European museum immensely rare; but when we remember that they are simply such bits as can be spared from a good many private collections, and how fragile they are, how far from the scattered lands where they were born, and what hardy travellers they in their fragility have been through the chances of the seas, we must admit that they make a very creditable group, and a nucleus for a really valuable study of what may be called comparative pottery.

The Egyptian pottery, of which Mr. W. C. Prime lends a small but select group, includes a specimen which that gentleman asserts to be the oldest piece of glazed pottery with fixable date that he has seen; it is an elongated bead, covered with glass glaze, and assigned to the period of Amon'm'he III., fifth king of the XIIth Dynasty, at a date of about 2020 B.C. This vitreous enamel, almost choking the finer lines of the model, is seen in blue and other

colors on many of the little sacred images derived from tombs, and on many of the bead necklaces and ornaments accompanying mummies, a quantity of which are visible in this case. A very comical statuette from Es-Siout, on the other hand, is as modern as possible, being the contemporary Egyptian carver's notion of a Frankish lady; this small creature is strutting, with her chin in the air, mounted on a pair of high heels, and adorned with the ruff, the hat, the ear-drops, and overskirt of our own day; and a wonderful air of patronage she seems to wear in the face of the Pyramids. To balance this, we may smile at the dish made at Nankin in Queen Anne's time, and painted (as was the fashion) from an English design, in the large collection of old Chinese blue contributed by Mr. Robert Hoe, jr.; the device, traced with all the national fidelity, through which, however, the Chinese habit of hand is everywhere apparent, shows a kind of Pamela or Clarissa Harlowe mildly entertained by a couple of beaux resembling parsons, who play the flute and guitar for her diversion; the inevitable Eastern look, pervading the truly British ceremoniousness of the scene, almost caps the climax of absurdity: yet an English artist of the day would hardly have imitated a Chinese print so well. The richness of Mr. Hoe's collection in blue is rivalled by that which forms a part of Mr. Avery's loan; the extreme elegance both of design and color seen in Mr. Avery's cabinets of azure, and the liberal number of the pieces, offer unusual chances for comparison and study. In the same loan has been put together, with rare taste, a mass of Japanese and Chinese porcelains in the rarer hues, the éclat of the colors being much enhanced by felicity of arrangement; here we see deep blues, liver-color, ruby, and other fine tints in profusion, particularly one tiny bottle in mustard-color; crackle-ware, in its various caprices, is illustrated in the same contribution—the pattern being sometimes very large and open, sometimes minute as fine net, sometimes gradually shaded from large to fine over the surface of a single vessel, sometimes restricted to certain zones of a vase, while intermediate portions are completely clear; one tasteful specimen shows enamelled blossoms fixed upon the angles of a very open crackle, whose dark zigzags thus form the branch-work of a flowery composition. Most of these rarities, however, must yield in importance to the noble old porcelain vase of the Tching-hoa period, of the fifteenth century, lent, we believe, by Mr. Barlow. This object, which at first sight looks like a moulding in chocolate, is in perfect preservation, the light playing over its pure dark surface as over bronze seven times polished; it is nearly eighteen inches high; the shape, imitated from a gourd bottle, and severely simple, reveals better than a more elaborate one the fine state of the specimen, and its immunity from flaw.

The application of ceramics to architecture is a subject of great and growing interest, especially in this country, where carved decoration is almost excluded from its expensiveness, and where the problem of the immediate future will be to get all possible effect out of decorative brick-work. This consideration, and the imperishableness of pottery in all climates, give special value to the few tiles and to the Chinese architectural ornaments; by the latter we refer to the half-dozen fragments of the Porcelain Tower at Pekin, whose last overthrow affords us these valuable studies of baked ornament. The effect of the strange animal forms, revealed at intervals through the confusion of leaves and scrolls, is highly piquant; it points to a possible realism in the decoration of edifices which perhaps only needs a little audacity and taste to be popular. Every color in nature seems to be almost equally in the resources of these Chinese potters; and we have only to learn their art and follow the hint of their architects to dress our buildings, if we so choose, in flowers and creepers of unfading bloom, with birds perching or mosses spreading, in the perfection of natural color. From such realistic motives of ornament our choice spreads all the way to the spiritual elevation of Luca and Andrea della Robbia, who, while they hung many a garland of plastic fruits and flowers over the walls of Florence, and covered the house-fronts of her nobles with escutcheons as large as cathedral windows, had the secret of making pottery no less dignified than marble, as repeatedly shown in the sacred statuary and alto-reliefs still remaining in the churches of the city. These white figures leaning out of spaces of sky-blue are more austere, perhaps, for their reticence of color, but not necessarily purer. Meantime, colors idealized or spiritualized by their strange haunting iridescence are afforded by the Saracen and Hispano-Moresco potteries. A few Persian and Saracen tiles, one of which is from the Mosque of Omar, have strayed into this collection, where they have a dispersed and lonely look. Their vitreous glazes are a hard and a stimulating lesson to the brick-maker. As soon as the present timid attempts to introduce tiles, colored reliefs, and terra-cotta friezes into architecture have become firmly embraced by the public understanding, the day of audacities and experiments will be sure to follow, out of which we may be sure some novelty will spring visibly adapted to modern times, and affording inevitably a great rôle for pottery.

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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

NOVEMBER 10.

ADVICES from London since our last have continued unfavorable. The Bank of England rate of discount was raised to 9 per cent. on Friday, and there is every probability that it will soon again be advanced. These advances in the bank rate have been precautionary, and made for the purpose of preventing a further outflow of specie from the Bank as well as attracting foreign capital toward London. It is probable that, with the high rate of interest for money prevailing in London, considerable amounts will be sent there from Germany. The specie in the Bank of England decreased during the week ending Thursday last £73,000, and the total specie reserve of the Bank is now stated to be under £20,000,000—a point below which it has never passed without causing anxiety.

The financial situation during the past week has improved, but at times the news which came from Philadelphia regarding the condition of certain parties there, connected with the Pennsylvania Railroad Company, and that the latter might not be able to pay the regular half-yearly dividend, exerted a depressing influence. On Wednesday, the news came that the paper of the California and Texas Construction Company had gone to protest. This company was engaged in building the Texas and Pacific Railroad, and the paper protested bore the endorsements of Mr. Thos. A. Scott and other gentlemen connected with the Pennsylvania Railroad Company. The failure of the Construction Company was brought about by incurring liabilities to the amount of some $7,000,000, for $4,500,000 of which the paper of the company, maturing within the next twelve months, was issued. Mr. Scott recently went to Europe to negotiate the first mortgage bonds of the Texas and Pacific Railroad Company, with the proceeds of which these floating liabilities of the Construction Company could be met; but, failing in his efforts to place the bonds, he returned to this country in time to see its financial collapse. Fortunately, the paper is held by wealthy parties, who can afford to lose. A meeting of creditors will most likely be held at an early period and an extension granted to the company. The troubles of the California and Texas Construction Company gave rise to unpleasant rumors about the Pennsylvania Railroad Company, and naturally so, as the leading officers in each corporation were the same; but these rumors were denied, and there is no reason to think that the troubles of the former have in any way affected the latter. On Friday, the question as to the payment of the Pennsylvania Railroad dividend was set at rest by the declaration of a 5 per cent. scrip dividend, redeemable March 1, 1875, the company having the option of redeeming it at any time after six months.

The creditors of the A. & W. Sprague Manufacturing Co. and A. & W. Sprague, of Providence, have consented to the appointment of trustees to take charge of the assets of the above-named concern, and a committee of five were appointed to take charge of the creditors' interests, and to name three parties to act as trustees, which they have done. The gentlemen selected as trustees have consented to serve, and are acceptable to both creditors and debtors. Messrs. H. B. Claflin & Co. have asked for and received an average extension of four and a half months on open accounts, and are at work putting themselves into shape to meet promptly their engagements when they again fall due. Messrs. Peake, Opdycke & Co. have resumed business, and affairs generally are in a more satisfactory condition than they were at the close of last week.

Money on call among stock brokers has been obtainable at 7 per cent. gold, though loans have been made both above and below this rate. Commercial paper is very dull, with rates nominal.

The banks have further strengthened themselves by the addition of legal tenders and gold to their reserve. The banks are said to hold at present $23,210,000 legal tenders, and $16,767,000 gold, making a total reserve of $39,977,000, against $151,000,000 deposits and $28,000,000 circulation, or a total of $179,000,000 liabilities. Besides the above amount of liabilities, the banks have outstanding $22,000,000 loan certificates, which, if counted in with the other liabilities, makes a total of $201,000,000. A reserve of 25 per cent. in legal tenders and specie against this amount would be $50,250,000, while the banks hold only $39,977,000, thus showing that they are still $10,273,000 below the legal requirement. Leaving out the loan certificates, the banks are but $4,733,000 below their legal reserve.

In the stock market there is little to notice beyond a general weakness, which was occasioned by the Philadelphia rumors and troubles before alluded to. The expectation of a further advance in the Bank of England rate of discount, and the apprehension of trouble on the other side, have cast a gloomy feeling over the market. Prices, however, closed on Saturday at nearly the highest point of the day, which was due to the covering of short contracts by parties who did not care to go over Sunday with any interest in stocks.

The following shows the highest and lowest sales of the leading stocks at the Stock Exchange for the week ending November 8:

	Monday.	Tuesday.	Wed'day.	Thursday	Friday.	Saturday	Sales.
N. Y. C & H. R...	80⅛ 83⅜	Holiday.	77⅜ 81	78 80⅜	77⅜ 80	78¾ 80	122,200
Lake Shore.....	64¼ 64¼		60⅜ 61⅜	63½ 63⅝	60⅜ 62¼	61½ 62¼	89,900
Erie.....	42½ 42⅜		39½ 42½	38¾ 39¾	35⅝ 34¼	37½ 40¼	69,400
Do. pfd.....	.....		63 64½	62 62	56¾ 59	.....	.....
Union Pacific	16⅛ 16¾		15½ 16⅜	15⅞ 16¼	15⅜ 16¼	15¾ 16¼	25,900
Chi. & N. W.....	34⅛ 35¼		34⅜ 35	35¼ 34¼	34¼ 35¼	34 34¼	8,2 0
Do. pfd.....	57 59		56 56½	53½ 54¾	54½ 55¼	53 54	3,100
N. J. Central.....	83½		85¼	85¾ 86	85½ 86⅝	.....	200
Rock Island.....	85½ 87¾		84¾ 86½	83¾ 86	84⅛ 86	84½ 86½	14,200
Mil. & St. Paul....	23⅜ 25¼		23 24	22¾ 23⅝	22 23¼	22 23	14,300
Do. pfd...	47 47		45 46⅞	44½ 45	43¾ 44¼	44 44½	4,000
Wabash.....	35¾ 37¾		35⅜ 36⅝	35½ 36⅞	34¼ 36¼	35⅜ 36½	34,400
D., L. & W.....	83 83		82 83½	82 82¼	82 82½	.....	3,900
O. & M.....	23¾ 23⅝		22¾ 23⅜	22¼ 22⅞	21¾ 22⅝	22½ 22¼	16,700
C., C. & I. C.....	17¼ 18¼		16⅜ 17¼	16½ 17¼	15½ 17¼	16¾ 17	7,300
W. U. Tel.....	48¾ 51¾		45¾ 50	46 49¾	45⅜ 48⅜	46¾ 48¾	177,000
Pacific Mail.....	27 28⅜		25⅞ 27½	26⅜ 27½	26¼ 27½	26¾ 23	15,200

The Government bond market is lower, in sympathy with the lower price of gold here and the depression in the London market. In railroad bonds, a very moderate amount of business was transacted, and prices have remained steady. Holders of good bonds evince no disposition to sell at current market quotations. The *Financial Chronicle* gives the following list of bonds, the coupons upon which were passed November 1:

	Interest payable.	Place of payment.
Burlington, Cedar Rapids & Minnesota gold 7s.....	$189,000	N. Y. or London.
Burlington & Southwestern 1st mortgage 8s	72,000	Boston.
Chesapeake & Ohio 1st mortgage gold 6s.....	450,000	New York.
Chicago & Michigan Lake Shore 8s of 1871.....	54,000	Boston.
Kansas Pacific:		
First mortgage land grant gold 7s.....	225,925	N. Y., London & Frankfort.
Leavenworth Bridge 7s	21,000	N. Y. & St. Louis.
Leavenworth, Lawrence & Galveston:		
Kansas City & Santa Fé 10s....	36,000	Boston.
New York & Oswego Midland:		
Second mortgage convertible 7s.....	87,500	New York.
Second mortgage non-convertible 7s	52,500	New York.
Peninsula of Michigan 1st mortgage gold 7s.....	97,265	New York.
Port Huron & Lake Michigan 1st mortgage 7s.....	63,000	New York.
St. Louis & St. Joseph 1st mortgage gold 6s.....	30,000	New York.
St Paul & Pacific:		
First mortgage main line land grant gold 7s.....	105,000	London.
Second mortgage main line land grant gold 7s.....	210,000	London.
Union Pacific, Central Branch, 1st mortgage gold 6s	48,000	New York.
Total.....	$1,741,190	

Gold has further declined, and on Thursday the lowest point since June, 1862, was reached—106⅛. The demand for coin is very light, both for mercantile and speculative uses, and has gone down, as any other commodity does, when there is no use for it. The raising of the Bank of England discount rate caused a reaction from the low price of Thursday, and sales have since been made as high as 107¾. The range of fluctuations during the week was between 106⅛ and 107¾, closing at 107½ on Saturday.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 20, 1873.

The Week.

ON the morning of the 7th instant, Captain Fry and thirty-seven of the crew of the *Virginius* were shot at Santiago, and though the accounts are conflicting, it seems pretty clear that most of the prisoners have been disposed of in the same way. The address of General Burriel to his soldiers confirms our previous accounts of the capture of the vessel. The *Virginius* did not offer any resistance, but made every effort to escape, the crew throwing overboard a quantity of arms to lighten the vessel; or, as General Burriel puts it, "The *Tornado* belched forth flames instead of smoke, going at her fullest speed. She finally came up with and captured the *Virginius*, which was taken possession of, with repeated cries of '*Viva España*' from the *Tornado's* valiant crew, without the slightest resistance from the others. One hundred and sixty-three men delivered themselves quietly up, having cravenly thrown overboard during the chase the arms which they ought never to have grasped, and the military equipage confided to them to defend their ignoble cause. This goes to show and to confirm the poverty of our enemies' efforts, and to demonstrate their impotence against the armies of Spain, which Providence manifestly favors." The chase began about eighteen miles from the coast of Cuba, according to the official reports, and lasted eight hours, so that when the *Virginius* surrendered she must have been very near Jamaica, the shortest distance between the two islands being about seventy miles.

In the meantime, it is fair to suppose that the "excitement" which the telegraph tells us is raging in every part of the country, but of which nobody appears to have seen anything yet, will not hurry the Administration into acts of hostility before it is ready for war. A naval Bull Run affair would be a serious matter, which neither Banks, nor Cox, nor even A. Oakey Hall could set to rights. It must not be forgotten that we have, according to the best authority, no navy. Nothing is worth counting as navy in our day except iron-clads, and of our iron-clads only eight, the *Ajax, Dictator, Mahopac, Manhattan, Miantonomah, Roanoke, Saugus*, and *Terror*, mounting in all twenty-four guns, can be made fit for sea. It would probably take from three to six months at least to get them ready, and, when got ready, they could not stay out on the open sea with safety. Of our twenty-six wooden steamers there is little use in talking, when Spain has eleven iron-clad frigates of the first-class, with all the modern improvements. She has in Cuban waters alone forty-five vessels, carrying 762 guns and 13,000 men. Any rash entrance on hostilities might, therefore, result in a check which would leave our ports at the mercy of the enemy, and produce a most disastrous effect on our commerce and finances. We hope that the people who are getting "excited" over the Cuban affair will think of these things. "The People Aroused," "The People's Voice," "Vox Populi," "America Arming," and "A Burst of Wrath," are the descriptions of the situation given by the *Times, Sun, Herald, World*, and *Tribune*. The Cincinnati *Gazette* says that there is a fearful excitement at all the telegraph stations and all the newspaper offices throughout the entire Western country, but that the persons who are "excited" keep themselves concealed.

A great crowd assembled on Monday evening at Steinway Hall to protest against the shooting of the *Virginius* prisoners. Resolutions were adopted calling upon the Government to take prompt and decisive measures against Spain. The chief speech of the evening—indeed, the only speech which was worth listening to—was Mr. Evarts's, which was reported in full in the morning papers. It would be difficult to give any one who was not present an exact idea of the sentiment of the meeting; but we may say that it was decidedly the most cheerful and hilarious war-meeting we have ever had the pleasure of attending. There was a good deal of confusion and laughter among the audience, hisses for Hamilton Fish, derisive enquiries addressed to any one who happened to be on the stand, and much shouting of a vague sort. Towards the end of the meeting Mr. George Francis Train was discovered on the floor, and the most vigorous efforts were made by disinterested persons to get him to address the meeting, which he seemed very unwilling to do. The demand for him, however, became noisier and noisier, until Mr. Train retreated from the prominent position which he occupied, and the meeting was suddenly adjourned. A number of martial airs were played upon the organ—an instrument not so well suited to stimulate the war-feeling as a brass band would have been. Altogether, however, the meeting was a great success, and another meeting was held round the corner at Tammany Hall, for the benefit of those who were crowded out of Steinway. The principal meeting was organized by the Cuban Junta. All allusions to international law were coldly received, but the most tremendous applause was elicited at any mention of war, carnage, blood, slaughter, humanity, civilization, or progress.

General Garfield and Senator Sherman, who is Chairman of the Senate Finance Committee, have made public their views with regard to the coming session of Congress. They are both of opinion that the House will do some reckless work, but General Garfield thinks that there will probably be so many schemes of inflation introduced that they will die a natural death in their struggle with each other; while Mr. Sherman is of opinion that, if this struggle for existence among the inflation schemes in the House results in the survival of any, these survivors will be given a *coup de grace* by the Senate. Senator Sherman's opinions on this subject are of course of importance, particularly as he has hitherto been supposed to be something of an inflationist himself. As we said the other day, hardly any prominent politician at Washington dares to avow himself an inflationist; and in view of the preparations for a foreign war now going on, it is important for everybody to notice the fact that for the quarter ending September 30, the revenue exceeded the expenditures by $6,000,000. During October the revenues fell off $3,000,000, and for this month the decrease, it is said, will be probably $5,000,000. Since October 1, the expenditures have exceeded the receipts. At the same time, the estimates of receipts from customs and from internal revenue will be less by several millions than last year, while the estimates from the departments will exceed those of last year by about $10,000,000. This statement, taken from the *Tribune's* Washington correspondence, is, in the main, reliable, and as to the estimated expenditure probably under rather than over the mark.

The *World* has recently been a good deal moved by the impudence of the *Times* of this city, which one short year ago used to denounce the *World* for factiousness because the latter journal felt obliged to publish articles in which it showed that the Grant Republicans were keeping on foot many ports of entry which were obsolete as regards commerce, and were merely ports of refuge for Republican political hulks, who were expected to do no other duty than draw their pay and work at primaries. Thus, in numerous articles it showed that there was a port in Maine called Frenchman's Bay where the receipt of customs was $36 45, while the cost of collection was $6,783; another called Kennebunk, where the receipts were $6 25, while the cost was $1,279; another, York by name, where the receipts were nothing at all, and the expenses were $368 39; and that all told there were in Maine twelve ports at which the sum-total of the customs expenses was in excess of the total receipts by almost $22,000. But at all these articles the

Times used to laugh, which, however, does not prevent its now having the nerve to come forward with denunciations of "what are facetiously called collection districts," and throwing the *World* into a condition of excitement. But to most people this will seem a fair reward for the *World's* suppression of the fact that custom-houses are good to prevent smuggling as well as to collect dues from importers and feed and clothe "Radical hulks," and for its concealment, for its own immediate purpose, of the fact that the prime cause of our inordinate numbers of custom-houses is not the *Times*, nor the collectors of the port at Frenchman's Bay, but the tariff which we maintain. In this view, we may add, the *Times's* support of Mr. Secretary Richardson's proposal to cut off a few custom-houses here and there is rather a bit of partisan subserviency to suggestions from headquarters than evidence of any care for reform or of its desire to flout its contemporary. It is not by retrenchments of the size of the one proposed that the XLIIId Congress is to give the country any relief.

Affairs have taken a decidedly upward turn, not in Wall Street only, but all over the country. There is not going to be any panic in England; nine per cent. is bringing bullion back into the vaults of the Bank of England; and if trouble does not come to us from Paris and Berlin, which is not likely, we are out of the woods. There has been only one "disquieting rumor" and two "malignant rumors" in Wall Street during the week. The former was a story of Vanderbilt's death, which, though it has been frequently used before for stock-jobbing purposes, was again successful in causing some people to rush out and begin selling their property. The latter were stories of a defalcation to the extent of $600,000 in a Western railroad, which finally dwindled down to a disputed account of $100,000, which was settled before the story got afloat of a New York bank having got into trouble owing to injudicious loans, and of the failure of a London house "heavily laden with American securities." This "London house" has been failing or going to fail every week for the last two months, and it owes it to the public to come down without further postponement. Its name is never revealed, but we should say, on general principles, that it was "Harris."

The report of the Committee of Nine of the Associated Banks on Banking Reform contains a valuable account of the actual condition of the business of banking in New York. The report chiefly deals with the practice of paying interest on deposits, which the committee says works in this way: The country banks, which are required by law to hold 15 per cent. of their liabilities as a reserve, in order not to lose money on this amount deposit say three-fifths of it with the New York banks, which are required to keep a reserve of 25 per cent. of their own liabilities, of which these country deposits now form a part. The New York banks, having secured this country reserve, immediately lend it, or a great part of it, and the result of all these operations is that when the usual autumn "tightness" of the money market comes round, instead of there being a reserve of 25 per cent. in the New York banks, and 15 per cent. in the country banks, there is about 10 per cent. in New York as a reserve for the whole system. The committee accordingly recommends the prohibition of interest on deposits. There is another difficulty, however, connected with the same subject. The New York banks may keep their 25 per cent. reserve either in gold or greenbacks, but experience proves that gold in a crisis is of no use, and the committee recommends that the banks be required to keep at least 15 per cent. in currency. They also recommend that no banks shall be allowed to certify checks without funds to the credit of the depositor to make them good; that drafts on Clearing-House banks only shall be received on deposit as cash; that checks and drafts on country banks shall be taken at rates of discount fixed monthly by the Clearing-House.

There is, however, a strong probability at this writing that a large number of banks will refuse to adopt the conclusions of the report, or to belong to a Clearing-House Association whose regulations are based on them. Banks which have had millions of deposits, on condition of paying interest on them, are hardly likely to relinquish suddenly and voluntarily the practice of taking them, and will naturally conclude, as we all do, that as it is now sixteen years since the last panic occurred, it will be at least as long before another occurs, and that in the meantime something will turn up. So, also, the banks which do most of the brokers' business, and find it profitable, are very unwilling, and would find it very much to their disadvantage, to give up certifying checks for them in the absence of deposits, and are not likely to do so, the legal prohibition in any wise notwithstanding. They all say that they know their own business best; that what they need is to be let alone, and relieved even from the legal restriction as to their reserve, and they talk of forming a Clearing-house of their own, in which they will do as they please about interest and certification. Should a split of this kind occur, the probability is that the distinction between interest-paying and certifying banks and the more conservative ones would become marked in the public mind, and the balances of prudent people would probably flow into the latter.

The November elections, so far as they concerned the Grangers, resulted as follows: In Wisconsin, Taylor, the Grange nominee for Governor, who was supported by the Democrats, carried the State, C. C. Washburn, the Republican candidate, being beaten by about 12,000 majority. They have secured, also, a majority of the legislature. In Minnesota, the Democrats supported the farmers' candidates, and in the contest for the governorship succeeded in reducing the Republican majority. In Illinois, the elections were of slight importance, but were carried generally by the farmers. In Kansas, on a joint ballot, the Grangers and Democrats are said to have a majority in the legislature. The general result may be said to be a triumph for the farmers, and we hope, now that they have come into power in so many States, they will explain what they mean to do with it. There is a very strong resemblance between the rise of this party and that of the Prohibitionists. There are a number of States which the Prohibitionists carry regularly every other year, but, owing to practical difficulties, their success has had just that amount of effect on intemperance which we must say we expect the farmers' successes to have on the extortions of the railroad men, the iniquitous exactions of the pork men, and the infamous tyranny of the dealers in mowing and reaping machines.

The large part played by women in our system of public instruction has hitherto borne but scanty fruit, and only here and there are they beginning by courtesy to be appointed on school-committees and as local superintendents. In Illinois, however, the law has now come gallantly to their rescue, and last July an act went into force declaring "any woman, married or single, of the age of twenty-one years and upwards, and possessing the qualifications prescribed for men," eligible to any office under the school laws of the State. We learn from the Chicago *Tribune* that "at the recent election there were thirty-four ladies running in thirty counties of this State for the office of county superintendent of schools. Of these, eleven were successful—in several cases over candidates of the same sex; in one case, over candidates of both sexes." Eleven married ladies were among the contestants, and five were elected—a proportion due, we dare say, to the good sense of the voters, rather than to the fact that they had husbands to canvass for them. The *Tribune* reminds its readers that this is the second time that Illinois has enlarged woman's sphere of usefulness—the legislature having last year admitted her to the bar and to all other professions and callings except the military. Doubtless it will never have cause to regret either of these innovations, but it is more than ever incumbent on the State to provide the best education for women. The progress in this direction in England is marked by the steady increase of those who desire to avail themselves of the facilities offered at Cambridge. According to the *Athenæum*, the entries for the lectures for women already amount to 180, and the entries for the classes conducted by means of correspondence to 170.

On the first day of the last session of Congress Mr. Sumner offered a bill ordering the removal from the Army Register, and the regimental flags of the regular army, all names of battles which occurred in the late war, "in order that the memory of past internal strife might be obliterated." This proposal, which was looked upon as a renewal of Mr. Sumner's "reconciliative" efforts during the Greeley canvass, was received by the Administration senators "with smiles —not of approval." To do Mr. Sumner justice, perhaps the bill, timid as it was, deserved about that amount of respect; and to do justice to the Administration senators, it is probable that had they foreseen the revelations of the next few months, they might have received the bill with rather less derision. A wonderful tempest in a teapot the bill raised in Massachusetts when the legislature, under the lead of some very cock-a-hoop young Republican representatives, friends of Butler, drove the more timid members—overawed by the November majorities—into passing resolutions censuring their senator. The Springfield *Republican* has recently busied itself in sending to every senator-elect and representative-elect in Western Massachusetts an enquiry whether he would oppose or support a rescinding resolution. Gratifying replies announce that most of these gentlemen will "go for the repeal," or are "unqualifiedly in favor of expunging." The good sense of Mr. Sumner's bill apart, we suppose there would be no appreciable disappointment should the legislature take the action indicated. Nor do we suppose Mr. Sumner would greatly suffer if it should not.

Readers of the newspapers have often seen mysterious allusions to the oppressions of the poor farmers by "Town-site Rings." The Grange correspondent of the *Tribune* explains the nature of these rings this week. The land-grant railroads, it seems, receiving as they do alternate sections from the United States, have been obliged to offer inducements to settlers in order to prevent their buying the cheaper Government sections first. They have therefore got their own sections exempted from State taxation; besides this, they have corruptly placed their stations on their own land instead of that of the United States. This of course has had the effect of making the lands sold by the Town-site Ring more attractive to farmers than any other. By this means quantities of land in the West along the lines of railroads have been exempted for years from taxation, and the non-taxpaying farmers have been very lavish of the town and county money in consequence; for instance, in one of the towns on the Atchison, Topeka, and Santa Fé Road, a county court-house worth $200,000 and a very expensive bridge are being built, and other extravagant public improvements are going on. Now, this town is situated on a railroad section, and half the county is railroad land. Town-lots and farms are sold by the railroad company on eleven years' credit. The title does not pass for eleven years, and therefore the State cannot tax for eleven years. The settlers on these lands are therefore very glad to vote an issue of county bonds for public improvements maturing in ten years, and this they have done. The injustice practised here seems to be the oppression of one part of the settlers by another; but the Grangers say that it is all the work of the grinding monopolists.

This correspondent has also given a sort of résumé of all his letters on the subject of the Grange, in which he again makes the futile assertion that the Granges have nothing to do with politics. As we have repeatedly said, this is a very silly disclaimer, for the same men are Grangers and members of the farmers' associations which nominate candidates, control caucuses, and intimidate judges, and make all the outcry about "watered stock." He gives the following account of the remedies now proposed for the existing difficulties:

"The remedy proposed is different in almost every State. Some propose a pro-rata law; some desire a fixed rate of maximum tariffs for freight and passengers; some desire that the question shall be regulated by the State, and some by the United States. In some States the present contest is over the power of the legislature to control the railroads; in others, the power is conceded either in the charters of the companies or the constitutions of the States, and then the question is, *how* shall the power be exercised? Some hold that the right of eminent domain exercised by a State in condemning private property for the use of railroads is a right pertaining only to the State in its sovereign capacity, and one of which it cannot in any way divest itself."

In other words, the farmers in each State want something entirely different from what is wanted in every other.

The text of the Comte de Chambord's letter to M. Chesnelong has been published, and fully explains the collapse of the Legitimist movement. He expresses his surprise that conditions should be expected of him by his friends in the Assembly. The Comte de Paris asked for none; President MacMahon was not asked for any when he took office; Henry IV. would never have made any; and so on. On the contrary, he thinks the work before him, if he ascends the throne, is so serious that he will need all the authority that divine right can give him to accomplish it. He has, he says, to reorganize society on a sure basis; to secure the reign of law; to revive prosperity; to contract durable alliances abroad; and use force, if necessary, for the preservation of order; and how could he do all this if he was trammelled by pledges? He declares, moreover, that he is "the only one capable of bringing the ship [of state] into the harbor, because he has the mission and authority to do it." As there is no reason to doubt the Count's honesty, the letter makes it very clear that M. Chesnelong, who is a busybody of the "Colorado Jewett" type, grossly deceived the public as to the nature of the communications made to him by the candidate; and that, in fact, the majority in the Assembly has been the victim of a somewhat ridiculous mystification. The collapse also leaves the Orleans family in an awkward position, as they, by the fusion, abandoned the position of adherents to constitutionalism, which they had previously held, and now share in the disaster which has overtaken divine right.

There is nothing settled at this writing as to the prolongation of MacMahon's powers. The compromise proposed in the Committee on Prolongation was five years, but MacMahon himself has sent in a message to the Assembly asking for seven years, and expresses his desire to have the term begin before the Assembly votes the constitutional bills. He says that he will use any powers entrusted to him in the Conservative interest. The Committee, it is reported, is willing to concede the seven years, but nothing more. What the Marshal means by using his powers in the Conservative interest is indicated by his refusal to receive deputations which had come to Paris from the provinces to protest against the re-establishment of the monarchy, by his hostility to the Radical press, and, indeed, to all public demonstrations of an exciting political kind. He appears to regard the Assembly, in short, as the sovereign power, and to regard all attempts to influence it by agitation as seditious and deserving of repression, which is, perhaps, as near Liberalism as any French soldier of distinction has ever got, and which does not differ sensibly from the position General Cavaignac held in 1848-9, though he was by conviction a Republican, which MacMahon is far from being. The Bonapartists are still a little undecided as to what their course should be, but have resolved, in a little council held by the leaders in Paris, that they will insist on the decision of the question of the form of government by a plébiscite. But then this is not what the rogues said in 1851. Then they fixed the form of government themselves, and took the plébiscite afterwards, which is indeed what all parties do in France when they get the opportunity.

The only piece of news of any importance from Germany is that Prince Bismarck has been reinstated at the head of the Prussian Cabinet with flying colors, General Von Roon retiring. Von Roon, though a valuable military man, has but moderate sympathy with Bismarck's progressive policy, and especially, it is said, with the Ultramontane features of it, and as long as he remained in the Cabinet even the Presidency was less than Bismarck required to make his influence all he desired it to be. This fresh proof of the hearty support of the Emperor will give an increased impetus to the onslaught on the Ultramontane bishops, and destroy the hope which they secretly cherished, and of which the Pope's letter was an insolent expression, that his persistence might be broken down.

THE "VIRGINIUS."

THE summary execution of the large number of persons captured on board the *Virginius*, a few of whom were actually or nominally American citizens—an execution following a trial which at most was such as is used for military offenders of the worst sort in the hurry of operations in the face of an enemy, and which seems to have been conducted without even the show of decorum that accompanies the ordinary drum-head court-martial—has naturally awakened a feeling of horror throughout the country; and doubtless Europe will send back an immediate echo to our expressions of indignation. We would not in the least restrain this outburst of civilized wrath against Spanish ferocity and barbarism. If any of the persons taken on the steamer and shot to death in this manner were *bona-fide* American citizens, to whom the nation owed protection, even though they had committed crimes against Spain capital by its municipal law, an outrage has certainly been done to the United States from the *manner* of the trial and punishment—an outrage which can only be atoned for by an ample apology and by some severe personal penalty inflicted upon the local officials who thus violated at once the rights of humanity and of a friendly nation. From this position there can be no dissent; but it will hardly satisfy those who see in the whole transaction a violation of international law far more grave than the military execution of the prisoners. It is said that the capture of the *Virginius* was without color of authority, and that, as all the subsequent proceedings were tainted with this original illegality, an offence has been done to the United States which cannot be wiped out by any apology. This view seems to be maintained by many influential newspapers of both political parties; and it is evident that a pressure has been and will be brought to bear upon the Government, urging it to immediate and violent action against Spain, perhaps even to the extremity of war. As the national honor is involved in any aspect of the case, and as the theoretical and practical rules which control the intercourse of nations are matters of much public interest, we propose to examine the questions at issue as carefully as the limits of a single article will permit.

In the first place, we will state the facts which have thus far been established beyond a doubt, because the legal aspects of the case—legal, we mean, in the sense of international law—are intimately bound up with and depend upon these facts. For several years past, a state of insurrection has existed in portions of Cuba. While this insurrection has assumed such a character and such proportions that the Spanish Government has confessedly been unable to repress it by the ordinary methods of civil procedure and the civil tribunals, and has, therefore, resorted to the use of military force, that Government has never recognized the contest as being in any sense a war—not even a civil war; it has always alleged that its military force was merely in aid of the civil arm. In other words, it has acted upon exactly the same theory as that adopted by the United States Government in its first proclamations at the outbreak of our own rebellion. This position of Spain has been assented to and treated as valid by the United States and by other countries. The facts fully sustain this theory. The insurgents are not belligerents; they have no seaports, no means of directly and officially communicating with the world, no organized civil administration that is worthy to be called even a *de facto* government. The contrast between them and the Confederate States at the very inception of our rebellion is striking and complete. As the Cuban insurgents have no seaports, and, therefore, no territorial base of their own from which a navy can operate, and, as they possess no quasi-national flag which other countries recognize as even a belligerent flag, and as they cannot therefore fit out any vessels, warlike or commercial, naval or privateering, under their own colors, they are forced to use the flag of some other power (which for purpose of brevity we may call a neutral) in order to cover their hostile expeditions upon the ocean. Such a use must of necessity be a fraud upon the neutral as well as upon other nations, for the hostile naval expeditions are and must be disguised under a pretended show of commercial adventure. For obvious reasons, the United States flag is the one whose aid has thus far been generally invoked. It is notorious that a colony or society of Cuban insurgents has long been stationed in New York and in other seaboard cities, which has been engaged in fitting out and sending hostile armed naval expeditions under the guise of lawful mercantile voyages. The very newspapers which denounce the acts of the Spanish authorities as an outrage upon the United States because an American registered ship sailing under the American flag has been seized, state without an attempt at equivocation or concealment that this vessel was entirely under the control of the insurgents who make New York their base of operations, that the object of its voyage was military aid to their confederate insurgents in Cuba, and that the pretence of a trading voyage even in contraband was without a color of truth. The *Virginius* was an American-built steamer originally engaged in ordinary commerce. About two years ago she was bought by the Cuban insurgents who are stationed in this country, although doubtless the title was taken in the name of some American citizen. She once had, of course, an American register, and we assume that this register has never been changed, no matter who her real owners may have been and are. Since her purchase she has been used to convey warlike supplies, arms, material, and probably men, to the insurgents upon the island, but where she obtained her cargoes it is not now necessary to enquire. On the last voyage she had on board, besides a cargo of war material, a large body of Cubans who beyond a doubt were intending to join the forces with which they sympathized. She took on this cargo at and sailed from Kingston under the United States flag. Her destination was some concealed and favorable point on the coast of Cuba, where she was to unload the arms and ammunition and discharge the recruits. Nearing this coast she was seen by a Spanish gunboat, and immediately turned her course towards the island of Jamaica. The Spanish man-of-war pursued, overtook, and captured her. This capture was either on the high seas or within the territorial waters of Jamaica. There is some conflict of evidence as to the exact place of the seizure; but it is enough to say that the rights of the United States as against Spain do not at all depend upon the decision of this particular question. If the act itself was a wrong done by Spain to this country, it was equally and for the same reasons a wrong whether done on the high seas or within British waters. In the latter case Great Britain might be interested; but her interest either as against Spain or ourselves could not affect the relations of the United States to Spain growing out of the capture.

This outline of facts is sufficient for our purpose, and nothing has been stated in a positive manner which depends upon doubtful or conflicting evidence. The point which we emphasize, and in respect of which we challenge contradiction, is this: the *Virginius* was not a *bona-fide* American vessel, really owned by American citizens, chartered and controlled by traders, and engaged in a commercial adventure in articles contraband of war—a species of adventure which, while it renders the vessel and cargo liable under certain circumstances to be seized and confiscated by the injured belligerent, is not in any true sense a violation of international law. Although nominally American, she was in fact owned and was entirely controlled by persons who were either themselves Cuban insurgents, or who were agents of such insurgents acting in their behalf, and her voyage was for the purpose of carrying to these insurgents arms and other material owned by them, and transporting to them recruits for their warlike force. In other words, the element of trade, of buying contraband and shipping it in a neutral bottom, with a design of selling it to one of the hostile parties, was utterly wanting.

What are the doctrines of the international law which apply to these facts? Has Spain by this capture violated its duty to a friendly power, and inflicted an outrage upon the United States which follows and affects all the subsequent proceedings, even the trial and punishment of the Spanish subjects who were made prisoners? Some of the newspapers, and among others the *Tribune*,

have found a remarkable solution of this difficulty in the simple fact that the Cuban insurgents have not been recognized as belligerents. Conceding that, if such recognition had been made, the capture would have been lawful, these expounders of the international law assert that in the absence of the recognition any seizure upon the high seas is prohibited. According to them, as a state of war does not exist between Spain and its rebellious subjects, all that the former can do is to guard its territorial waters around the island of Cuba, and seize any warlike vessel of the rebels which is found within the limits of such waters. If this be true, the Cuban insurgents may fit out armed vessels at discretion, which may hover off the shores of the island, awaiting their opportunity to enter and land; and as long as they do not cross a line drawn at the distance of a marine league from the coast, the Spanish cruisers can only look at them, but cannot molest them. A rule of law which necessarily leads to a result so absurd bears on its face the evident marks of inaccuracy. In fact, it is difficult to conceive of a greater confusion of subjects and doctrines than is found in the position we have thus stated. It is true that neutral vessels engaged in commerce cannot be taken on the high seas on the ground that they are carrying contraband, or are attempting to break a blockade, unless the hostilities between the combatants amount to war, or, in other words, unless these combatants are belligerents. If a rebellion arises of such magnitude that some resort to arms is necessary, but the supreme government insists that the force and resistance do not constitute war, the control of that government over the foreign commerce which comes to its ports must be exercised within the ports themselves, or at most within the territorial waters which surround the coast. For this reason a blockade, if it be enforced on the high seas and be not confined to the territorial waters, *ipso facto* admits belligerency. While this doctrine is sustained by all modern jurists of authority, it relates solely to *neutral commerce*, to commercial voyages and adventures of neutral owners in neutral bottoms with one of the hostile parties, and particularly with that one which has not as yet assumed such an appearance of nationality as to entitle it to belligerent rights. The doctrine has no relation with, no possible application to, vessels actually owned by that hostile party, and engaged, not in any legitimate commerce, but in transporting arms, ammunition, and recruits over the ocean to the scene of the military struggle. The rule exists solely in the interests of trade, and of trade carried on by neutral merchants. If such merchants see fit to use their vessels in carrying contraband to the rebels, they run the risk of forfeiting the ship and cargo if caught within the territory—that is, within the national jurisdiction—of the mother-country which is putting down the insurrection; but they do not run the risk of forfeiting their ships and cargoes by capture on the high seas, unless the mother-country is willing to treat the contest as a war. In other words, when a government chooses to repress an insurrection by means of its municipal law alone, its field of operations, so far as neutrals—that is, the rest of the world—are concerned, must be confined to its own territorial jurisdiction. But it does not thence follow that its field of operations, so far as the rebels are concerned, must be confined within the same limits. There is no such restriction upon the powers of a nation towards its own insurgent subjects. If it meets those subjects on the high seas in a vessel belonging to them, engaged in warlike operations on their behalf, it may capture such vessel and its subjects on board her. The high seas belong to it as much as to any other nation; its jurisdiction over its own subjects extends to the high seas, provided they are there found upon its or their vessels; in fact, so far as the question of jurisdiction is involved, the vessels of its insurgent subjects are its vessels, for, according to no law recognized either by itself or by other peoples, has the bond of allegiance between all its subjects and itself been broken. It is plain, then, that the position we are examining is the result of an utter confusion of ideas, of a misapplication of rules relating to one state of facts and one species of persons to an entirely different state of facts and kind of persons.

We therefore reach the following proposition: While the Spanish Government cannot in the present aspect of the insurrection seize a *bona-fide* American vessel engaged in actual commerce upon the high seas or anywhere, except in Spanish territorial waters, even though the object of the voyage is to carry contraband to the rebellious combatants in Cuba, yet it may beyond question capture on the high seas a vessel which confessedly belongs to these insurgents, and which is engaged in carrying arms, ammunition, or recruits to them, or in rendering them any military service. If this be so, it is very plain that these insurgents, while actually owning, controlling, and using a vessel in this manner, might give to her the appearance of a neutral ship sailing under a neutral flag, and yet the appearance be so false, and the act so fraudulent, that no question could arise but that the power and jurisdiction of the mother government over it would remain as complete as though the ownership and control were avowedly in the insurgent body. Indeed, such a subterfuge would in all cases be absolutely necessary. Not possessing a *de-facto* government, nor a flag recognized in any manner by other nations, the insurgents could never use a vessel in their own name and under their own colors. A ship so described in its papers, and flying an unknown flag, could not enter and depart from the ports of other countries. The only method, therefore, open to the community we are describing is to conceal its own ownership and control under the thin disguise of a neutral ownership and flag. If the mere fact of such disguise, without enquiry into the true ownership and control, ousts the mother government of jurisdiction over the vessel on the high seas, then we reach this astounding result, that insurgents not recognized, and not entitled to be recognized, as belligerents may cover the ocean with vessels armed, or carrying arms and recruits, fraudulently sailing under a neutral flag, and the mother government be absolutely powerless to interfere with them. If this be so, then a concession of belligerent rights, instead of being a boon eagerly to be sought for by a rebellious community, is an evil to be avoided and prevented at all hazards. This is truly a *reductio ad absurdum*.

THE REASONS FOR KEEPING COOL ABOUT IT.

There does not appear to be any reason to doubt that the Government will deal with the questions raised by the capture of the *Virginius* and the butchery of the crew and passengers, with all the requisite coolness and prudence, as well as with all the requisite energy. In other words, it does not appear that it stands in need of any guidance or pressure from public opinion. But, then, it will certainly be an immense assistance to it in any line of action on which it may determine to have from the public a fair amount of intelligent and thoughtful support. There are some influences at work, as in all similar cases, which are calculated to prevent such support being given. One is, of course, the constant tendency of the newspapers to treat questions of this character in a sensational way under any circumstances. Many editors consider it a sort of patriotic duty to lose their heads whenever they are called on to discuss any matter which appears to involve the honor of the national flag, and public men are apt to conceive it to be the part of personal prudence in such cases to take the extreme anti-foreign view, whatever may be the state of the facts or the bearing of the law. The people, in this matter, are apt to be left, at very trying crises, without any advice or information from the very persons whose special duty it is to supply it, on points, too, on which it is almost impossible for the average man, with his business to attend to, to make up his mind in a rational way. Just now, the ordinary risks of the situation are somewhat aggravated by the fact that the excitement about the panic is rapidly subsiding, and the winter prospect would, without the Cuban trouble, be a very dull one for the reporters. A foreign war, too, would be an enormous relief to a great many Congressmen in face of the probability that they will have to pass the next six months in dull financial discussions, and

to the large band of speculators who are eager for some good excuse for inflating the currency. There are a great many heads "inside politics" which are much better filled with ideas about "Morro Castle," and the value of Cuba as a naval station, than about foreign exchange or the best mode of resumption. There are a great many financiers, too, who, while they are half ashamed to ask for expansion in order to help them out of their own difficulties, would have no hesitation in asking for it to help to "vindicate the national honor."

In acting against the Spaniards, we owe it to ourselves and to international usage to endeavor to put ourselves, to a reasonable degree, in their place. We ought not to forget, in measuring their guilt, that the men whom they have massacred are the chiefs and promoters of an insurrection which has now lasted for several years; and which, however noble or justifiable we may think it, they look on as an attempt to dismember and humiliate their country; and which—and this is the most important point of all—has, during that whole period, had its base and headquarters in this city. More Cuban generals, and colonels, and commissaries could, we venture to say, for a long while past have been seen in Broadway, on fine days, than in the island of Cuba, and the great bulk of the supplies of arms and munitions which the insurgents have received have come from this country, owing to the connivance or negligence of United States officers at various ports. What most contributed to the capture of the *Virginius* was the notoriety with which the preparations for her voyage were made, and this notoriety was the direct result of long-enjoyed impunity. Everybody in Cuba was on the lookout for her, and she was known to contain a fine batch of insurrectionary leaders; the temptation to massacre them, and thus end the struggle, was therefore overpowering to the savages into whose hands they fell. In fact, their readiness to capture the ship at all hazards—she being an old offender—will be understood by those who can imagine the feelings with which the trip of a steamer from Liverpool to Charleston with a lot of Confederate leaders on board would have been regarded in 1862. The officer who threw his law-books overboard and seized her, anywhere and anyhow, would hardly have fared worse, in the public estimation, than Captain Wilkes after he took Mason and Slidell out of the mail steamer. Of course no butchery or cruelty would have been thought of; and this leads us to another plea in behalf of the Santiago cut-throats which is perhaps not powerful, but which is to be weighed.

A year ago or more, a number of gentlemen in Madrid, after the experiment of getting somebody to reign in Spain as a king had been tried and had thoroughly failed, agreed that they would hereafter call Spain "a republic." There was no harm in this that we could see. In fact, it was the only thing to be done. But there was also no prospect of immediate good in it, as we pointed out at the time. It left Spain just as she was, neither better nor worse; the defects of character, and manners, and opinions which had made her for a century and a half a barbarous and declining nation, were still as deep as ever. The causes which had made the monarchy a failure were still at work, and were likely to make the republic a failure. Nevertheless, a considerable number of persons here worked themselves into a state of enthusiasm over the change, and tried to persuade people that a process of regeneration had suddenly begun in Spain, and that all that the rest of the world had to do was to look on and wonder or admire. Within a few weeks, the republic broke down and was postponed. The army went to pieces; the navy revolted; the provinces began to declare themselves independent; and ministers at Madrid came and went like a showman's diorama. A dictator was accordingly appointed, and even he declared he could not rule if the legislature did not adjourn. He has at this moment three civil wars on his hands, which are waged with that feeble indecisiveness which characterizes all Spanish military operations, and he is forced to confess that in the greatest remaining colony of the nation neither the army nor the navy obeys his orders. Our demand for satisfaction for a gross outrage, indeed, seems likely to result in his overthrow, if he complies.

Now, what has this to do with our attitude in this Cuban matter? Much. The Spaniards in Cuba, on whose heads we are now calling for vengeance, are men of precisely the same kind as the Spanish in Spain whom we are embracing as brother republicans. They are not one whit more lawless or more cruel. The Santiago and Havana volunteers have the passions of their countrymen at home, and are doing what their countrymen wish them to do, and in the way they wish them to do it, and what any Spaniard brought out to Cuba would do in their place. The attempt to distinguish between the two is either childish or ignorant. The Cuban civil war has all the characteristics of all the Spanish civil wars during the last century—that is, it is languid, desultory, ferocious, and indecisive. Civil and religious tyranny have so debauched the Spanish people that though individually brave they have lost the capacity for combined and protracted effort even in military enterprises, which is one of the highest marks of civilization. It is one hundred and fifty years since a Spanish army counted for anything among military men. Fifty thousand Frenchmen or Germans could any day during that time have marched to Madrid, and would be sure to dissolve any large force that attempted to bar their passage. But then they would find themselves incessantly harassed, as in all barbarous countries, by guerillas. The country people and the soldiers would "bushwhack" them, as the Circassians or Greeks or Kabyles would do. There would be plenty of fighting, but, on the Spanish side, it would be by individuals and small bands from behind rocks. There would be found neither the capacity for command nor the capacity for obedience, nor the mutual confidence, nor the stalwart courage, out of which great armies are made, and by which great fields are won and national self-respect preserved and perpetuated. There would be found the remorseless cruelty which has characterized the operations in Cuba. The shooting or torture of prisoners is a process with which every Spanish officer is familiar. It took place all through the war of independence against the French, and all through the Carlist war of 1837; and it takes place in the two civil wars now waging on Spanish soil. All these wars, too, were and are characterized by the languor which marks the Cuban war. The first Carlist war lasted six years, though waged against the whole Spanish army, aided by a "British Legion." There appears to be no good reason why the present operations against Cartagena, both by sea and land, should not last indefinitely. The Spaniards of the New World, too, appear to have both the traditionary virtues and vices of the mother country. They are perpetually at war, though their war is never on a great scale, and a victory is invariably, or all but invariably, followed by wholesale executions. The Cuban Creoles, long-suffering patriots though they be, are just as cruel as the men they war against. There has been no atrocity committed in the present struggle by the Spaniards which they have not matched. Why should they be any better than the Spaniards? We wish some of their rhetorical friends in this country would, after having bathed their own heads, ask themselves this question, and answer it: What reason have we for supposing that the descendants of Spaniards, bred to a tropical climate, under the teaching of tropical Catholicism, in contact with negro slavery, and under a military government, have become the sober, chaste, self-restrained, brave, and humane patriots who are usually held up for popular admiration at indignation meetings? It ought to be asked just now with more than usual solemnity, and answered with a more than the usual sense of responsibility, because when we talk of annexing Cuba, as some of our orators do most glibly, we mean the admission to a share in this government of a motley million and a half of Spaniards, Cubans, and negroes, to whom our religion, manners, political traditions and habits, and modes of thought are, to tell the honest truth, about as familiar as they are to the King of Dahomey. If ever there was a step which the nation needed to take with a cool head, it is the step of meddling in this Cuban matter.

THE BANKS AND THE FINANCIAL CRISIS.

WE can hardly suggest more cheerful reading to those who take gloomy views of the existing financial situation, than the report of the Committee of the Clearing-House Association on the reforms required in the practical operations of banks with each other and with the public, and to increase the security of their business. We do not mean by this that the report puts the actual condition of trade and commerce at this moment in any better light, or opens up any new way out of our present difficulties. But it shows beyond question that at a time when the air is filled with delusive schemes for financial reform, the leading financial institutions of the country are in the hands of men who keep their heads cool, thoroughly understand their business, and are prepared to conduct it under the most trying circumstances with unshaken skill and courage. Nothing could well be more creditable than the way in which the banks of this city met the storm which is passing away; but how well they met it, and how serious the consequences would have been if they had failed to unite, we did not know until the present report appeared. It asserts, and asserts truly, that the banks of New York have gradually but inevitably become the last resort in this country, as the Bank of England is in Great Britain, in times of financial extremity—that is to say, they have in their possession, or under their control, a very large proportion of the floating capital of the country, and, more than this, are the ultimate holders of the reserves of nearly all the country banks. If they give way, therefore, in a panic, ruin reigns; that they did not give way in this last panic, was only prevented by the thorough comprehension of the situation shown by the stronger banks, whose managers are the authors of the report before us. Nothing could well have been more unfortunate than the situation in which the failure of Jay Cooke & Co. found them. "When the panic commenced," says the report, "the sixty banks composing the New York Clearing-House were indebted for about two hundred millions of deposits. Of this amount, three institutions owed about fifty, and, including these, twelve banks owed about one hundred millions"; the other forty-eight owed the remaining hundred millions. Consequently, the twelve must inevitably have gone to pieces if the others had not promptly agreed to make common cause with them, and to see them safely through the crisis, which they did. Had these twelve failed, the consternation would have been so great that probably no financial establishment, and but few commercial houses, would have lived through the crash. There is some talk in the report about "fraternal sympathy" as one of the motives which induced the strong banks to help the weak; but this might better have been spared, as it has naturally given occasion to hostile critics to say that this is all pretence, and that the real reason of the alliance was the fear of the strong banks that their own funds, lent on commercial paper, would be lost if they allowed their erring brethren to be overthrown. As a rule, all emotional banking is bad banking. The banker's highest virtue, after honesty, is prudence; he has no more to do with kindness or any other passion than with art or literature. Therefore, if the authors of the report had said that the banks united for purposes of self-preservation, they would have uttered the highest boast in which it is permitted to a banker to indulge.

There are, too, passages containing definitions of the nature of banking, and of the relations of the banks to the community, and pronouncing condemnation on "competition," which most thoughtful men will consider too sweeping or too hasty. The following, for instance, is a statement which few will be disposed to accept without a great deal of qualification:

> "Bank officers have no right to be sharp personal competitors for public patronage, nor merely laborers for dividends on behalf of a limited constituency. They are in a most important sense trustees for the whole community and public administrators of great interests, which forbid the least departure from principles which long experience has sanctified."

This is all in a measure true, but only in a measure. It is for the interest of the public that banks should "compete for public patronage," and also that they should "labor for dividends"; so that the question turns on what is meant by competition. If you say they should compete in the display of bankers' virtues—foremost among which is prudence—you say everything that need be said, but nothing very new.

Now, how did it happen that these twelve banks owed so much, and that $58,916,000 was withdrawn from them in a few days during the panic, while the other forty-eight only lost $30,142,000? Simply because the twelve invited the deposits from the country banks by offering four per cent. interest. They were thus burdened during the summer months with enormous sums, which they were compelled to lend again on stocks and bonds; and when confidence was lost in Wall Street, and the depositors began to call in their money, there would have been nothing for it but to break, if the banks which had avoided the pernicious practice had not, do not let us say generously or kindly, but *wisely* come to their aid, and assisted in bearing the burdens which imprudence, not to say recklessness, had imposed.

We say recklessness, because the dangers of paying interest on deposits were fully revealed in 1857 by the panic of that year. Another Committee of the Clearing-House Association then condemned it in the strongest terms, and forty-two banks agreed, in March, 1858, not to receive an account and allow interest on it. The war, and the revolution which it created in the banking system of the State, and the appearance on the scene of many new banks and new men, caused this salutary pledge to be forgotten; the old mode of getting business was resorted to on a greater scale than ever, and with results still more serious—for, when the last panic broke out, the New York banks were so laden with country deposits that their own and the reserves of all the national banks put together were reduced to about ten per cent. of their liabilities; that is to say, the subdivision of the reserve is carried to such a point that it in reality dwindles down at last in the financial centre, the seat of "the last resort," to less than half the sum required by law or prescribed by prudence.

Reckless taking of deposits, with accompanying liability for interest, naturally tends to reckless lending. The depositary who pays four per cent. must make more than that or perish, and in dull times he cannot be very particular about security. The banks dealing with stock-brokers, therefore, got into the habit of certifying checks whether the drawer had funds or not, and leaving it to his honor to "cover" them before the close of the day. To such an extent was this practice carried that the report says that some of the banks have certified daily to twice or three times, and in one or two cases to four or five times, the amount of their capital stock "through long periods." In other words, while the directors were debating in the parlor the standing of merchants applying for loans of tens of thousands of dollars, the tellers were, on their own responsibility, without any consultation at all, pledging the credit of the banks to brokers for hundreds of thousands of dollars without any security. We ask all revilers of Wall Street, however, to take notice that the confidence they so recklessly bestowed was, even in the whirlwind of the panic, only once betrayed. Of the millions on millions thus borrowed, through long periods of time, on a simple understanding, nothing was lost or endangered through any man's falsehood or shortcoming, except in one instance. We know of no body of men in the country which can present such a splendid proof of its integrity, and the Board of Brokers might challenge any church, club, or society to subject its members to such a test, and have no fear of the results. This by no means justifies the practice of certifying checks, but it explains in part how it grew up. The Clearing-House report recommends its utter prohibition henceforward; but one of the curious features in this portion of the document is the slight notice it takes of the legal prohibition of the practice. Indeed, one of the minor recommendations uttered in support of the proposed prohibition is "that it will conform to and confirm the law on this subject."

The portion of the report which will most interest the public, however, is that which regards the relations of the banks to the money market. The doctrine, as we have said, is boldly, and we

think justifiably, laid down that the New York banks have come to occupy towards the money market of this country very much the position of the Bank of England towards that of Great Britain; that is to say, the unemployed capital of the country naturally flows to this city as the great financial centre, and it will continue to flow here whether interest is paid on deposits or not. It is the reserve of the New York banks which financiers all over the country watch when they wish to know the "state of the moneyed mind" or forecast the commercial future. "Ease" in New York means ease everywhere, and "stringency" in New York means stringency everywhere; and if the New York banks fail, the other banks follow their example. Now, the Bank of England is armed with powers corresponding to its responsibilities. Inasmuch as the business of the whole country is in a measure dependent on its mode of conducting *its* business, it is allowed, as far as the banking department is concerned, to conduct business as it pleases; that is to say, being a dealer in money, it is left like a dealer in any other commodity to its own judgment and discretion. Accordingly, it raises or lowers the rate of interest as the times may seem to require. If there appears to be trouble ahead, from whatever cause, it hoists a danger-signal by a rise, and then prudent men go into port or take in sail. If one rise will not do, it makes another, and continues them until the community has got its head cool, and made everything snug. Our banks here begin to bear very much the same responsibilities, and have no such power. They are tied down to 7 per cent. by an absurd provision of the National Banking Law, so that no matter what dangers they may see in the future, they have no power to give warning to the country at large or enforce caution among financiers. Money, it is true, rises "on the street" far above the legal rate, far above any rate ever paid before by civilized man to his fellow in time of profound peace; but the quotations of it make no impression on the public mind. When people hear that money was one-sixteenth or one-eighth over the legal rate in New York yesterday, they think that it was only the "stock-gamblers" that were paying it to support their wicked speculations, and that "the legitimate business of the country" was going quietly on at the supposed scriptural rate of seven per cent. Now, if the New York banks could last winter have given open warning that trouble was ahead, and that "railroad men" and all other promoters of new enterprises must cut down their estimates, or, in other words, that the country was running ahead of its disposable capital and available credit, most assuredly the fall would have found us in a sounder condition than it did.

The report recognizes this fact, but in feeble and timid language, which reveals only too clearly the extent to which even the minds of the ablest business men of the community have been debauched by Government interference. The following passage is a curiosity in its way:

> "The Associated Banks of New York, the ultimate resource in financial emergencies, are deprived by usury laws of the power, which is so effectively used by the principal banks in Europe, of protecting or augmenting their resources by adjusting the rate of interest to the necessities of the occasion—a power which, if practicable, Congress might safely confer upon the Clearing-House Committee, in consultation with the Secretary of the Treasury, with great advantage to the country; as also the power of deciding when the time or the emergency has arisen in which the public interest requires a relaxation of the rigid legal requirement in respect to the reserve to be held by banks in New York city."

The notion that the Secretary of the Treasury, or, in other words, whatever country storekeeper or village lawyer the President may reward for his political services by giving him the charge of the public money, can help the leading bankers of the second commercial city in the world to decide when they ought to raise the rate of interest on their loans, is one which, better than anything which we have seen of late, illustrates the change which has come over the public mind since the war, regarding the relations of the Government to the nation. Which of these bank presidents would think of consulting Mr. Boutwell or Mr. Richardson about the rate of interest if these gentlemen lived at home in Groton or Lowell? and is there any subtle virtue in the title of Secretary of the Treasury which makes him a financial authority after he gets to Washington? That the Secretary should be consulted with regard to the relaxation of the legal limit of the reserve is reasonable enough as long as the Government guarantees the payment of the bank-bills. The Government here represents the nation, which may be called on to pay the bank-bills if the banks fail; and its representatives, therefore, whether wise or foolish, are entitled to their say as to the means provided by the banks for protecting their paper issues; but what has the nation to do with the rates at which Moses Taylor may think it prudent to lend money to John Smith, or at which John Smith may find it convenient to borrow, especially when its financial representatives are apt to be men who have no financial training or financial experience, and often make light of financial knowledge?

ENGLAND.

LONDON, November 1.

THE most important political event in our parish during the last fortnight has been the reappearance of Mr. Bright on the public stage at the Bingley Hall, Birmingham, before some 17,000 people, who gave him a welcome so enthusiastic and so affecting that, as he stood on the platform waiting for the roar of applause to subside, he trembled like a reed shaken in the wind. No doubt it was an anxious moment for all, and there were present persons from all parts of the country. It was known that he had undertaken to address his constituents in that enormous space with extreme reluctance and misgiving, and it was feared that the exertion might prove beyond his strength. In the delivery of his opening sentences, there were not wanting symptoms of nervous weakness, and in the closing peroration there was a tone of solemn and mournful emotion, and almost an accent of farewell. But the rest of the speech, if not equal to the grandest efforts of former years, showed no sign of enfeeblement or exhaustion. There was the old large, lofty, and yet homely utterance; the clear and vigorous manifestation of a mind with no dark corners or secret passages in its ample structure. No redundance of words, no prolixity, no digression, but a masterly conciseness, with occasional strokes of the easiest and happiest humor, not spiteful or malicious, but indulgent as a giant's strength. As an agitator, Mr. Bright's career is past; he speaks with the caution, the forbearance, and the moderation that become a veteran who shrinks from abusing the rights of victory. His principles are unchanged, and in all his aims and objects he remains the Radical whom the Tories once denounced as a dangerous demagogue; he is no fonder of hereditary legislators, of bishops, or of church establishments, than he was ten years ago; and his criticisms even upon the measures of the colleagues he has rejoined are as independent as when he sat on the back benches below the gangway. But he has returned to office purely out of personal devotedness to Mr. Gladstone; and it is to restore the confidence of the whole Liberal party in their leader, to bring back disaffected Nonconformists to their allegiance, and to rally the sympathies of the Radical electors, that he accepts the responsibility of power and advises patience. The truth is that Mr. Bright was always essentially conservative, though not in the strict party sense. There is not an atom of the cosmopolitan revolutionist in his nature; he is English to the core in all his thoughts and feelings, his ways and his works; and, whatever Tories may suppose, his was always a moderating and restraining influence. If he demanded that some rubbish should be cleared away, it was to save the building; and his destructiveness has consisted in broadening and deepening the bed of a stream to prevent the inundation of a torrent. There was a passage in his speech the other day which betrayed curiously enough an old infirmity—a certain laxity of recollection with regard to dates and details. He was expressing his cordial disagreement with those clauses of Mr. Forster's bill which have raised such an uproar of jealous alarm and anger among the Dissenters; and he excused himself from having been officially cognizant of a measure which was introduced into the House of Commons just after he was suddenly compelled by a dangerous attack to withdraw himself from public business altogether. Now, a correspondent of the *Times*, who signs "Amicus Veritatis," and who is probably an inmate of the Privy Council Office of Education, proves beyond all doubt that Mr. Bright must have seen the original memorandum of the bill and assisted at its preliminary discussion in the Cabinet councils in November and January, and that he had not left office or left London before the bill was actually drafted and on the table of the House of Commons; and moreover, that the clauses to which Mr. Bright now particularly objects were actually modifications in his sense of the original scheme. Evidently, Mr. Bright was not in a condition of health for many months before he resigned office to take active part in council, or to exert the discretionary influence for which "Amicus Veritatis" by a reference to dates holds him strictly

accountable. But this unfortunate lapse of memory and attention serves to indicate the defects which accompany the qualities of a minister whose influence in council was supposed out of doors to be paramount, while he was really nothing but a nominal adviser and administrator. When Mr. Bright was in office before, he scarcely ever made a speech out of Parliament without getting his colleagues into trouble by forgetting his share of the joint and several responsibility for ministerial legislation. This is undoubtedly a fault, due to long inexperience and independence, which disfigures in some degree his reputation and usefulness as a statesman, and makes his accession to the Cabinet appear, I dare say, to Mr. Forster like the celebrated *cadeau* of a white elephant. Making all allowance for the art of an orator who does not improve his efforts, I fear that Mr. Bright's melancholy peroration the other day was inspired by a very genuine consciousness of failing physical powers. I should rejoice to learn that he was stronger than he looks, and that his consciousness was a last illusion of a lingering malady. But his countenance bears the traces of a slow decline; there is a loss of elasticity and of animal spirits. His name alone is a tower of strength to the Cabinet; the weight of his counsels on one or two questions in which he is deeply interested may be felt in council, and he may speak once or twice with all his decisive authority in the House. More than this can hardly be expected of him hereafter, and more than this I hope he will not be persuaded to attempt.

The literary event of the last fortnight is the appearance of John Stuart Mill's 'Autobiography.' It is not for me to trespass upon your critical prerogatives. Nor need I insist on the profound and attracting interest of such a record of a mind at once so transparently simple and sincere, and so powerful and subtle, in its manifestations. Suffer me to note only one or two passing impressions of this curious introspective study of a life almost absorbingly intellectual, even in its emotions, and in all that belongs to action and events. My first surprise is that a child who learnt Greek in his fourth year, read Plato in his eighth, and mastered political economy in his twelfth, could escape total idiocy before twenty. Mill's brain must have been an instrument of marvellous strength and delicacy combined, as well-knit and compact as it was finely strung. The passage in which he describes the terrible depression into which he fell upon the threshold of his manhood, when all his knowledge and learning suddenly seemed vanity and emptiness, and his formulas and schemes of utilitarian beneficence to mankind mere barren and joyless tasks, is as pathetic as St. Augustine's confession of his need of loving and being loved, and far more interesting as a psychological experience. It explains much that follows after. Does it explain what comes before? I mean his utter and absolute silence about his mother. Never once does the mother appear in this life-story—not in the son's childhood, not in his boyhood, not in his manhood. Yet she lived until he grew to be a man, and brought up a family of younger children. What a strange comment upon the common theory that men of genius are their "mothers' sons." And though the father in this case, James Mill, may have been the parent as he was certainly the trainer of the logician, the economist, the philosopher, nearly the whole emotional side of Stuart Mill's nature and character must have come from his mother. Certainly, it did not come from the father, who sternly repressed all feeling as a folly, and all emotion as an unpardonable weakness. It may be said that this autobiography is the story of the career and operations of a single mind, not the "trivial grand record" of a family household. Doubtless, and notwithstanding all the beauty and the charm of the man's nature it depicts, this is the secret of a certain melancholy impression it leaves behind. The language of passionate adoration, or rather of religious worship, in which Mr. Mill speaks always of the lady with whom he lived for nearly a quarter of a century in the closest and most intimate friendship, and for a little more than seven subsequent years as a devoted husband, appears to me quite explicable without attributing to Mrs. Taylor any superhuman qualities, or accepting too literally the worshipper's account of his own idol. Rigorous asceticism during half a lifetime, an intense and overflowing sensibility and susceptibility to sympathy and emotion, violently suppressed; little acquaintance with the world of men, and none at all with the world of women—and then all at once the meeting with a clever, large-minded, strong-willed, enquiring, but not otherwise remarkable woman of the world, living in a sort of semi-detached condition as the wife of an estimable but not remarkable person; the electric sorcery of a woman's presence and conversation, doubled by the shock of a mutual attraction—all these circumstances and influences unite to make that exaltation which is usually the privilege of the religious. To me this illusion of a singularly pure heart appears a sort of Nemesis of faith. Mr. Mill was never a dogmatic unbeliever in creeds and doctrines which he had never been taught. But he had the tender and reverential yearnings which make men religious, and which religion satisfies; his whole heart went out to the one woman he had ever loved; he found in her that divination of his own thoughts, that true womanly insight, which he mistook for genius. He was dazzled by the reflection of his own rays, and when his wife unconsciously repeated what she had heard from his lips a few hours or days before, he fancied the adopted offspring was her own. His imagination, reacting on itself, mistook an echo for a voice: the echo was hers, the voice was his own.

This at least is my interpretation of his belief that his wife dictated the admirable chapter on the Future of the Working-classes in his 'Political Economy,' and that his 'Logic' was the only one of his works he could call his own. There is one other point in the 'Autobiography' on which I may be allowed to say a word. Mr. Mill seems to have considered his short career in Parliament as on the whole successful and satisfactory, but he hints a regret at having spoken too exclusively in the character of a Quixotic champion of pure reason and abstract right against the prevailing prejudices of the audience. The fact is he never caught the tone of the House; the country gentlemen and the capitalists could never understand him—they imagined him too clever by half, and hated him as respectable mediocrities are apt to hate original thinkers, who try to cut blocks with razors and talk over the heads of ordinary mortals. His influence in the House, especially among the younger men on both sides, was decidedly beneficial, and in the private life of the House he was liked and courted even by political adversaries. All Liberals and many Conservatives were proud to see him in Parliament; and his speeches, carefully prepared and written out beforehand for the reporters, were, despite the weakness of his presence and the shrill voice, delightful to hear as to read, not only for the closeness of the argument and the finish of the style, but for the uncompromising courage of their language and principles. Nevertheless, one could not but feel that, sitting in Parliament and always in his seat, Mr. Mill was losing hours that might have been spent in his study with more advantage to his generation and to posterity, and that while he was undoubtedly extending his influence over a wider range, it was perhaps losing in height and depth what it gained in breadth.

The death of Sir Henry Holland has removed from the best circles of English, and I might add of European and American, society the kindly face of a familiar and ever-welcome friend. Although he had reached the neighborhood of his eighty-sixth birthday, his departure on the final journey seems to those who knew him best premature and untimely. Within a week of his death he had passed through Paris, returning from his autumnal tour, and was observed among the spectators at Trianon at the trial of Marshal Bazaine—I can hardly say among the audience, for he had latterly become very deaf. He caught a cold on the journey from there to London, went to bed, and never rose from it again. It was a peaceful and natural end of a life of which not a single waking hour was wasted. A fashionable court physician, a traveller in all quarters of the globe, a curious and diligent investigator in science, a citizen of the world whose delightful manners and conversation made him equally at home in all countries and with all companies, Sir Henry Holland lived all his life, from a boyhood of brilliant promise to an extreme old age, as full of youthful spirit and unabated curiosity as of honor and respect, like an intelligent and instructed visitor from some other planet who had come to make himself thoroughly acquainted with all the possibilities of knowledge, of experience, of social existence, of pure enjoyment, of venerable activity in this world of cares.

Correspondence.

SOME PERTINENT REMARKS.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: I hope the *Nation* of this week will do its best to stem whatever popular absurdities the ravings of the general press on the *Virginius* question may lead the public, and perhaps seduce the Government, to commit in the matter. Of course we have really very unreliable and inadequate information of what has been done at all. But in the light of the past, it seems to me that it behooves the American press to "shut up," or at least to be very modest, about the indignity suffered by the American flag, if the editors will recall the *first* attitude they took in the *Trent* affair. Words could hardly be found to express their ecstasy of approbation at Captain Wilkes's indignity to the British flag, and old Mr. Welles got trapped into a commendatory order. Now, when somebody has done a lesser indignity to the American flag, even if any, they forget their attitude of ten or twelve years ago, and howl on the other side like dervishes.

As to the "butchery," I think we had better know more about it. I have no sympathy with these filibustering, buccaneering, hostile expeditions, got up by "American citizens" of Irish birth, like "General" Ryan and his fellows, and rather incline to the belief that they deliberately took their

lives in their hands. The American flag is not designed as a cover for such iniquities as this. Had they reached shore with their "300" armed men and horses and artillery, they would have fallen to shooting people just as deserving as themselves, perhaps more so.

I thought we had set the world an example of the "peaceful arbitration" of international difficulties. Do the proceedings before such tribunals begin by insane howlings of the press and the getting out of iron-clads, etc., etc.?

Yours truly, A Disgusted American.

New York, November 17.

A NOTE FROM MR. WATTERSON.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: Entertaining a shadowy notion that the public stands in no need of further advisement in the ethics of journalism, English or American, I venture to ask room enough in the *Nation* to correct one or two misapprehensions contained in a paragraph of your last issue. I did not deny the power of the London *Times*, or express surprise thereat, as Mr. Smalley unwittingly and rather paradoxically misled you to say. On the contrary, whilst believing that the influence of the *Times* is on the wane, I ascribe it, as Mr. Smalley does, to its representation of that typical, slow-moving, ox-headed provincialism which pervades the upper and middle classes of English society. One may respect the patriotic stolidity of this provincialism without being pleased by its manners or dazzled by its dulness. But I did not complain, as you say, of the lack of "spice" in the London *Times*. I merely declared that, as this morning's record of the world's yesterday, it is deficient, inferior as a newspaper to the press of New York, Chicago, St. Louis, and Cincinnati, and, in point of intellectual calibre, not superior to certain journals which might be picked out of the American cities named. Nor did I point to Mr. Boucicault as a "likely" editor of the London *Times*, which moves Mr. Smalley to believe establishes my incompetency to observe the character and working of English journalism. I was urging in the presence of a company of rural editors like myself that every age has its particular social influence—the drama, the essay, and the novel each having served its turn. I suggested that in our day the press is what the stage was in Shakespeare's time, and then, editor-like, seeking hurriedly for an illustration, I found Mr. Boucicault at my elbow, and remarked that a successful playwriter like him—a man gifted with a popular genius or facility—a man whose current and versatile talents had supplied one conspicuous public want—might have done still better with himself in journalism; might, indeed, have risen to be editor of the London *Times*—using the London *Times* as a figure or figure-head. This is the head and front of my rash garrulity; and because of it I am set down for a dolt who has no better conception of his calling than to fancy that the personalism and slang of our American frontier could be transplanted with advantage to the press of London, and who signalizes his absurdity by nominating an unsteady and eccentric Bohemian for manager of the most pompous humbug in the world. I believe you are wittily mistaken in saying that the comparative merits of the *Courier-Journal* and the London *Times* have been brought into discussion. When the matter reaches so serious a point, modesty may be expected on the scene to drop—as Mr. Swiveller says—"the curtain and a tear."

Henry Watterson.

Louisville, Nov. 10, 1873.

Notes.

A. D. F. RANDOLPH & CO. will publish shortly a volume of religious poems, by the author of 'Stepping Heavenward.'——Cassell, Petter & Galpin have issued an Illustrated Catalogue, full of large and handsome wood-cuts, which make it a very fit holiday present as a picture-book.——G. P. Putnam's Sons have published separately from their 'International Atlas' the maps of classical geography, in flexible covers, and have also issued in the same style, but smaller, an 'Atlas of Scripture Geography,' with questions accompanying each map.——A work which deserves mention both on account of its novelty and of the energy displayed in compiling it is Mr. F. Leypoldt's 'Trade List Annual'—a uniform collection under one cover of the trade lists of all American publishers, and of some houses which are to be called publishers only by a very liberal extension of that term. It is singular that any opposition should have been met with in such an enterprise, but we believe it required all Mr. Leypoldt's persistence to bring about the desired co-operation. Some attempt at classification has been made in the index, but the 'Annual' naturally falls very far short of an alphabetical finding list.

—The current number of *Harper's Weekly* contains a forcible caricature of the present condition of the "farmers' movement" by Mr. Thomas Nast. The scene is a Western farm, and at the rear is a railroad train in ruins, with the word "Panic" posted up in a conspicuous place; a "wildcat speculator," whose appearance is something that of an escaped or perhaps just rearrested convict, is gloomily looking with his back turned (and his back is the most corrupt-looking back we have ever had the pleasure of seeing) at the wreck; with his face to the spectator stands the granger, with the air of a man who knows himself to be the possessor of a fraudulent heart, and is at the same time filled with a burning desire for vengeance upon his former "pal" the speculator. The granger, with a very hang-dog slouching look, or rather glare, in the direction of the speculator, asks the latter to explain what all this means; while the speculator replies that the granger may find that out for himself. The caricature leaves one somewhat in doubt whether the caricaturist meant all that we may infer from it, but there is the cartoon itself, and until Mr. Nast states that he is a warm sympathizer with the efforts of the yeomen of the West to relieve themselves of the tyranny of the railroad extortionists, we shall be inclined to think the cartoon a very effective one—one of the best he has done. He has been lately so exclusively occupied in attracting the attention of the public to a supposed resemblance between the head of the proprietor of the *Herald*, Mr. James Gordon Bennett, and that of a jackass, that he has hardly had as much time as those who like his caricatures could wish for the higher walks of the art.

—An unwillingness to find any fault with Mr. Longfellow on the occasion of his presenting the public with his 'Aftermath,' induced us to suppress reference to certain deficiencies in his agricultural and ornithological lore. Of these there were two or three instances, at least; and as one of them has already been pointed out by an excited Massachusetts farmer, we may as well mention the other principal one. It occurs in the tale of the greedy monk who was turned into an ass and then into a man again, in which latter condition he devoured from the face of the earth the countrywoman's last solitary fowl—a pullet, as Mr. Longfellow calls it. But looking back to the original entrance of this bird into the story, we find him described as "chanticleer," who certainly could not be a "pullet." What the Massachusetts farmer finds fault with is the pretty verses which give its title to the volume

"AFTERMATH."

"When the summer fields are mown,
When the birds are fledged and flown,
And the dry leaves strew the path;
With the falling of the snow,
With the cawing of the crow,
Once again the fields we mow,
And gather in the aftermath.

"Not the sweet, new grass with flowers,
Is this harvesting of ours;
Nor the upland clover bloom;
But the rowen mixed with weeds,
Tangled tufts from marsh and meads,
Where the poppy drops its seeds
In the silence and the gloom."

"Now look here," says the farmer, "will it be believed that all this is a tissue of misstatements?" A tiller of the ground who should let his rowen stand until "the falling of the snow" would everywhere be considered unworthy of his calling. And

". . . Rowen mixed with weeds,
Tangled tufts from marsh and meads,
Where the poppy drops its seeds"—

Mr. Longfellow must have got his knowledge of rowen from having seen somebody slashing away late in the season on some swamp or sea-shore for coarse bedding. We may add that we doubt if he ever, in any part of Massachusetts at least, saw any one thus slashing who cut down many wild poppies; we think that the Massachusetts poppy always requires the cultivating hand of man. However that may be, there are plenty more of these errors for the farmer's severe comments. "The upland clover bloom," for example, is almost never absent from rowen; which, moreover, is the sweetest of "sweet new grass," being more relished by the cattle, and more efficacious in brimming the pail and thickening the yellow cream, than the grass of any other season of the year. The time for cutting it is "by the middle of September," long before the snow flies, and while the leaves themselves have rather been burnished into fresh beauty by the early autumn than "withered" by frost. "Think," he bursts out, "of curing rowen in a snow-storm!" But Mr. Emerson, as well as many other poets before and after his time, have found that the farmer's acres yield to the poet many things and many kinds of things which to the farmer are invisible, and which he never reaps nor stores; and this aftermath of Mr. Longfellow's we may hold to be one of these, and may thus remain content with this little poem of a poet who, if he never cuts gems, does usually bring us in profusion pretty flowers gathered from the gardens, and from the forests and hillsides, and sometimes from the *hortus siccus* of literature, and in a naturally graceful order and array. It may be

permitted, also, to a poet who has so often carried us so far afield into foreign lands and other times, to cut his aftermath wherever, on the round world, he may please—in countries where, for instance, the rowen is a "rough pasture full of stubble and weeds," as it was in England in the day of Nicholas Bailey, *φιλόλογος*. Yet, doubtless, the other excuse is the better, and not insufficient.

—The distribution of seeds undertaken by our Bureau of Agriculture, assisted by members of Congress, has not, so far as we are aware, led to very important results. There would now appear to be an opportunity for it to distinguish itself, not by adding to the natural food-products of the country, but by acclimating a tree already known to possess medicinal properties, but whose greatest virtue is only beginning to be understood. In a recent communication to the French Academy of Sciences, it was stated that the Australian *eucalyptus globulus*, whose growth is extremely rapid, and whose dimensions rival those of the *sequoia*, has the capacity of absorbing ten times its weight of water from the soil, while at the same time it emits an antiseptic camphorous effluvium, and is thus doubly an antidote to malaria. This power of making marsh-land dry and of banishing intermittent fever has now been proved by experience in various quarters of the globe—by the English at the Cape of Good Hope; on a large scale in Algeria; in France, in the department of the Var; and in the island of Cuba. The salubrious action of the eucalyptus is, if the stories concerning it are to be believed, prompt and efficacious. A plantation only nine feet high, which had been set out near Algiers in the spring of 1867, is said to have prevented entirely the annual recurrence of fever in July of the same year, and to have maintained this immunity for the district ever since. The eucalyptus is already cultivated in California. Mr. Nordhoff speaks of one which grew twenty feet in a single year, and of another which, in eight years, from a small cutting had become seventy-five feet high, with a diameter of two feet at the base. What the range of this tree is in our climate it would be very easy for the Bureau of Agriculture to determine; and when we reflect on the vast proportion of our territory which is given over to chills and fever, it seems difficult to exaggerate the material and even moral advantages of a wide diffusion of the Australian evergreen. It would certainly do more than any other thing to promote immigration to the South. How far the West, with its rigorous winters, could profit from it remains to be seen.

—In a late number of the *Academy*, Mr. Walter Skeat addresses to the English philologists some remarks which, no doubt, have an application to our public also. "If," he says, "there be a study which, in English philology at least, has been completely ignored, it is that to which we would give the name of the Chronology of Etymology." And he trusts his readers will make a note of this, for he "makes bold to say that if the Chronology of Etymology could be once admitted as a leading and necessary principle of English etymology, one-half of the false derivations would speedily go by the board." We do not reproduce Mr. Skeat's italics, which lend to his style a sort of vehemence upon which we have recently commented in the case of verbal critics, and which in various forms and degrees marks not alone that school of writers, but their elders and biggers and betters in every etymological field. In some it is acrimonious and venomous, in others petulant, in others sardonic, in others eager, in others racily vivacious in a degree which is seldom attained by the man of letters as distinguished from the man of words (if we may offer that distinction), but in all betokening an energetic personal interest in the pursuit of their labors which would be not less than invaluable to a missionary among the heathen, say; or a young gentleman intent on marriage with a certain lady; or a friend of the coeducation of the sexes. We confess to a sort of liking for it when it appears as it is in Mr. Skeat's article. The faults he exposes must seem to him nefarious. "What happened the other day," he asks, when the Midland word *chure* was proposed for solution in *Notes and Queries*? Why, instantly forward came two writers who said that of course it was the German word *Thür*. "But what wild work is here!" says Mr. Skeat, and he adds that it is high time to "put aside such puerilities." How do we know, he enquires,—how do we know that, chronologically, the German word *Thür* ever existed in England before *chure*. "Indeed, we may ask what proof is there that High German was ever spoken in olden times in the Midland counties? If an Englishman knew what a *door* was, why should he trouble himself to pronounce it 'chure'?" The fact is that *chare*, which in Newcastle means "a narrow street or by-way," is identical with the Wiltshire *chore*, which means "a narrow passage between two houses," and with the Midland form, *chure*, meaning "a passage, by-way, or turning out of a larger road." To derive these various forms from the Anglo-Saxon *cerre* (flexus, viæ deflexio, diverticulum) is not absurd, "because we know that the verb *cerran* (to turn, with the various spelling *cyrran*) was in use in England before *chare* was, and that the change of *c* into *ch* satisfies the Chronology of Etymology." Then follows the remark about puerilities which we have already transferred to these columns. On the whole, it seems advisable; for the class of linguists is large "who have only a limited knowledge of etymology, and who are on that account constantly presenting new derivations which they cannot *themselves* perceive to be absurd." By the bye, Mr. Skeat's energetic protest against these suggesters of derivations is a digression in a pleasant essay on Trübner & Company's reprint of the famous 'Complaynt of Scotland,' edited by Mr. J. A. H. Murray.

—Owens' College, Manchester, the rising "university of South Lancashire," is prominently, though not exclusively, a school of applied science, including medicine. The thoughtful address of Principal Greenwood at the opening of the new building, upon the relations which subsist between culture and practical life, makes some points which deserve wider consideration. In reference to the claims made for the natural sciences to a leading place in academic study, he intimates that the weightiest argument in their support is the one the most seldom heard, namely, "that the natural and experimental sciences have a characteristic discipline for the mind. This position may in this place be taken for granted, and it constitutes of itself an argument at once unanswerable and sufficient. But when we hear the further argument, that physical sciences should hold a prominent place in education because their promotion contributes to the material advancement of the country, or because to possess a knowledge of them will give the learner a greater command of money, and what money brings, we are then offered motives of a very different order. As collateral motives, they have great value, I admit, . . . but a value subordinate to that of the former consideration. . . . It is true, too, that in choosing the subjects of study, regard should be paid in due degree to the destination of the future life. But when the secondary and by nature inferior aim takes the first rank, the fatal consequence follows that the higher good is not even sought in the second place." After contrasting the time-honored system of a common culture for the higher education with that by which, the common groundwork being reduced to the narrowest limits, the special training is made to begin with the first years of college, or even earlier, and suggesting that the two may be regarded rather as complementary than as rival claims, also that the subject-matter of the studies is of less importance than the discipline imparted, he concludes:

"This only is essential: that there should be such a selection made as will, first, draw out and strengthen the several powers of the mind, and, second, afford a basis so broad that on it may afterwards be erected the structure of professional study when the career is chosen. These conditions are met if the common groundwork includes, first, letters to cultivate the taste and judgment, to give a good style in speech or writing, and to place the student on the threshold of the best literature of home or foreign growth; second, mathematics, to discipline the reasoning faculty, to give the habit of concentrated thought, and to place in the student's hands a weapon indispensable for the mastery of the physical branches; third, some branch of physical study, to develop the powers of observation and inductive reasoning, and to impart the method of this study. . . . It might be added, too, in defence of the claims of this third prime element of culture, that it is singularly fitted to counteract the faults alleged, not without reason, to be inherent in the other two."

We should wish to add, as affording a characteristic discipline, not otherwise well supplied, the study of some department of biological science on the basis of morphology. Finally comes the remark which, it strikes us, is as reasonable as it is happily expressed:

"But, over and above these direct uses [of a common groundwork of culture for all students], there are at least two others which I can only indicate, first, grace and vigor are lent to social intercourse when men feel that they can trust to the possession by all of a certain general culture—that a common atmosphere, so to say, is shared by all, and that subtle criticisms, delicate shades of thought, apt illustrations, will not fall flat on the ears of half of those who listen. Those who are familiar with the social history of the first half of this century will agree with me that this element of social life was far more generally present with cultivated men than it is now; second, and again, from the want of this common elementary culture men are without that sympathy with the pursuits of others which tends so powerfully to soften the bitterness of controversy, and even to make fruitful discussion possible."

—The excavations carried on for nearly thirty years in the Roman Catacombs, and to which a stop was put by the difficulties of 1870 and 1871 between the Pope and the Italian Government, were fortunately renewed two years ago this month. What has since then been accomplished has been periodically made known in successive numbers of the Chevalier De Rossi's *Bullettino di Archeologia Cristiana*, which has had to record several new and interesting discoveries. For example, the latest excavations in the so-called "Catacomb of Pretestato"—where rest the remains of martyrs who suffered so early as A.D. 161 and 162—reveal the remarkable characteristic of having "much of its interior *architectural*, of regular and, in some parts, perfectly preserved construction, not merely excavated in the tufa rock as

are other such cemeteries." Moreover, at one extremity there has evidently been a brick-work front which opened upon the Appian Way or the Campagna near it. So, too, of the cemetery named after Nereus and Achilleus, servants of Flavia Domitilla, Domitian's grand-niece. And that part of the excavated area which is called after Domitilla herself has "a façade, a vestibule (or atrium) with a well, no doubt used for baptism, all in antique brick-work" and opening upon what was evidently a road near the Via Ardeatina. Now, the significance of these discoveries is held to be that "they attest the absolute publicity of the hypogœa serving for Christian use, and lead us to infer that neither the funeral rites nor such acts of worship as took place therein were secret, nor under any necessity of concealment owing to the social conditions of the church at Rome." All this is contradictory of the usual belief on the subject. "De Rossi shows," says Mr. C. I. Hemans, to whom we are indebted for our facts, "that the statements in church history as to bishops or priests residing in cemeteries" must be taken to mean that they resided in basilicas and other buildings near the entrance to the sacred places, "*above*, not in subterranean places *within* the excavated regions. The notion that, under pressure of persecution, numbers of Christians lived for safety's sake in such hypogœa must be rejected—not but that, in extremities of danger, some may have taken refuge in these underground retreats. It is known that certain of the Roman bishops did so conceal themselves in early times." We may mention, in conclusion, that in newly opened corridors and chapels of the St. Agnes Cemetery there have been found several of those little phials stained with a red substance supposed to be blood. Being always found in the tufa rock by the side of tombs, they have been decided by ecclesiastical authority to be proofs of martyrdom—evidence of the fate of those near whose remains they are found. A theory which has been advanced by some authors, who make the red substance in question to be sacramental wine, would appear to be decisively contradicted by the finding in one instance of an inscription, "Sanguis Saturnini."

—A correspondent writes us as follows: "As a contribution to the solution of the 'Abraham Cupid' mystery (see *Nation*, No. 411, p. 333), I send you the following extract from an old work of Rev. William Gurnall (1617–1679), entitled 'The Christian in Compleat Armour,' sixth edition, London, 1679, p. 4:

"Indeed, the World counts the Christian for his singularity of Life the only Fool; which I have thought gave the first occasion to that Nick-name whereby men commonly express a silly man or a Fool: Such a one (say they) is a meer *Abraham;* that is, in the worlds account, a Fool. But why an *Abraham?* Because *Abraham* did that which Carnal Reason (the Worlds Idol) laughs at as meer folly; he left a present Estate in his Fathers House, to go he knew not whither, to receive an Inheritance he knew not when.'

The italics, spelling, etc., are the author's. Does not the admitted existence of the 'nick-name' Abraham for fool bring the use of the patriarch's name into exact harmony with the context in Shakespeare? Mercutio, in his banter, had just referred to Venus in a tone of free familiarity, 'my gossip,' *i. e.*, in its old usage, a familiar acquaintance. Was it not perfectly in keeping with the spirit of raillery in which he speaks to call her 'purblind son and heir' by a 'nick-name' that should express a shade of contempt on Mercutio's part for Romeo's violent passion, calling him that 'young fool Cupid' rather than 'auburn Cupid' or even 'yellow-headed little impostor'?"

THE PRESENT STATE OF CUBA.*

A WORK which is dedicated to Sir John P. Grant, Governor Eyre's successor in Jamaica, commends itself at the outset, and this first favorable impression is confirmed the further one reads. The author spent only two months in Cuba, and about two weeks in Jamaica, but he well improved his time. His object being to study the causes of the insurrection, and its probable influence on the relations of the United States with the island, his narrative bears little resemblance to that of the ordinary tourist. It has the freshness, indeed, of the latest book of travels, Signor Gallenga having reached Havana the last week in January of the present year. The chapter which he devotes to this city does not exhaust the subject, but is a graphic summary of the most obtrusive and offensive features of the place, with a glance at the new quarter, and such modern improvements as the disappearance of the *volante* before the victoria and the horse-railway. Elsewhere there are few descriptions of scenery, but the physical aspects of the island are very well sketched.

We take a sincere pleasure in recommending for thoughtful perusal by all serious-minded Americans the clear presentation afforded by this work of the real state of things in Cuba, the author's reflections upon it, and his conclusions as to the future of the island, whether left to itself or interfered with by foreign powers. At this time especially, when a natural if not altogether healthy excitement pervades the country on account of the Santiago atrocity, prompting us to assume responsibilities of which it is impossible to foresee the end, it cannot but be salutary to heed an observer so enlightened, broad, and dispassionate as Signor Gallenga. Let it not displease his public here that two visits to the United States have not made him fall in love with its inhabitants, and that to distinguish us from other Americans (from whom we endeavor to usurp the generic name) he always refers to us as Yankees, with a shade of dislike and disparagement; or that, in alluding to the results of emancipation at the South, he seems to ascribe to the blacks excesses like those which produced "the worst calamities of San Domingo and Jamaica." On another page he remarks with more discrimination that "it is the fate of San Domingo rather than that of any other colony which seems to be impending on Cuba," inasmuch as "there is a war to be fought out between two white races—the Peninsulars and the Creoles—a war in which the emancipated negro will be called to play a part, and in which, whatever may be his own instincts and inclinations, he is not unlikely to work mischief to both parties."

What sort of a mess it is into which we are invited to plunge ourselves, may be described in a few words. A million and a half of people, nearly one-third of whom are slaves of the most degraded kind; the whites divided into Creoles, or native Cubans, also about half a million in number, and Peninsulars—Spanish carpet-baggers who have come to make their fortunes in the colony and to rule it meanwhile, holding all the important offices, dispensing all the patronage, and controlling the military through the chiefly Spanish organization of the volunteers. An insurrection, insignificant in extent, though capable of much mischief, and very destructive to the sugar industry, and really formidable as having the more or less secret sympathy of the Creole party. A warfare in which the volunteers, like a National Guard, stay at home to keep "order" in the principal towns, while the real fighting is done by imported Spanish troops, of whom more than 80,000 have been sent out since 1868, and by far the greater part have succumbed to the climate and the hardships of the campaign; a warfare in which 150,000 lives have been lost without any real gain to either side, and in which all prisoners are shot unless they are tortured to death—it being a practice with the insurgents "when a prisoner, and especially an officer, falls into their hands, to tie his feet up to a tree, and to pile up fuel under the dangling head, thus burning their enemy alive with a slow fire." A capital city which, being beyond menace of the insurrection, has a mercenary interest in keeping it up; which is ruled, like every other Cuban city, by a Casino Español, or Spanish Club, the headquarters of the Peninsular or slaveholding interest. A thousand and a half of slave-owners, of whom barely a tenth are solvent, and for whom the weakness of the mother-country is strength, and her calamity their opportunity. A civil-service than which, unless in a Turkish province, it would be hard to find one more corrupt or corruptible, so that, for example, "there is no contraband whatever; and no one would be at the trouble and peril of smuggling in Cuba when he can bribe the custom-house officers to any extent, and on any terms." A currency from which gold and silver have entirely disappeared, and which has become so much depreciated that "Spanish gold has risen to twenty-five per cent. premium, and foreign exchange to fifty-two per cent." A bank which, when it had ruined credit by an emission of twenty million unguaranteed bonds, and it was proposed by the new Spanish Intendente to burn paper money to a corresponding extent, replied: "Certainly, by all means, and with great pleasure. Burn twenty millions? To be sure! Forty, if you wish it. Have we not got the plates?" Finally, a condition of society in which "while the sexual numbers of the negro and mulatto population are almost balanced, with respect to the whites the proportion is something more than three males to one female"—including in the whites the Chinese, some 60,000 strong and all males.

Such is an imperfect outline of the picture drawn by Signor Gallenga of the "Pearl of the Antilles," and which, for the benefit of annexationists, we will supplement with a single sentence of his: "There is nothing more hollow, nothing more artificial, than the present wealth of Cuba, as it was in a great measure founded on a slave-trade which has come to an end, and rests on a slave-labor which is doomed." We have not space to follow him into all the considerations which lead him to apprehend the gravest difficulties in substituting free for slave labor in Cuba. He explains why emancipation was perfectly safe in Porto Rico. The island is wholly settled and cultivated; the slaves constituted but a twentieth of the whole population, and less than a tenth of the black; but above all "there is hardly any waste land, or 'provision ground,' where the emancipated slave may squat and live in idleness," as he did in Jamaica, and as it would be most easy and natural for him to do in Cuba, where only one-tenth of the land is under cultivation. He thinks it impossible "to free 350,000 blacks, chiefly African

* 'The Pearl of the Antilles. By A. Gallenga.' London: Chapman & Hall; New York: Scribner, Welford & Armstrong. 1873.

savages, and yet maintain the material well-being obtained by a vast production of sugar and tobacco." It is certain that the solution of this problem had better not be undertaken by the United States, and on this point we shall quote the author's well-considered judgment:

"It is difficult to see how the meddling of any foreign state, even if it could destroy Spain, could possibly save Cuba; how it could remove the difficulties of the island, or how it could help aggravating them. A foreign state could take up the cause of the insurgents; it could claim Cuba for the Cubans; it might break up the *Casino Español*, depose the Peninsular party from the height of their power, and ruin the slave-owners by imposing upon them the immediate emancipation of their slaves. Mere destruction is always only too easy. The ruin of the slave-owners must needs involve at least the temporary ruin of the country; and it is this that a foreign state would, above all things, be anxious to avoid. The assistance of a foreign state would certainly ensure the victory of one party over the other—say of the Creoles over the Peninsulars—but a victory would not preclude the struggle; and such a struggle, between two races animated by deep-seated resentment and burning to revenge long-treasured grievances, is precisely what a foreign state, prompted by humane motives, would be most anxious to prevent. It comes to this—that if parties in Cuba are bent on mutual destruction, all that a foreign state could do would be to help and hasten them on their way to it."

In support of his opinion that "the whole question of the Cuban insurrection is subordinate to that of slave and free labor, and must be studied not merely in Cuba, but also in other countries where slavery has lately ceased to exist," our author crossed the narrow strait from Santiago to Jamaica. He found there a number of the leading Cuban refugees, many of whom had improved their condition by purchasing the cheap estates of the British colony, and gone on planting sugar, coffee, and tobacco.

"It is not without great astonishment," says Signor Gallenga, "that these new Cuban settlers become familiar with some of the peculiarities of English law in their new home. One of them was lately involved in a lawsuit about the title-deeds of an estate he had purchased against no less a person than the Queen of England, as owner of the Crown domains in her good island of Jamaica. The Cuban, with great misgiving, brought his action into court at the earnest suggestion of his lawyer. The case was tried, and the Cuban—won the suit! Think of the Government ever allowing itself to be beaten by a private subject, and he an alien, in Spain or in her colonies!"

Our author pays a deserved tribute to Sir John Grant, under whose wise and impartial autocratic rule "there has been for seven years a progressive rise in the revenue, and a cheering annual surplus." Moreover, "the allowance for public instruction, which was only £4,622 in 1866, has now been raised to £19,403"; and "the highways, which at the time of Mr. Trollope's visit in 1859 were 'no roads,' are now as good as the best in England." Nevertheless, Signor Gallenga appears not wholly satisfied with the condition of the colony, from which the traces of the former existence of slavery have not wholly disappeared in the relations of the two races, and seems to think it will require a special and determined effort on the part of England to prevent in Jamaica, as in Cuba and the rest of the Antilles, the ascendancy of the black population. "There is only one spot in the West Indies, Hayti, where the negro has established his empire by violence; but I see symptoms everywhere of his desire to make himself at home by peaceful means throughout the tropics."

THE INDIAN IN LITERATURE.*

THERE are reasons for believing that a majority of the reading public, and a large proportion even of those who read *books*, look upon the "red man" as holding a closer than Darwinian relation to the lower animals. They find it easy to think of him as a wild beast, hard to believe that he is entirely human. One fact among many that ought to teach them better than this is the place which the red man holds in literature—not indeed as author, but as subject. He has not done much in the way of book-making, for at the time of the discovery he had hardly risen above a state of barbarism in any part of the continent, and his course has been downward ever since. But in the literature of the nations of Western Europe he has for nearly four hundred years occupied a conspicuous place and made a striking figure; and in that wide field he produces upon those who study him an impression, not of bestiality nor of mere ferocity, but of a multifarious and attractive humanity. It is not only the amount but the kind of attention he receives; not only the large place he fills, but the way in which he fills it, that convinces the student of the literature relating to the American races that the Indian is akin to ourselves, partaker of the same human nature and heir to the same destiny.

A vivid and yet inadequate conception of the vastness of this Indian literature is conveyed by even a slight examination of Mr. Thomas W. Field's 'Essay towards an Indian Bibliography.' It is a volume of four hundred and thirty octavo pages, and contains more than seventeen hundred titles of books and pamphlets. The number of volumes included in the list is of course much greater than this; while, if we omit new editions and reprints, the list of distinct works must number fourteen or fifteen hundred. Yet this, far from being a complete catalogue of Indian books, is simply an enumeration, with notes, of those in the author's own library. It is a selection of titles from a list of "more than two thousand five hundred separate works and twelve hundred essays"—a list, he tells us, which he had long been at work upon before the territory to be examined "began to exhibit its formidable proportions." So that it is not undue modesty that prompts Mr. Field to speak of his book as an "essay towards" an Indian bibliography; such a designation is strictly correct.

In the first place, there are extensive districts in the broad realm of aboriginal literature which are scarcely touched upon in this bibliography. Although the author's plan embraces "both Americas," it is only North America that is fairly represented, and in this department it is only the Algonkin and Iroquois races that receive anything like adequate treatment. Into the vast Spanish literature relating to the races and languages of Mexico, Central America, and South America—the letters and journals of discoverers and conquerors, the grammatical treatises, translations, and "relations" of Catholic missionaries—Mr. Field appears to have made a successful reconnoisance here and there, but scarcely anything more than this. And in the department which he has chosen as his special field there are numerous and remarkable omissions. So many and so conspicuous are the works left out, that the reader cannot help feeling that the book is fragmentary in its character, and at some points anomalous. The author has sought to anticipate and avert such a verdict by calling attention to the fact that he offers us simply a list of works in his own possession. But at the same time he gives notice that "in a limited number of cases, marked with a star," other books have been admitted to the catalogue; and the thought forces itself upon us that he ought to have made only a selection from his extensive library according to some definite plan, or else to have included a much larger number of books known but not yet purchased.

One might reasonably expect to find in such a bibliography as this a full list of authors who had previously undertaken a similar task. Perhaps it was well enough not to mention the general catalogues of "Americana," from Rich to Sabin; but surely Mr. Field would have been doing only what is appropriate and handsome had he given, after the example of Ludewig in his 'Literature of the American Aboriginal Languages,' a separate introductory list of bibliographers who have made a specialty of Indian books. But in this, as in other departments, the omissions are many and remarkable. He mentions Ludewig, but scarcely another bibliographer. There is no allusion to Pinelo's 'Epitome,' Antonio's 'Bibliotheca,' Vater's 'Index Linguarum,' De Souza's 'Biblioteca,' Schoolcraft's 'Bibliographical Catalogue,' Haven's 'Archæology' (which is largely bibliographical), Squier's 'Monograph,' the very valuable 'Apuntes' of Icazbalceta, the 'Bibliothèque' of the Abbé Brasseur de Bourbourg, or Harisse's 'Bibliographie de la Nouvelle France.' In a department lying adjacent to this last, he mentions Adelung and Pimentel and Buschmann (eleven of whose works he enumerates, although he owns but two of them), but omits Hervas, Gilii, Court de Gébelin, Balbi, and Mr. Horatio Hale's 'Ethnography and Philology.' He includes in his list Stephens's 'Incidents of Travel in Central America,' and 'Incidents of Travel in Yucatan,' but does not mention the splendid folio of 'Views of Ancient Monuments' by Catherwood, Stephens's fellow-traveller. He includes Del Rio's 'Description of the Ruins near Palenque,' with Cabrera's dissertation (making no allusion, however, to Minutoli's German edition), and Dupaix's 'Antiquités Mexicaines,' but does not mention Waldeck's large work on the same subject, nor the Abbé Brasseur's 'Manuscrit Troano,' nor Charencey's interesting pamphlet on the decipherment of a Palenquean inscription. Lord Kingsborough's gigantic work on Mexico is not alluded to. He mentions Mr. Lewis H. Morgan's 'League of the Iroquois' and his pamphlet on the 'Laws of Descent,' and even his book on the 'American Beaver,' but omits his splendid Smithsonian quarto on 'Systems of Consanguinity.' He omits Humphrey's valuable 'Account of the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel,' although he refers to it incidentally in his note on the Mohawk Prayer-Book. This note is an excellent specimen of thorough bibliographical work, yet he omits to mention in it the Boston edition, "printed by Richard and Samuel Draper." Indeed, he does not seem to be aware of the existence of this abridgment, published in 1763. He includes in his list a Seneca primer in use on the reservations in Western New York, but does not allude to the 'Spelling-Book' printed at Buffalo Creek, nor to the interesting little periodical in Seneca, the *Mental Elevator*. He gives a full account of Father Cuoq, of the Mission at the Lake of the Two Mountains, Canada, and a list of his writings, yet does not mention 'Le Livre des Sept Nations,' a very full and

* 'An Essay towards an Indian Bibliography. Being a Catalogue of Books relating to the History, Antiquities, Languages, Customs, Religion, Wars, Literature, and Origin of the American Indians, in the Library of Thomas W. Field. With Bibliographical and Historical Notes, and Synopsis of the contents of some of the works least known.' New York: Scribner, Armstrong & Co. 1873.

interesting liturgy, prepared for the use of that mission in the Algonkin and Iroquois languages.

A similar unevenness may be observed in the enumeration of the various editions of the different works included in the catalogue. The bibliographical account of Las Casas, for example, fills sixteen pages, and includes a minute list of his numerous writings; but of Herrera and De Solis only a few editions are mentioned, and of Bernal Diaz only the English translation. He includes in his list Father Baraga's works on the Otchipwe language; and when we remember the treatment he accords to Zeisberger (under the title, De Schweinitz), we naturally look for a good note concerning this devoted missionary and his grammar; but Mr. Field contents himself with merely recording the title of this rare and valuable work. Some of these inconsistencies are so marked that they might almost be called blunders; but perhaps it is not fair, in view of the explanatory statements of the preface, to lay much stress upon them. Of real blunders, however, the volume furnishes some notable instances. One of the worst occurs on pages 43 and 44, where *Quiché*, the name of a Central American people, is translated *Quichua*, which is the name of one of the races of Peru. Of the various grammatical errors in the book, we may mention one on page 145, where "dicta" is used as a singular noun, instead of "dictum." But the most curious mistake is one that occurs on page 111. On the title-page of Du Ponceau's 'Mémoire,' the authorship is given thus: "Par M. P.-Ét. Du Ponceau," the initials representing the name Pierre-Étienne (in English, Peter Stephen). But Mr. Field has mistaken the "Ét." for the conjunction *et*, and translates: "Written by Mr. P(ickering) *and* Du Ponceau"! He ought surely to have known that the 'Mémoire' was written exclusively by Du Ponceau, and that Pickering had nothing to do with it.

Other errors might easily be pointed out; but we desire to say, with emphasis, that in comparison with the numerous excellences of the book, they are not worth mentioning. The errors are for the most part of a negative kind; the excellences are positive and manifold. It is, first of all, an extensive and important catalogue of Indian books, being without a competitor in this respect; and, secondly, it is a repertory of important facts in literature, history, and biography. The notes, which constitute a large part of the volume, and in which its value largely consists, are worthy of special praise as specimens of thorough and accurate bibliography. They represent an amount of conscientious labor which only those can appreciate who have attempted the same kind of work. There is evidence on every page of industrious research and careful comparison, and the conclusions reached are stated in a succinct and interesting style. Some of these notes are of decided value as historical summaries, or at least as finger-posts to guide the historians of the future. At the same time, they abound in items of information which ought to prove interesting to the general reader—such, for instance, as the identification of the name of the great city of the West with that of the Illinois chief, Chicaugou (p. 239). Throughout the volume the author reveals himself as a genuine collector, with a real love of books for their own sake, but never as a bibliomaniac, with the foibles and littlenesses of that class. He betrays, also, a considerable warmth of affection for the red race, which he looks upon as having been cruelly oppressed by the white man. The bibliographer is never a scientist, pure and simple, but ever the champion of somebody's cause; and Mr. Field takes upon himself at every opportunity the thankless championship of the red man. In some of his simple and quiet statements of forgotten facts, as, for example, in the account of Chivington's massacre of the Cheyennes, on page 85, there is revealed a hidden fire of indignation against the atrocities of the whites, whom he does not hesitate to describe, in another note (p. 86), as "more civilized, but not less barbarous," than the Indians of the Plains.

That the red men are doomed to disappear seems tolerably plain. But we have in the contents of this book a proof that they will not pass into oblivion, for no other aboriginal race, extinct or perishing, has been so well put on record. Their ethnological characteristics have been carefully noted, their customs have been described, their traditions and myths have been faithfully recorded, and a large number of their languages have been reduced to writing and embalmed for ever in translations of the Scriptures. The volumes in which these results are stored up are becoming more and more prized, and are more and more brought together in public and private libraries. The noble collection catalogued in Mr. Field's 'Essay' is but one of many already formed or in process of formation at the East and the West and in Europe. The taste for collecting such works is not a mere fancy, it springs from a real interest in a people and in the scientific study of human nature and human institutions as represented in a vanishing race. To the American nation, just now, the Indian presents a disagreeable problem; but to the civilized world, as a whole, he constitutes a most interesting and attractive phenomenon. That the proper study of mankind is man is a doctrine likely to be more and more believed in and practised upon for a long time to come. To the advancement of this study, Mr. Field's bibliography will contribute important aid, both as an index of materials and as a repository of facts.

Journal and Letters of Col. John May, of Boston. 1788–89. (Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co.)—Col. John May was uncle to the late Rev. Samuel J. May, of Syracuse, by which statement we simply mean to refer the less known to the better known, and not to imply that there was any lack of character in the elder May. In fact, he had great strength and individuality of character, and the evidences of it furnished by this diary of two journeys to the Ohio country, quite as well repay the reader as the account of his experiences in coming and going, and at the infant settlement on the Muskingum. By no means neglecting his church duties at home, he found himself at variance with Connecticut Puritanism. When riding through that State, on the road to New Haven, he says: "After breakfast met numbers of people going to meeting, in their old clothes, it being fast-day [April 17]. We were accosted by some sort of Sunday officer with, '*What makes you ride fast-days?*' Which I returned with a look that told him it was none of his business, and kept my horse under way." Three days later, when he had reached New York: "My business crowded me so hard that, although it was Sunday, I thought it my duty to write all day, and arrange my papers. I also felt necessitated to swap away my lame horse for one that was sound." There was no hypocrisy about him, and he could devote his secular leisure to "examining within," with the satisfaction of finding that "I had been on the whole faithful, that oftentimes I had doubled my duty, and that nothing was left unattempted that was within the reach of my feeble human arm." He was an early riser, and at three o'clock in the morning was either walking in the open air or writing. When "full of rambling pains," "scarcely able to keep about," and "grunting," he would nevertheless seize the axe "in order to stir my blood, as well as to stimulate others." When his people at Marietta complained of the cold, "I got up, took a bucket, and threw two hundred buckets of water into the boat, which washed her well. I then said, 'Now, my lads, throw all that water out.' By the time they had cleaned her out they were warm enough." On occasion of a false alarm, he remarks: "We may always expect trouble while travelling through this life, which is nothing more than a wilderness world. We ought to make the best use we can of these matters, small and great. At Boston we have frequent alarms of fire, and inundations of the tides; here the Indians answer the same purpose." His general opinion of the Indians had more affinity with the Puritan than the Darwinian theory of their descent: thus he says, "One of their chiefs died day before yesterday, and another, as I learn, is just going to his black master."

Colonel May observes that New York "is not so large as Boston, but does a great deal more business," and tells of "a pile of new buildings belonging to a Mr. McComb," which were by far the finest he had ever seen. "In one of the entries I travelled up five flights of stairs—the rail continuous from bottom to top. I still left one flight unexplored." At the Indian Queen in Baltimore there were "twenty-seven bells of different sound hanging in the bar-room, all numbered, and belonging to twenty-seven different rooms"—which was "keeping tavern in high style" for those days. The Colonel also made note, as a family man, of approved recipes for worms and for bread, and took great pleasure in describing the excellent variety of fish with which the waters of the Ohio abounded. His humor, sometimes a little coarse, is displayed in his account of an attempt to discover a drowned body by floating a loaf of bread wrapped up in a shirt which the drowned man had last pulled off—an experiment which failed by the sinking of the loaf, and naturally could not be repeated. A week later we find this entry in the Journal: "The body of Frederick M. has just now floated, but has left shirt and provisions behind." The second journey to the Ohio country enabled Colonel May to witness the inauguration of Washington as President, which he reports at some length. The value of the original documents is greatly enhanced throughout by the learned and judicious notes of Mr. William M. Darlington, of Pittsburgh, while a grandson of the author, Rev. Richard S. Edes, furnishes a compendious sketch of his ancestor's life and pedigree. The volume is beautifully printed, and is the first of a new series of publications by the Historical and Philosophical Society of Ohio

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A Concise Analytical and Logical Development of the Atmospheric System and of the Elements of Prognostication. . . . Adapted to the Practical Mind of the Country. By T. B. Butler, author of 'The Philosophy of the Weather.' With cuts illustrating the varieties of clouds, and plans showing the paths of tornadoes and the distribution of rainfall over the United States in different months of the year. (Norwalk, Ct.: A. Selleck. 403 pp. 16mo.)—Mr. Butler is a scientific enthusiast, whose self-control, although very imperfect, is yet in a very fair proportion to his energy as contrasted with the

uncontrol of most of those who allow their enthusiasm to express itself. His book is therefore uncommonly readable, owing to the tension of feeling under which it was written. The conciseness to which he lays claim on his title-page may be conceded, for concise is a relative word; but his style is too vehement to endure the trammels of logic. Force, however, is a positive and cardinal quality, and in this case it is combined with another quality which renders his book one of the least untrustworthy works upon meteorology which have appeared—viz., its point of view, though narrow, is closer to the ground-level of facts than the standpoints of other writers upon the subject, who are carried aloft by their fondness for chosen hypotheses. Mr. Butler's eagerness is directed rather to lucid, generalized statements of leading facts than to suppositions in explanation of these facts. He says in the preface: "I have avoided, as far as possible, the consideration of theories. I have come to regard them, and the men who persistently and against new truths as discovered promulgate and teach them, with a degree of disgust which I have not been able to restrain." A good example of this disgust occurs in his comments on a lecture by Prof. Henry during a breeze, the direction of which was apparent from the motion of the loose clouds in it:

"If that southerly wind had been created by the suction of a vortex, it would have *obeyed the law of its creation, and gone up the vortex.* But there it was, visible from the seat I occupied during the lecture, *moving as I have seen it a hundred times,* AND WITHIN 2,000 FEET OF THE LECTURER'S HEAD, *a conclusive refutation of the fundamental doctrine of his lecture.* In the debate which followed, I alluded to it. . . . It was conceded, and the fact cannot be denied, that if there was such a vortex the wind and scud must ascend it, and could be seen to do so. And I offered Prof. Henry $50 a scud for every one he would prove to have been seen so ascending. Prof. Loomis asked for a renewal of the proposition, saying he was up for a speculation. It was renewed AS A STANDING OFFER and in good faith, although the discovery of a single vortex would sweep away all I possess. It is now ten years since, and no vortex has been discovered or money called for."

The italics are the author's. This passage indicates his practical directness, and also the motive power of the book, which is hatred of Halley's hypothesis that storms are created by the upward suction of heated tracts of air. It is true of this as of many controversies, that it is futile, from the refusal of each side to understand the other's use of terms; and all the pages which our author so hotly devotes to it miss their aim, because he forgets that a current may ascend without ascending so steeply as that its ascension shall be conspicuously more rapid than the simultaneous descent through it of the cloud-vesicles suspended in it (for clouds are always falling, though they seldom appear to fall, because their under-surface is being evaporated by heat reflected from the earth, and because the air which floats them is usually being tilted upward by rising land or by a neighboring mass of heavier air). Another unfortunate misuse of terms in the statement of Halley's hypothesis, which goes far to justify our author's contempt for it, is the implication that an "upward suction" is the fountain of force, which is a reversal of cause and effect much as if it were said of a mixture of oil and water that the lightness of the oil forced the water downward, whereas the buoyancy is merely a weakness, the heaviness of the water (and, in the case typified, of the colder air) being the positive force which commences the motion, so that the warmer air should be said to be crowded up, not sucked up.

Mr. Butler spends many pages in proving, against the cyclonic theory, the idle criticism that there exists great inequality between the winds on the different quarters of the revolving areas. But no one denies this. That wind is the strongest which blows from the largest area of heavy air, and covers most surface; thus, on our coast, summer cyclones are preceded by long sea breezes (S.E.), and winter cyclones are followed by long gales from the land (N.W.)

Several collections of rules for predicting the weather are concisely and lucidly discussed. The chief scientific value of the book is its recognition of the fundamental importance of tracing the movements of the areas or belts of greatest rainfall from month to month. The last chapter attempts to prove that electricity is the cause of all meteorological phenomena.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*
Adler (Prof. F.), Der Felsendom zu Jerusalem, swd.	(L. W. Schmidt)
Byr (R.), The Struggle for Existence: a Tale.	(H. N. McKinney & Co.)
Covrodi (A.), R. Burns und P. Hebel, swd.	(L. W. Schmidt)
Gallenga (A.), The Pearl of the Antilles.	(Scribner, Welford & Armstrong) $2 25
Hirsche (K.), Proleg mena zu einer neuen Ausgabe der Imitatio Christi, vol. 1, swd.	(L. W. Schmidt)
Kradolfer (I.), Die altchristliche Moral, swd.	" "
Landgraf (Dr. I.), Die Sicherung des Arbeits-Vertrages, swd.	" "
Levavasseur (G.), Absolutisme ou République. swd.	(F. W. Christern)
Mackarness (Mrs. H.), Children of the Olden Time.	(Scribner, Welford & Armstrong) 1 25
McKeever (Miss H. B.), The House on the Heights.	(H. N. McKinney & Co.)
Newcomb (Prof. S.), Investigation of the Orbit of Uranus.	(Smithsonian Institution)

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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

NOVEMBER 17.

CONTRARY to general expectation, there has been no change made in the Bank of England rate of discount, which remains at 9 per cent., to which point it was raised at a special meeting, November 7. The news received from London during the latter part of the week was favorable, and there is every indication that the anticipated trouble has been avoided by the prompt action of the Bank in raising the rate of discount.

The situation here shows further improvement; the banks have added considerably to their reserve, especially in legal tenders, which now amount to $28,380,000, while the loan certificates have been reduced to $18,000,000, against $22,000,000, the amount outstanding a week ago. The principal event of the week was the report of the "Committee of Nine," appointed by the Clearing-House Association to consider carefully and report what reforms were required in the practical operations of banks with each other and with the public to increase the security of their business. The report says:

"Having now considered the prominent evils which exist, the removal of which your Committee consider as indispensable to the harmonious intercourse between banks bound together by common interests, and having recommended for their approval:

"1st. That payment of interest on deposits, either directly or indirectly, be entirely prohibited.

"2d. That each bank, while it observes the requirements of the law of Congress respecting a reserve fund, be required to carry at all times an amount of legal-tender notes equal to at least fifteen per cent. of its liabilities to the public.

"3d. That no bank shall certify a check as good until the full amount of it shall appear upon its books from a deposit regularly entered to the credit of the drawer.

"4th. That no check or draft shall be received by a bank upon deposit at par as cash, drawn otherwise than upon one of the banks composing the Clearing-House Association.

"5th. That all checks and drafts upon places out of the city of New York shall only be taken at rates of discount established monthly by the Clearing-House Committee."

Money on call was easy through the entire week at 7 per cent., and there was a difficulty in lending it most of the time at that. Commercial paper moved more freely, sales being reported at rates varying from 12 to 18 per cent.

The following shows the highest and lowest sales of the leading stocks at the Stock Exchange, for the week ending November 15:

	Monday.		Tuesday.		Wed'day.		Thursday		Friday.		Saturday.		Sales.
N. Y. C & H. R...	79⅜	80¾	80½	83½	83¾	86¼	86⅛	89½	87¾	88⅝	87½	88⅛	155,100
Lake Shore.....	62	64	62½	65⅜	64¼	66¼	66¼	68⅜	68⅜	69¼	66⅜	67⅛	127,300
Erie.....	37	39	37⅜	39	39¼	42	42¼	44	43⅜	43¾	43⅜	45⅛	10,500
Do. pfd.....	....	60	.....	.....	62	63¼	63¼	....	65	....	.....	.....	.....
Union Pacific	16	16¾	16½	17⅜	16⅞	17½	17½	19⅜	18¾	19¼	19⅛	20⅛	55,700
Chi. & N. W.....	35¼	36	36	37⅜	37	37⅞	38¼	40	38¾	39¼	39	40	13,800
Do. pfd.....	54¼	55¼	55½	57	57⅜	59½	60	60½	61½	63½	62	63	3,500
N. J. Central.....	86	....	87	....	87½	89	89½	92	91	91½	.....	.....	600
Rock Island.....	86	88½	88½	90¼	86½	87¾	87¾	89¼	87	88¼	87½	89	12,600
Mil. & St. Paul....	23	23⅜	24	25⅜	25½	26⅜	27	29	27¾	28¼	27¾	29⅝	33,800
Do. pfd...	44¾	46½	46	46½	49	49½	50	53	51½	52	51½	53	3,600
Wabash.....	36¾	36⅝	37	38½	37⅜	39¼	39¾	41½	39¼	40⅝	39⅜	41	33,100
D., L. & W.....	83	83¾	85¼	86½	88¾	89½	88	90	88½	....	88¼	91	4,500
O. & M.....	22¼	23½	22⅞	24⅜	23¾	24⅛	24½	26⅜	24¼	25¼	24⅜	25½	24,900
C., C. & I. C.....	17	17½	17¾	9	18½	19	19½	20½	18¾	21⅜	19¼	20	8,000
W. U. Tel.....	48	49¼	49	53¾	53½	55¾	55½	56½	55¼	57¼	55⅝	58½	340 600
Pacific Mail.....	28	29¼	28⅞	30½	29¼	30¾	29⅝	30⅝	26¼	29¼	27⅞	28¾	36,000

The stock market has been active during the greater part of the week. On Wednesday and Thursday prices advanced rapidly, led by Western Union and the other Vanderbilt specialties. There has been some reaction since, one of which was caused by a circulation of a false report of the death of Commodore Vanderbilt. The market closed strong on Saturday, with every indication of a still further improvement in prices in the absence of any unfavorable news.

The following is a condensed abstract of the report of the Committee on Finance of the Pennsylvania Railroad Company in relation to a declaration of a dividend of the profits of the Company for the six months ending October 31, 1873:

The receipts of the Pennsylvania Railroad and branches for the six months ending October 31, 1873		$13,202,701 82
The receipts of the united railways and canal of New Jersey for do		5,625,267 77
Total		$18,827,969 59
The expenses of the Pennsylvania Railroad and branches for six months	$8,071,393 60	
The expenses of the united railways and canal of New Jersey for do	3,940,986 76	$12,012,380 36
Leaving a balance of		$6,815,589 23
To which add income from investments in other lines, real estate, etc., after deducting interest paid on floating debt during same period		994,927 16
Total net income		$7,810,516 39
From which deduct interest paid upon all of the bonds of the Company	$974,956 20	
Semi-annual payment for purchase of main line of public works of the State	230,000 00	
Rent of Harrisburg and Lancaster Railroad	65,123 29	
State tax on coupons and capital stock	215,751 18	
Semi-annual payment under lease of the united railroads of New Jersey	1,820,249 28	$3,306,079 95
Leaving a surplus for division of		$4,504,436 44
Out of which a dividend of 5 per cent. upon the capital stock of the Company is recommended, amounting to		3,363,419 37
Showing surplus of profits of		$1,141,017 70

The Committee go on to state that, in consequence of the financial panic, they are compelled to recommend the payment of a dividend of 5 per cent., payable in scrip; the money out of which it was proposed to pay it having all been absorbed in meeting payments for work, for additional rolling-stock, etc., all necessary to meet the increased business of its railways.

The Government-bond market is strong, and prices are higher. The improvement in the financial situation abroad has brought about a sharp advance in American bonds in London, which has influenced the home market; while the rise in gold has greatly aided in sending up the currency quotations of our bonds here. The investment demand for Governments is reported to have been very good during the past week. The present low prices for bonds seem to attract investors of that class who look more to the safety of their principal than for large returns in the way of interest upon their money.

In railroad bonds business has been fairly active, and prices are higher. The demand for the Union Pacifics has been greatest. These bonds are certainly low enough, as a speculation merely, to buy at present prices—75 for the First Mortgage 6's, 70 for the Land-grant 7's, 50 for the Incomes.

The gold market has been strong and active. The premium has advanced, owing to an increased demand which has come from the merchants, as well as to the Spanish troubles which threaten to arise in consequence of the recent outrages in Cuba. The range of fluctuation has been between 107 on Wednesday and 110 on Saturday, closing at 109⅛ on Saturday.

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NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 27, 1873.

The Week.

ACCORDING to the latest accounts, the number of men killed by the Spaniards at Santiago was fifty-three. Mr. E. G. Schmitt, United States Vice-Consul, and Theodore Brooks, British Vice-Consul, did their best to save the prisoners. Schmitt sent three despatches to General Burriel, the first as early as the 2d of the month, calling the latter's attention to the fact that he, Schmitt, was prevented from using the telegraph to Kingston, requesting to be allowed to see the prisoners who were said to be American citizens, and in general to be permitted to perform his consular duties. To these communications General Burriel made for at least twenty-four hours no reply, and then sent word to the Vice-Consul that the reason he had not answered the first of them was that he, the Consul, ought to have known it was a day of religious festival, and that he and all the other servants of the Government were given up to "meditation on the divine mysteries," and threatened the withdrawal of Mr. Schmitt's *exequatur*, on the ground that he was "compromising the dignity" of the United States, and trying to make trouble between the United States and Spain. To Mr. Brooks's protest against the execution of those among the prisoners claiming British citizenship, General Burriel replied that he regretted extremely his inability to take any steps in the matter, for the prisoners had been already killed. Ryan, it seems, was born in Canada, and did not claim American but British citizenship. In Madrid, popular feeling seems to run high, and demonstrations have been made against General Sickles, but they have been repressed by the Government.

Ex-President Woolsey, in one of his college lectures on international law, has expressed his views on the *Virginius* outrage. He says that the two questions of the capture of the vessel and the punishment of the prisoners must be kept distinct; that, as to the latter, nations in general make their own usages of war, inhuman or humane, as the case may be, and that usually other nations have nothing to do with them; though, in extreme cases, interference in the interest of civilization has been thought morally justifiable; that whether *one* case of inhumanity, and that a result of judicial trial, would call for interference "is a point which an incomplete knowledge of the circumstances puts it out of our power to decide. It may be that the just wrath of the Cubans against long-continued insurrection fed from abroad called for an example. It may be that a fiendish spirit of savage cruelty, going up from the populace to the courts, wreaked itself in a horrible way. I leave this to be decided by those who can get greater light and more trustworthy accounts than have come to me." As to the seizure, President Woolsey takes the view expressed last week in these columns, that the American ownership of the *Virginius* was a "sham," and that, under similar circumstances, no nation under heaven would have allowed what was in reality an insurgent vessel to escape. The name of the ship on the register, by the way, is said to be *Virginia*, and not *Virginius* at all.

We alluded last week to the fact that the accounts given in the newspapers of the great mass-meeting at Steinway Hall were inaccurate. Several small items of news, which have since come to light, show the manner in which the enthusiasm of the meeting was got up. One of the despatches read to the audience was the following, sent by Governor Hendricks of Indiana:

"INDIANAPOLIS, IND., Nov. 17, 1873.

"Spain cannot be permitted to maintain her authority in Cuba by means which civilized nations regard as atrocious, and, in the cause of humanity and good government, the United States should now extend their sympathy and power over that island. I think this is the sentiment of the people of Indiana. THOMAS A. HENDRICKS."

This despatch called out the most enthusiastic applause. It seems that it was sent in answer to an urgent request from the committee in charge that Governor Hendricks would send a "stunning despatch" to be read at the meeting. It has also come out that Mr. Sumner, in reply to the request addressed to him, wrote a letter of a very calm and moderate tone, deprecating a war excitement. This letter is dated "Boston, Nov. 15," but for some reason or other did not reach the committee till the 18th, so that they were unfortunately unable to read it to their fellow-citizens on the evening of the 17th.

The Cuban "excitement" is, we presume, rapidly subsiding. All we know about it we have learned from the daily papers, and they have nearly all changed their tone within a week. Where the "excited" persons are, we are as ignorant as ever. We would warn people most earnestly, however, against secret "excitement"—nothing racks the constitution more severely. Anybody who is wrought up by the *Virginius* affair ought therefore to come out and give free vent to his feelings in the presence of his countrymen. The Government in the meantime, we are glad to say, goes on its way soberly and sensibly, taking information and looking into the books, and the probability increases that the matter will be settled amicably. But we are bound to say that we think no settlement will be satisfactory which does not provide for the punishment of General Burriel. His refusal to delay the executions, and his stopping the consular telegrams, admit of no palliation, and show him to be a dangerous fellow, to whose jurisdiction, either in peace or war, no civilized government ought to permit its subjects to be exposed. His excuse for not answering Vice-Consul Schmitt's letters, that he received them on a saint's day when he was "meditating on the divine mysteries," is a capital specimen of the mixture of piety and ferocity which has long formed a prominent feature of the Spanish character. Coupled with the Archbishop's boast of the conversion of the twenty poor devils who, probably in the hope that baptism might save their lives, put themselves in the hands of his priests at the last moment, it presents an excellent picture of the kind of contribution the annexation of Cuba would make to our morals and our politics. It is well, before passing from the subject, to remind the uproarious patriots who are publishing lists of the frigates we are getting ready to thrash the Spaniards, that all our large wooden screws would be sent to the bottom by one tap apiece from an iron-clad, just as the *Cumberland* and *Congress* were in 1862 by the *Merrimac*, and that it is very doubtful whether any one of them would not be disabled by the explosion between decks of one of the shells which big naval guns now throw. So we recommend that all mention of them be omitted from our calculations. They are only good for capturing merchant vessels, or bombarding lightly armed fortifications.

Tweed was sentenced on Saturday by Judge Davis to twelve years' imprisonment (twelve terms of one year each) in the county jail, and to a number of fines which in the aggregate amount to $12,750 18. His counsel made an attempt to obtain a stay of proceedings, but without success, and Tweed is probably at this moment engaged at hard labor in a convict's uniform on Blackwell's Island. As soon as sentence had been pronounced, Judge Davis gave notice that the court would this week proceed to consider "an occurrence which took place" at the beginning of the trial. This occurrence was an attempt on the part of the counsel for the defence to get Judge Davis out of the case, by a formal protest, on the ground of bias and prejudice, against the propriety of his presiding. Some short time since, in the same court, a lawyer by the name of Flan-

ders was suspended from practice, for a month, for contempt, by the General Term, and we sincerely hope that Judge Davis will now punish Mr. Graham and his associates in a way that they will remember. Mr. Graham has for years done his best to bring justice into contempt at every important criminal trial, by using foul language to the court, threatening his adversary with personal violence, or bursting into a flood of tears. The matter will come up on Saturday.

Speaker Blaine seems likely to be involved in considerable trouble about the Committees at the opening of Congress. A certain set of members—some good, and some bad—are anxious to have all those who were in any way implicated in the Crédit Mobilier affair excluded from the important places; and an equally strong party, including the Administration men, maintain that the Crédit Mobilier affair was not so dreadful after all, and that it would be a shame to disturb anybody on account of it. The fight is likely to make Mr. Blaine's position a very delicate one, but, as the Chicago *Tribune* points out, it is none of his business to punish members for connection with the Crédit Mobilier matter. That is the duty of the House, and the House has discharged it in its own way. It is now a little too late for virtuous indignation with regard to that particular sin. Whatever Congress may have to spare of that noble passion, should now be reserved for any little errors or lapses which may happen to leak out during the coming winter.

Insubordination has been spreading rapidly of late among the Republican newspapers, of which *Harper's Weekly* and the New York *Times* present the two most prominent examples. The latter, in particular, indulged in most disrespectful and thinly-veiled language with regard to Murphy, Bliss, and Davenport after the last election, and intimated that it would eat no more dirt of their providing, while *Harper's Weekly* has openly accused the President of complicity in the "back-pay steal." The contagion is now spreading to Congressmen. A flagrant case of insubordination on the part of one of these has just occurred in New Jersey, where Mr. William Walter Phelps declared, at a nominating convention where he was surrounded by the faithful, that "the party was not what it had been"; that he disapproved of the Crédit Mobilier business, the back-pay business, and the mode of filling custom-houses and consulates. He went further, and committed *scandalum magnatum* by finding fault with the character and standing of the persons whom the President gathers around him "in his hours of social relaxation." There was, perhaps, nothing new in this; but it was uttered in a new place, and, what was worse, was heartily applauded. The local organ of the party replied that Mr. Phelps must be crazy; that his speech was most "disheartening" and "disloyal"; that the President's companions proved him to be a man of the people, and not a heartless aristocrat like Mr. Phelps, whom it also called a "millionaire" and by other opprobrious epithets. If Mr. Phelps thinks that speeches of this sort are likely to promote "harmony and discipline," he is laboring under a sad mistake, and we recommend the organs to look after him as a dangerous person. "Reform within the party," we would remind him, is not likely to prove a lighter task in New Jersey than elsewhere.

The annual report of the Postmaster-General puts the revenues for the year (ending June 30) at $22,996,741, and the expenditures of all kinds, $29,084,945. For the year ending June 30, 1872, the ordinary revenues were $21,915,426, and the expenditures $26,658,192. In 1873 there was an increase of revenue over 1872 of $1,081,315, or 4.93 per cent., and an increase of expenditures of $2,426,753, or 9.10 per cent. A comparison of 1873 with 1871 shows an increase in revenues of $2,959,696, or 14.42 per cent., and an increase of expenditures of $4,694,841, or 19.24 per cent. The report recommends that the free-delivery system be provided for cities having a population of not less than 10,000. Money-order transactions show an increase of over $9,000,000, or 18.55 per cent. more than last year. During the first year of the postal-card experiment, 100,000,000 cards will have been used. The report finds the results of the abolition of franking very satisfactory, deprecates any attempt to revive the privilege, and urges the immediate establishment of a postal telegraph. The estimated expenditures for the year 1874 are $33,929,912; total estimated revenues, $29,293,549—leaving a deficiency to be appropriated out of the general Treasury of $4,636,383. This does not include $1,125,000 for mail service between San Francisco and Japan and China, and between the United States and Brazil, and between San Francisco and the Sandwich Islands. The chief officer of the Signal Service has also made his report. He gives the annual ratio of verifications of predictions as follows: New England, 81.50; Middle States, 81.17; South Atlantic, 79.92; Lower Lakes, 78.90; Eastern Gulf, 77.16; Ohio Valley, 76.42; Western Gulf, 74.40; Upper Lakes, 75.25; Northwest, 74.

The Report of the Comptroller of the Currency takes the form of an essay on "free banking" experiments and a defence of the national-bank system. This, he says, will become in time the best system in the world, and, in reality, banking is now perfectly "free," since "every individual or association of individuals throughout the country" can receive deposits, and discount paper, "and transact almost every kind of business pertaining to legitimate banking." He seems to be of the opinion that no two persons mean the same thing when they speak of "free banking." The Comptroller says that he is not at all in favor of an irredeemable currency, but thinks that the people of the country would make a great mistake if they went back to the state of affairs existing before the war, in which there were different rates of exchange for the different State banks, and points to the fact that during the recent panic no distinction was made by the people between legal-tender and national-bank notes. The Comptroller is also in favor of an elastic currency, and the whole report bears evident marks of "inspiration." What he means by an elastic currency he does not say, but apparently he has in mind the 3.65 convertible currency-bond plan, possibly combined with partial resumption in silver, though this last, by the way, has been modified by the Treasury—the creditors of the Government to the extent of fractional parts of a dollar only, receiving silver; those whose claims rise higher in amount than one dollar are now paid in paper.

The Executive Committee of the Pennsylvania Constitutional Convention have issued an address to the people of that State, and the proposed amendments have been published separately. They are in general very like the amendments proposed in other States during the last few years. Special legislation is done away with as far as possible. The term of the governor is hereafter made four years, without the privilege of re-election, and appointments are to be made by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, who, in considering them, are to sit with open doors; the vote is to be taken by yeas and nays and entered on the journal. The governor is authorized to veto any one or more items of an appropriation bill, while approving the rest.

> "This is to correct an abuse of great magnitude and long standing, by which appropriations introduced into the general bill providing for the expenses of the State, and which of themselves could not be sustained, must be approved, or leave the State without appropriation for its support."

The judiciary is to remain elective, but the Supreme Court judges are to be twenty-one years, and are not re-eligible—for practical purposes a life-tenure. All patronage is taken away from the courts. In Philadelphia, the office of alderman is abolished, and a number of elective magistrates (chosen by a qualified minority scheme) are substituted. There is also a provision for minority or "three-cornered" representation in the Boards of County Commissioners. All contested election cases are to be tried by the courts. The amendments provide for free railroad and telegraph laws, and against any unjust railroad discrimination or "fictitious increase of stock or indebtedness." The loaning of credit or holding of stock in corporations is forbidden to the State, as well as to cities, towns, boroughs, or counties.

International complications of a grave nature have arisen in

Chicago. The recent election in that city, our readers may not be aware, resulted in the triumph of what is called the "People's party," of which Mr. Hesing, editor of the Chicago *Staats-Zeitung*, is one of the principal leaders. Mr. Hesing celebrated his victory by raising over the office of the *Staats-Zeitung* the national emblem of Prussia, or Germany, it seems uncertain which. Fault being found with this offensive display by some of his contemporaries, on the ground that it indicated a plain desire on the part of the editor to subvert the liberties of the country which had welcomed him to her shores, and probably to bring the United States under the iron yoke of Bismarck, Mr. Hesing has published a reply, which the Chicago *Tribune* describes as a "very ingenious piece of sophistry." The *Staats-Zeitung* had referred, it seems, in justification, to the practice of carrying the Irish flag side by side with the American in processions; but, as the *Tribune* justly says, the signification of this practice has always been held to be not love but the detestation of foreign dominion. Mr. Hesing's flag, however, meant not, as he spuriously pretends, "equality of rights," but the victory of Germany in an American election. This is "an offence which has never been committed by any other nationality. It is the first time in the history of this city that a foreign flag has ever been displayed in connection with a political campaign—the first indication of foreign interference in home matters." The *Tribune* also asks Mr. Hesing to "inform us how long an American flag would be tolerated in Berlin or the smallest German village, *under similar circumstances*, and what would be the probable fate of the American who should proclaim his intention to repeat the display when he saw fit." To this request we have not yet seen Mr. Hesing's reply. Flaying, we believe, is the punishment usually inflicted by Bismarck for the first offence.

The Episcopal Church is a good deal agitated by the secession of Bishop Cummins, of Kentucky, who, while he was in New York attending the meetings of the Evangelical Alliance, followed the example of the Dean of Canterbury in taking the communion with Presbyterians. The criticism, to use a mild word, to which this has exposed him has precipitated a step which he had apparently, under the influence of horror of Ritualism even in its mildest form, contemplated for some time back. He has accordingly withdrawn from the Episcopal Church, but apparently does not consider that he has resigned his bishopric, as he says that "he transfers his work and office to another sphere of labor." What this means we cannot well tell, but it would appear to indicate an intention of setting up a church of his own. He is not a man of sufficient force, or learning, or eloquence to make his withdrawal of serious importance, or his new undertaking likely to be very successful, but of course the departure of a bishop is always a little startling. The controversy about the communion has raged at great length in the columns of the *Tribune*, and of course has raised incidentally the question of the superiority of episcopal ordination to that of other denominations, and a great many theologians have taken part in it.

The death of John P. Hale on the 19th instant found the public mind preoccupied with the Cuban imbroglio, and perhaps had little significance for the generation which has grown up since he was first elected to the House of Representatives, and promptly took sides against slavery and its extension through the annexation of Texas. It is easier to carry the imagination back a century than it is thirty years ago, and we are not likely to overestimate the moral courage displayed by Mr. Hale in allying himself with the anti-slavery minority whose presence was scarcely tolerated in the Capitol by the slaveholders. Elected by Democrats, and representing a Democratic State, he set a manly example of political independence which was afterwards rewarded by his promotion to the Senate, where manliness was still less a characteristic of the North than in the House. In maintaining his person and his self-respect intact amid the grim fanatics of the slaveholding party, he gave a remarkable demonstration of the power of humor over minds almost completely destitute of it. But it was precisely the kind of temper with which the Southerner was incapable of dealing. When in 1852 the Free-soil party made him its candidate for the Presidency, he received a merited compliment, but it was the nearest he was destined to come to that office. Like his colleagues in the anti-slavery struggle, he was assigned a subordinate post in the conduct of the Government during the rebellion, and for office contented himself with the mission to Spain, for which he was but ill fitted, and from which he returned with health permanently undermined. He passed away in the 67th year of his age.

Our Paris Correspondent describes what is thought in Paris of the Royalist overthow, and of the régime which has succeeded it, which is to all intents and purposes a monarchical régime. The Marshal is nominally "President of the French Republic" for a term of years, just as General Grant is President of the American Republic, but then General Grant holds office under a constitution which strictly defines his powers and duties, and is, for all branches of the Government, "the supreme law of the land." President MacMahon, on the other hand, holds office under nothing more authoritative than his own message to the Assembly, in which he calls for such a prolongation of his powers, and such an extension of them, as will enable him to discourage the factions, to secure obedience from his own agents, to restrain the excesses of the press, confine the municipalities to the exercise of their legal rights, and, in short, provide France with "a strong and durable executive." The experiment of such a Government is certainly a dangerous one, but it is one to which France returns continually after vain attempts at something better. The hopeful feature in the present case is that she has got back this time peacefully, and under the forms of law, and it is, therefore, reasonable to hope that a durable and satisfactory constitution may grow out of it.

There is nothing very new in the condition of things in Spain; but the Carlists appear to be gathering fresh strength, and the fact that they are moving in considerable force towards Castile and Aragon goes far to confirm the report of a victory gained by them over Morionos last week. The Cartagena insurgents are said to be much divided and demoralized, and the city appears to be now largely in the hands of fifteen hundred liberated convicts, headed by Contreras. They are every day reported to be going to surrender, and the inactivity of the besieging force supports the belief that the Government is negotiating or bribing to that end. From Madrid we have little news; but Castelar's difficulties, which were increasing before, have undoubtedly been aggravated by the Cuban affair, and there is a rumor afloat at this writing that he has been displaced to make way for Serrano. Whether this be now true or not, some such result cannot be very far distant, and was foreshadowed in many minds by the "adhesion" given him a few weeks ago by the leading Monarchists and Radicals. This adhesion probably meant the return of these gentlemen to "politics," or, in other words, to their old game of intrigue and counter-intrigue, in which Castelar is sure to suffer.

The Italian press has begun again its periodical discussion of emigration, the alarmist portion urging a return to Government interference like that attempted a few years ago, when passports were denied those who seemed unlikely to support themselves in their new homes, and who might therefore be expected to be sent back at their country's expense. Experience has shown, however, that emigration affords a normal relief to the country, ridding it of many turbulent and vicious elements, and returning to it prosperous and law-abiding citizens with fortunes made abroad; for the Italian emigrant is strongly attached to home, and, as the colony on the Plate shows in a remarkable degree, aims generally at ending his days on his native soil. The sums of money sent over to parents and kinsfolk form a large contribution to the wealth of the kingdom. The Ligurians, for instance, who are found in considerable numbers, chiefly as fishermen, on our Pacific coast, send annually from all parts of America hundreds of thousands of dollars through the bankers of Genoa, and the Italian postal-order department paid last year more than twelve hundred thousand dollars on remittances from abroad.

WHAT DOES THE FLAG PROTECT?

PURSUING the course of argument which was commenced in our article of last week, we now propose to state those doctrines and positive rules of the international law which regulate the use of the high seas, and especially those rules which, treating the flag as the symbol of national sovereignty and independence, accord to it a protection of the vessel over which it is raised. The application to the case of the *Virginius* will be evident. As the result of long and fierce wars between powerful maritime countries, it is now an accepted principle—one of the doctrines which lie at the foundation of modern international law—that the ocean, is the common highway of the world. Belonging to no power, it can be used by all alike; each has upon it the same rights as all the others; each may navigate it unmolested by the others, except when war introduces some modifications of these common rights which affect both the combatants themselves and also the other nations which, not taking a direct part in the contest, are called neutrals. The jurisdiction of every independent and sovereign state—that is, its power over persons and things—is, in respect of the place of its exercise, twofold. This jurisdiction may be exercised over all persons and things within the national territory; it may be exercised over the persons and things of its own citizens upon the high seas. The vessels of a nation, whether public men-of-war or private ships of commerce, are by a certain fiction spoken of as parts of the national territory. As long as these vessels remain upon the open sea, this fiction represents with sufficient accuracy the exact truth, and on it the only limit to the actual power of the nation is a physical one. In other words—and we merely state the same proposition in different terms—the private commercial vessels of a nation are always under the operation of the country's municipal law while upon the high seas, and are, therefore, liable to be stopped, searched, and seized in any manner and by any instrument prescribed by that law—for example, by a national man-of-war. The same convenient fiction which regards a ship on the ocean as a detached portion of the territory of the country to which it belongs, carries the local law and jurisdiction of that country after the vessel, wherever found upon the high seas, and thus extends such law and jurisdiction, in respect to these movable objects, to all parts of the world. This holds good, whatever may be the character, business, designs, motives, or intentions of the owners of these national vessels. If certain subjects of a sovereign, independent state revolt, and any condition of hostilities arises, the original jurisdiction of that state over the ships, warlike or commercial, belonging to its insurgent subjects on the high seas continues through all possible phases of the contest, until the parent government has itself recognized the independence of its former subjects. The acts of other nations do not and cannot affect this original jurisdiction; recognition of belligerency, recognition of independence even, by other states does not sever the tie which joined the parent nation and all its people. Such recognition simply affects the relations subsisting between the two hostile communities and the neutral countries granting the recognition.

The number of independent, sovereign states which form at any time the whole family of civilized peoples acknowledging the modern international law is known and established by mutual agreement as a fact, and no new member can be received without the consent of the others, which consent is expressed in the act of recognition. This existing status of independent nations, and this possibility of independent jurisdiction over the high seas, running with and exercised upon the vessels of war or of commerce, has made it necessary that the nationality of every vessel should be certified to the world in some manner, so that the sovereignty and jurisdiction under which she sails should be respected. The ship's papers or commission, officially authenticated at home, and the flag are the means of certification. A private unarmed ship, without such official papers from some recognized country, and not bearing the flag of such a country, is without the protection of the international law, and would not be suffered to engage in commerce; she would be condemned and subjected to forfeiture by the municipal law of the first port which she entered. What is the condition of an armed vessel or transport carrying no commission and flag from a government properly recognized? Technically, she is a pirate. In former times an actual pirate was treated as an enemy of mankind, and was liable to be captured on the ocean by any power, while the crew were justiciable in any country. The law of nations regards other armed vessels as pirates who differ far from the freebooters to whom the name is popularly given; thus, a privateer bearing commissions from two different governments is a pirate. At the present day, however, it is certain that such a privateer would not be treated as a pirate by any nations whose commerce she had not molested. In the same manner, while an armed man-of-war or a transport having a commission and flag of a people which had received no recognition—that is, of a rebellious community to which the right of belligerency had not been accorded—would technically be a pirate by the international law, she would not be practically treated as such by the countries not taking a part in the contest, but might be and would be piratical as respects the parent state against which she was carrying on hostilities. Hence arises the overwhelming necessity to a revolted community of being recognized in some manner that shall give it a *quasi* national standing. It is plain, therefore, that prior to the lowest grade of recognition—that of belligerency—a revolted province cannot carry on maritime warfare against the parent government, cannot resort to the use of armed ships or transports sailing under its own flag, without rendering these vessels technically piratical, and without subjecting the officers and crews technically to the penalties of piracy. Unless the insurgents are powerful in comparison with their enemies, and have extensive maritime resources—in which case they would undoubtedly be at once recognized as belligerents—they must of necessity, as was stated in our former article, pursue their maritime warfare under the cover of some other flag—some flag belonging to a sovereign nation, which must, of course, be a mere spectator of the conflict. That this use would be fraudulent, would be an outrage upon the neutral, and might subject it to severe reclamations from the parent, state, was the very doctrine maintained by the United States in the Alabama controversy, and triumphantly enforced in the Treaty of Washington and by the Geneva Arbitration.

The question then occurs: Does this unlawful and fraudulent use, by an unrecognized insurgent community, of another flag and other means of ordinarily certifying a national commercial ownership and character, cut off the right of the parent government to capture the vessel on the high seas—a right which would clearly have existed if she were sailing under the flag adopted by the rebels themselves? The answer would seem to be plain, and the international law is certainly in need of amendment if it permits such a subterfuge, such a fraud upon the sovereignty and dignity of a state, to be used with success. All nations are properly jealous of any violence or indignity offered to their flag, because the flag is an emblem of the independence and sovereignty which constitute the nation. But this independence and sovereignty, much more than the mere symbol of them, exist solely to enforce the jurisdiction of the nation and to protect its citizens and property. This jurisdiction, outside the territory on the high seas, extends only to its citizens and property, and its flag cannot, by its own municipal law or by the international law, be legitimately used to bring vessels and persons not belonging to it under the cover of its protection. The case of ordinary piracy is plain; no doubt has ever been suggested in reference to it. If an actual pirate should in some manner be provided with an United States register and other ship's papers, and should carry the United States flag, no one pretends that the United States would or could object to its capture by a British or French man-of-war. A case is thus established in which apparent regular national ownership and the national flag do not hinder the proceedings of other nations

which have jurisdiction over the subject-matter. The rule of this case extends to others which fall within the same principle. As we have shown, the armed or warlike vessel of an insurgent community, having no recognized status of any kind, and of course no flag, is technically a pirate by the international law; and although in modern times the indifferent neutral states of the world have practically abandoned their jurisdiction over her, the parent state retains such jurisdiction as fully and as rightfully as the jurisdiction of every nation over the pirate according to the popular acceptation of the word. Between these two communities—that is, the parent state and the rebels—the vessel is a true, legal pirate, and the foreign flag is no more protection than a similar flag flying over one of the buccaneers which once infested the Spanish main.

But it has been said that the United States, in the famous controversy with Great Britain respecting "the right of search," maintained the doctrine that its flag was under all circumstances an absolute protection, that it absolutely repelled the right of search in time of peace, and that the same rule must now prevail, since a state of war between Spain and the Cubans does not exist. It is well for us to remember that the position of the United States in that controversy was assumed by a Government which was carried on in the interests of slaveholders and slaveholding. The Southern politicians who then controlled the Government were determined to do as little as possible to interfere with the slave-trade; and because they could not take open ground in the face of the world in favor of the hellish traffic, they placed their resistance to the requests of Great Britain upon the sanctity of the American flag. A very large part of the slave-trade was carried on under our flag, and the right of search demanded by the British Government was then refused. In 1862, the United States receded from this position, and entered into a treaty whereby the right was conceded to British cruisers on the African coast. It is surely remarkable that the old slaveholding pretensions should now be cited as precedents to be followed by a Republican Administration. But even in that controversy the United States did not assume the ground that its flag was absolutely and under all circumstances inviolable on the high seas. While some passages or sentences from the long correspondence may, when separated from their context, support such a view, the most solemn and authoritative acts of the Government fall far short of it. What was the exact point in dispute? If a ship carrying our flag was boarded and discovered to be a slaver, and therefore captured, did the United States object and treat the seizure as a national outrage? By no means. The mere fact of being a slaver showed that the assumption of the flag was fraudulent and in itself an outrage. What the British Government demanded and our own refused was, that if the vessel proved to be innocent, the search should still be excused. In other words, the United States declared that *its* ships, carrying its flag, should not be searched to ascertain whether they were slavers. A British cruiser searched at its peril, but discovery of the slaver character at once justified the capture. After a long negotiation, a treaty was made in 1842, by which the United States stipulated to maintain a squadron in the African waters. The instructions given, in consequence of this treaty, to its naval commanders by our Government, show more clearly than any other official document the exact position of the United States upon this particular point. From these instructions we take the following extracts: "The United States does not recognize in any nation the right of visiting and detaining the merchant ships of American citizens." The document then states that pirates according to the international law may be boarded and searched, but that this rule does not extend to pirates declared to be such by the municipal law only, in which class are slavers. It proceeds: "The right, therefore, which exists, by the unanimous consent of nations, in respect to ships suspected of acts of piracy, does not extend to those employed in the slave-trade. As to the latter, there exists no right of visit or search which can affect American vessels, except that which can be exercised by our own men-of-war. But the privilege which the United States asserts, of not permitting their merchant vessels to be visited under any pretext (except for suspicion of piracy) by the cruisers of other nations, *presupposes that the vessel visited is really American.* The manner of ascertaining this fact is the only question which presents any difficulty. The flag which a vessel carries is *prima-facie* proof of her nationality, but not conclusive proof. The flag is an emblem; *it loses its true character when it is carried by a vessel which has no right to be covered by it. . . . The United States certainly do not pretend that the act of raising the American flag ought to confer a privilege upon those who have no right to be covered by it.* Such a pretence would expose their flag to be degraded and dishonored, since it could then be made to protect acts of piracy or other such atrocious crimes; but they wish that their citizens who lawfully sail under it should enjoy all the protection which it carries with it" (Ortolan, 'Diplomatie de la Mer,' vol. i., pp. 242, 243, 4th ed.) These private instructions, proceeding from the Government to its own subordinates, disclose its position far more accurately than the public, and sometimes heated, diplomatic correspondence. The doctrine here announced, under circumstances most favorable to the claim of inviolability in the flag, decides the questions involved in the capture of the *Virginius*, and furnishes an authoritative precedent which the Administration can consistently follow. This doctrine is, that the flag protects American vessels, but does not protect those owned and controlled by alien communities who fraudulently use it in warlike operations against powers with which the country is at peace.

There are many analogies between the *Virginius* and the Confederate cruisers which gave rise to the *Alabama* controversy. Though not technically armed, she was in fact a transport, and as such was as truly warlike at the time as though she carried guns for attack. The broad underlying principle set forth in the Treaty of Washington and affirmed by the Geneva Arbitration clearly applies to her case. The neutral burdens which we have with so great *éclat* assumed are doubtless heavy; but it would be monstrous to see them thrown off in the very first instance where their pressure begins to be felt.

THE OVERTHROW OF TWEED.

THE transfer of Tweed to Blackwell's Island as a convict is, since the deposition of the corrupt judges, the most important and valuable result of the Reform movement of 1871, and the evidence by which it was brought about is perhaps one of the most curious and interesting bits of demonstration in the history of criminal jurisprudence. One of the papers has called his conviction "a vindication of democracy"; but it is to be hoped that democracy will not often have to be vindicated in any such way. Indeed, the fact that any democrat should feel disposed to boast of the Tweed trial, is a striking illustration of the modesty of the attitude to which democracy is in our day reduced, and of the contrast which this attitude offers to the fierce exultation and hopefulness with which the friends of popular government began the present century. That the most powerful official of a democratic city should enter into a conspiracy with the mayor and treasurer to rob the treasury, and should do so to the extent of many millions, with the aid and connivance of a band of vulgar tools employed by himself, and should have used the funds to corrupt the State legislature into abject submission to his will, and to place his creatures on the judicial bench, and should in the very midst of an exposure of his villany have secured his re-election to the State Senate, is something for which the enthusiasts of seventy years ago were certainly not prepared. At that time, it was only royal favorites and dissolute aristocrats who were supposed to be capable of Tweed's crimes. Nobody dreamed that the people's money would go to furnish orgies for chairmakers, plasterers, and plumbers, or that the revelries of the Palais Royal would be reproduced in simple brown-stone mansions of a city in which no native had ever worn a title. That this should have come to pass, and that when a court was to be organized to try the head and front of all this wickedness it should have been

ound necessary to examine minutely the character, antecedents, and business and social relations of the 900 picked men placed on the jury-list, and to watch night and day with detectives those who were sworn, to prevent their being bribed into a betrayal of justice, are facts by which many an ardent reformer will be sobered. But then, it is also true that many a sober and despondent reformer will be cheered and encouraged by the reflection that, when once a people has grown used to constitutional reform and to peaceful agitation, there is nothing which may not with time and patience be expected of them. The lights are out in the Tweed "mansion"; the stable is vacant, the garden lies waste, and the punch-bowl is empty; and the henchmen are trying many shifts to escape the police or the almshouse, and the great chief himself lies in jail for the rest of his life among common thieves and vagabonds. It was a slow process which brought this about, but no life was lost in it, no legal habit was broken up, no wild hopes were roused, and no defence of personal liberty or of property was swept away by it. Ground which is won for good government in this way is well and surely won, and the victory is certainly worth waiting for. Other Tweeds may arise in this city—indeed, we do not well see why they should not—but the memory of the way in which the original "Boss" was disposed of will itself make their career short and their overthrow and punishment easy.

When we say that other Tweeds may arise, we mean that the reform which has overthrown Tweed is not thorough or radical. The causes which have produced him and his followers are still active, and not in the Democratic party only, but in the Republican party. We do not now refer to the presence in this city of a huge body of ignorant and corrupt voters. We refer to the doctrines with regard to the relations of the party in power to the public revenue which are still held and avowed by nearly all influential politicians on both sides. It is in these doctrines that the seeds of the Tweeds and Connollys and Halls and Sweenys are to be found; the corrupt and ignorant constituencies simply furnish the fruitful soil on which they grow. It will never do, as thoughtful men begin to recognize every day more and more, to treat these rascals as isolated phenomena, without other cause or antecedents than depraved natures. They are the natural product of certain political opinions and habits. As we now look back a little, few of us can avoid wondering that the maxim, that the spoils belong to the victors, did not produce Tweed sooner. As soon as that maxim was embodied in practical politics, his appearance was a mere question of time. He appeared in New York sooner than in Boston or Philadelphia, partly because it is a bigger city, and partly because the heterogeneous composition of the population makes public opinion and public spirit weaker in it. But when once we admit that party politicians are entitled to use the public money, either directly or indirectly, to reward party services, the way is prepared for Tweeds everywhere. They will in some places be of a milder type than others, but they will appear in all. From creating offices for party "workers," or putting them *as such* in offices already created, or giving them fat jobs like collectorships and public warehouses in which they can enrich themselves in a few years, and then levying contributions on them for the working of the party machinery, the step to the crimes of which Tweed was the other day convicted is but a short one.

Tweed, for instance, has been condemned for having given contracts for municipal work to his own confederates at extravagant prices. But then, the principle on which he did this has been long in use in the Republican party. Contractors have long been treated by it, not as persons with whom the Government dealt, but as beneficiaries who were expected to help to keep a particular party in power. They were levied on regularly during the war, and are still, for campaign expenses. Tweed was simply courageous enough to make the contracts very fat, and the contributions very heavy. What demand, too, let us ask, did he make on Garvey or Ingersoll which differed in principle from the demand made by the Republican State Committee on General Barlow when he was United States Marshal, that he should contribute a certain percentage, not on his salary, which was only $6,000, but on his supposed stealings, which were $50,000? How did Tweed's exactions differ from this except in degree? The twenty-four per cent. which has been traced into his pocket is doubtless very shocking, but then it is not quite so shocking when we remember that Tweed exercised towards his party in this city and State the functions of a State Committee. He was an autocratic "manager." It was he who looked after the elections and manipulated the legislature, and his followers supposed, and rightly supposed, that a large proportion of his appropriations went in this way, and they accordingly winked at it, as we wink at Hopper's levy on the Post-office clerks, or Jayne's descents on the merchants, or as we would have winked at Barlow's contribution from his thefts, had he been guilty of any. Tweed was a bold, bad, able man, who had far higher ambition, far greater skill, and far better materials than the Murphys and Davenports; but his political morality was essentially the same as theirs. He pushed further ahead than any one else on a road on which thousands of wretched little politicians who pass as respectable, and are now busy rolling their eyes over his misdeeds, are trotting along as fast as their puny legs can carry them. He played with great recklessness the very game which carries other men, not very much better than he, to the senatorships and chief-justiceships and governorships, and gives them the *petites entrées* at the White House. The Boss was the result, and the legitimate result, of a system which, as long as we uphold it, will give us in every generation an increasing number, if not of matches for him, at least of imitators of him. The breed is one which can adapt itself to all latitudes. It is one thing in New England, another thing in New York, and another in Pennsylvania; but it is in all three the faithful servant of the Devil.

AN "ELASTIC" CURRENCY.

IF that scheme of making the currency "elastic" by issuing more greenbacks, and then more bonds to absorb the greenbacks whenever the supply is too great, has still a serious lodgment in the brains of honest men, we invite them once more, before Congress meets, to "think it out" resolutely, and see, not in the light of their own wishes or fancies, but in the light of human experience, what it will come to in practice. Some journals, the *Evening Post* among the number, have tried to discredit the plan by showing the way in which speculators may turn it to account by "locking up" money under it; and this is a point which deserves serious attention, but no argument drawn simply from the probability of its abuse by knavish men will block it. If it be, as its supporters pretend, a great financial discovery, it is no more likely that they will be induced to abandon it by showing them that somebody may make it the instrument of evil designs, than it is that they would be induced to abandon issues of bank-bills by showing that they furnish extraordinary temptations to forgers. Our objection to it is the fatal one, that it will not answer its purpose, and that its complete frustration will be brought about at the very outset, not by the machinations of Wall-Street operators, but by the working of the ordinary laws of trade; and it is this objection which most needs urging.

The propounders of the scheme have in their heads a close connection between the new bonds and the new greenbacks, and they fancy, with the usual enthusiasm of inventors, that they can transfer this connection to the heads of the public. Now, this is the very delusion which has been at the bottom of all the attempts of the last five hundred years to give currency a fictitious value. In every case of paper inflation, or coin-clipping, or adulterating, the legislator has fondly but vainly hoped that the public would enter into his ideas, and help him to carry out his policy; that it would take coin without reference to its value as bullion, or fix prices in paper without reference to the quantity afloat. The grand fundamental truth of financial science, however, which it is so difficult to hammer into the heads of currency-tinkers, is that men of every community conduct their business solely with reference to their immediate personal interests, and will not sacrifice their personal interests in the ordinary course of trade to carry out any

legislator's policy. Therefore, if Congress issues say one hundred millions more greenbacks this winter, they would produce just the same effect on prices as if no bonds were issued to be exchanged for them. The increase of the volume of the currency will be felt in all branches of business at once; that is, everybody will find it easier to get money than he did before, and all vendors of commodities will do what they have done under such circumstances—what they have done ever since the days of Tubal Cain—put up their prices. The butcher, or baker, or ironmonger, or clothier will not trouble himself with the reflection that people who have too much money can exchange it for $3\frac{65}{100}$ bonds; indeed, he will laugh when you mention it to him. He will say, on the contrary, that his business is to take care of himself; that he wants none of the bonds, and is occupied in getting the current rate of profit on his capital. Accordingly, as soon as you have got the proposed increase of paper fairly afloat, you will find that it has disappeared into prices without leaving a ripple on the surface, and that the business of the country bears just the same relation to the volume of the currency that it had before; that, in short, as one is to two, so is two to four; that it will be as hard to move the crops in the fall as it is now; that the stringency every winter will be as great as it is now; that five hundred millions of greenbacks will do just the work that four hundred millions did, and no more; and that your $3\frac{65}{100}$ bonds will bear in the public eye the appearance not of a place to put surplus currency, for there will not be any, but that of a not very attractive investment. They will, in short, constitute an offer of good security at a low rate of interest, and be much less tempting than the new five per cent. loan, and bear just the same relation to the money markets. The only thing we can think of as in the least likely to make the proposed scheme produce the results expected of it—and we by no means warrant this—would be the issue of a proclamation by the President, countersigned by Secretary Richardson, to this effect:

"*Whereas*, the present Congress has authorized and required the Secretary of the Treasury to issue $100,000,000 of United States legal-tender notes, and in order to prevent such issue having the character or results of an inflation of the currency, and in order to give to the currency the elasticity in which recent events have shown it to be wanting, has also authorized and required him to issue United States bonds, bearing interest at the rate of $3\frac{65}{100}$ per annum, into which the said legal-tender notes or any other may be at all times converted at par, with accrued interest, and which may also be at all times converted into legal-tender notes at the Treasury on like terms—

"Now I, Ulysses S. Grant, President of the United States, do therefore solemnly enjoin all trades, merchants, farmers, manufacturers, bankers, and all citizens of whatever calling or occupation, not to allow the said issue of greenbacks to affect the price of their commodities or labor in any degree whatsoever, but to remember that the object of such issue is to give elasticity to the national currency, and enable it to be expanded for the moving of the crops and other exigencies; and that, when no longer needed for such purposes, it is to be promptly reconverted into the bonds aforesaid, and not used for speculation of any description whatsoever, or to increase the value of any article of merchandise. Persons who find they have more of it on their hands than they need for their transactions are, therefore, warned that it is their duty to bring it to the Treasury, and lend it to the Government at $3\frac{65}{100}$ per cent. per annum."

If, as there now appears reason to believe, the various schemes of inflation which are on foot should be buried in the House under their own weight and multiplicity, or lost in a cloud of talk, or should, as is more likely, be killed in the Senate even if they pass the House, those senators and representatives who know what the conditions of sound national finance are will, it is to be hoped, not rest content with defeating attempts to make things worse than they are, but will vigorously push some measure for making them better. We shall never get out of our present slough without legislation energetically urged by some man, or set of men, in Congress having sufficient knowledge of the subject and sufficient hold on the ear of the country to secure popular confidence and support, because our whole financial system—currency, banking, and all—is the creature of legislation. There is nothing natural about it, and therefore the cure of whatever evils there are in it cannot be left to nature. The notion that we can drift into specie payments, to which we are sorry to see so respectable an authority as *Harper's Weekly* give countenance, is a most unfortunate one, and may at this juncture do much mischief. Even if the working of exchange should, in the present state of our trade, bring greenbacks to par in gold, gold could not supplant paper as long as nobody was bound to redeem paper in gold; or, in other words, to make room for the gold by withdrawing paper. It could only come into circulation as an addition to the paper; or, in other words, by a process of inflation, and it could not stay there very long, because the first turn in exchange would cause it to be sent abroad again. Nevertheless, as we have once before pointed out, if greenbacks were at par, the process of resumption would be all the easier if the Government or the banks set about it. But somebody must set about it, and it is plainly the duty of the Government to do so, whether we have a war with Spain or not. It would be infinitely discreditable to pay the expenses of a contest with a power from a military point of view so contemptible as she is, by a fresh adulteration of the currency. The cost of the war, if war we have, should be met in a manly and rational way, by borrowing money, and the reform of our circulating medium proceed all the same.

What that reform should be seems to be clear enough. We ought to resume; and if we cannot resume all at once, we ought, like private debtors, to resume by degrees. How this should be done has, we think, been more clearly indicated in a plan proposed by Mr. J. S. Ropes, the President of the Boston Chamber of Commerce, than in any other we have seen. He proposes that, as the absence of any fixed date of payment from our legal tenders has made it possible to refuse payment of them without seeming guilty of repudiation, and as it would probably be impossible to undertake to redeem them all on presentation, a new issue should be substituted for them by sales to the highest bidder, and this new issue should be payable in gold, at the Treasury, on a day certain, and in sums of say thirty or sixty million dollars a year. If this policy had been adopted at the close of the war, we should be on a specie basis now. If adopted now, after a reasonable time for preparation, we should get back to a specie basis in five or six years, even if we had to redeem every dollar of outstanding paper. But nobody supposes that this would be necessary, or that the demand for gold would not cease before a hundred millions had been paid out. The solemn adoption of such a policy by Congress would, however, give us one thing *immediately* which would be fully as valuable as gold, and that is, certainty as to the future. Nothing weighs at this moment more disastrously on trade and commerce and manufactures than the doubt which prevails as to the future value of the circulating medium. Congress cannot remove this doubt by promising not to issue any more paper money, because restrictions of this kind by one Congress can be always set aside by another under very slight pressure from excited public opinion. The one thing which no Congress will dare to do is to direct the Secretary of the Treasury to refuse payment of a reasonable number of United States notes falling due on a certain day.

A LESSON FROM THE TWEED VERDICT.

THE almost unhoped for verdict in the case of Tweed and, no less, the ominous preliminary picket-firing which was heard during the impanelling of the jury, will serve perhaps to bring the attention of the public to the defects of our present system of trial by jury. In a former article (*Nation*, No. 417), we have shown that the jury system is interwoven with and forms an integral part of our general system of self-government, and that it would be as wild to give up a representative government because of the incompetency and corruption of an almost controlling portion of our modern legislators, as to give up trial by jury because there has been a moral decline in the character and verdicts of our modern jurymen. But we were careful to say that the jury system is human, that it has imperfections, and that its excellence depends upon the same condition which is inseparable from the excellence of free government—the voluntary sacrifices of intelligent citizens in the scrupulous discharge of the duties of citizenship. It is indispensable for a good jury system that there be given in lesser or greater proportion good jurymen. There is no magic in the system which can change the incompetent into the competent, or the depraved into the upright; and, like other parts of government, to be administered well, it must be administered by those who will administer it conscientiously. There are constantly coming before our

courts different kinds and classes of cases, some of which unquestionably require better jurymen than others. A very large proportion of cases involve no public interest and but small pecuniary amounts. The evidence in them rarely is conflicting, and the task of deducing the facts is so easy as to be little more than a matter of form. In such cases, there is no temptation in the way of corruption, and no great amount of intelligence required to do substantial justice. In plain words, very ordinary men will make passably good jurors for very ordinary cases. When we reach another class of cases, however, we find forensic ability, complicated facts, conflicting evidence, and hence that there is required on the part of the jurors unconfused memory, trained attention, and considerable intellectual power of analysis. A third class of cases will add to these difficulties great pecuniary interests, or, if they be criminal cases, popular prejudice, personal sympathy, improper influences, and, finally, the chance of direct gross corruption. In all jury cases, civil and criminal, the danger from corruption is to be apprehended as coming always from one side, and it seems indeed the weakness of the system that the defendant, by controlling one of twelve men, can bar a verdict. We wonder that the annals of courts do not furnish innumerable suspicious cases of this character. But in point of fact, we believe they are very rare. The failure to agree will be found very seldom to rest with one man. Probably, when a case is tolerably clear, the moral effect of being locked up with eleven decided men to whom he cannot render a reason for his solitary obstinacy which their knowledge of the facts will not enable them to knock away, accompanied by a healthy refusal on the part of the court to discharge the jury until they do agree, really frightens such a man out of a previous intent to do wrong.

The chief evil in the operation of the system seems to be where jurors stand eight for conviction and four for acquittal, and stand out obstinately if not honestly; where the minority are not directly actuated by corrupt motives, but are acting in a kind of blind honesty under the dictation of their prejudices, or ignorances, or sympathies, or passions. In other words, the evil is that of incompetent jurors. Our system has also hitherto been framed (as completely as though it were its purpose) to exclude from the jury-box in important criminal cases those citizens who intellectually and morally are best fitted to be there, and to consign this not least important part of the administration of government to those who are least fitted to perform its duties. The wonder should not be that the system works badly with such conditions imposed upon it, but that it works so well, or, indeed, that it works at all.

When we come to consider how it shall be improved, and, particularly, how it shall be improved in material, we are met with the fact that its duties are too onerous, especially in great commercial centres, where good jurymen in great cases are most of all needed. It is not merely that a merchant may be summoned occasionally in a Tichborne case, but that he is very sure to be summoned too often. An occasional draft of this kind, especially when it comes fairly, so that all other persons in like conditions of life have to share it equally, will be endured with resignation if not with cheerfulness; but when such drafts are frequent, and especially when they are unfairly made, so that a man is summoned four times a year while the man on the opposite side of the street is not summoned oftener than once in two years, the moral obligation of serving is laid aside, and men resort to all the tricks of evasion which they believe are practised by others. In England as well as here, the frequency of jury duty has been the chief complaint by respectable citizens, and all the attempts at amendment embraced in the bill of Sir John Coleridge were more or less connected with this same evil of too frequent service. It was on that account that Sir John Coleridge proposed to abandon the immemorial number of twelve, and it was to facilitate the finding of verdicts—in other words, to lessen the repetition of trials—that it was proposed to give up the equally old usage of unanimity. In our former article, we pointed out that the trouble with verdicts in these days is not that too much conclusiveness is attached to them, but too little; and that the common mind will not for a long time to come attach as much importance to the verdict of a majority of nine men as to the unanimity of twelve. Since then, all of the judges have united in a request that the old number be retained. The English judges of late years have certainly shown themselves ready to co-operate in legal reforms, and their unanimous recommendation must be taken as the opinion of thoroughly experienced men. We may also cite in confirmation of a former assertion the opinion expressed by one of the officers of the Court of Queen's Bench, after a long lifetime of observation, that the verdicts of juries are generally right, and that the extraordinary and suspicious verdicts are really very rare exceptions to the general rule of honesty and good sense.

It is undeniable that there are different classes or grades of cases coming before our courts. Some of these do not require juries at all. For them a commission of experts, a board of engineers, a committee of scientific persons, a few skilled mechanics, would certainly be better than any jury miscellaneously chosen, though composed of most intelligent men. A second class of cases requires jurors rather as a matter of established legal form than because there is any real dispute of fact. There are cases where a citizen may be required to serve in the jury-box for a number of days, and, at the end, be told what verdict he is to find by the court. We now send cases involving the examination of a long account to a referee, because they are manifestly cases which twelve men cannot collectively sit down and unravel; but there are many analogous cases retained for juries which might very well be sent to special commissions, or indeed be turned over at the outset to special tribunals. An ordinary jury in a complicated patent case, listening to the jargon of the experts, and looking with confused eyes at tables covered with intricate models, is certainly not a rational application of the right of trial by jury.

But the great mass of our litigated cases is made up of the important and the unimportant, the difficult and the simple. For these two grades of cases our present system furnishes precisely the same material for the jury-box. We make no discrimination in our legal theory where there is the widest difference in the facts to be dealt with. The most intelligent citizen will be assigned to deal with a paltry suit on a promissory note, while a man of questionable morals and character, and of unquestionable ignorance and prejudice, with just enough *legal* respectability to be on the jury-list, will be allowed to decide a great will case, involving points of sanity, mental capacity, undue influence, or of decreeing the fate of some other human being who has the good or bad fortune to have this juror as a part of the tribunal which tries him. In England there has long been a division of the jury material known as special and common juries. In civil suits there are some rules for obtaining a special jury, but, substantially, any man can have one who is willing to pay for it. In other words, it is chiefly a matter of cost. In criminal cases, special juries are ordered, we believe, in the discretion of the court; and it is worthy of remark that the pressure of jury duty, there as here, falls upon that class who furnish the most valuable material.

In our own country we have never grappled with this difficulty of having two classes of jurors for different grades of cases. In our rural districts it would be impossible to divide society into two such classes. There are diversities, of course, to be found in individual character, but taking the farmers of one of our rural districts, who furnish the jury material to be found at their county court-houses, there are no distinctions which the law can lay hold of, and, indeed, we can say of them generally that they are respectable men, and form, in the great majority of cases, intelligent jurors. And in the rural districts involved and complicated suits are comparatively rare. The average juryman is much above the average juryman of the great cities, while the grade of cases which he determines is much below many that monthly come before the city juryman. It is in the towns where discrimination is needed, and where discrimination is possible. The English system takes certain trades and professions, such as merchants, bankers, etc., and designates them for special juries. Would not such a distinction be practicable where we have trades and professions forming the mass of society, as in our great towns? It is possible, and indeed probable, that were the attempt to be made it would awaken the hue-and-cry of the professional politicians, and that they would resent the attempt to obtain intelligent jurors for complicated cases as something even worse than taking away from the people the right to elect their own judges. But it is more than probable that no reform can be devised for any evil which will not be sure of their opposition, and, as affairs now stand, we can hardly afford to abandon both the bench and the jury-box to the worst part of society.

The conduct of the jury in the case of Tweed—their patience, deliberation, reticence, and their prompt, decisive verdict, rendered so soon as the intricacies of the evidence were mastered—shows what the jury system is when decently administered. For this most extraordinary jury of upright, conscientious citizens we are chiefly indebted to Judge Davis, who, in a rough-handed way, struck down all attempts at adulteration, and virtually compelled a selection from the respectable part of the community. But we all know that there are very few judges determined enough to carry such a point against a powerful array of indefatigable counsel; and the process of weeding out men who should never have been called in such a case is difficult and uncertain. Cannot the Bar Association now direct its experience to these two objects; first, the lessening of jury duty; second, a classification of city jurors which shall secure the competent for those cases where they are most needed?

THE MONARCHIST PROGRAMME IN FRANCE.

PARIS, November 6.

THE Assembly meets to-day at Versailles, for the first time after a long absence, and under the weight of the most extraordinary events. It finds itself somewhat in the condition of a bride who is all ready to go to the

altar, and who hears that the bridegroom has disappeared. The Comte de Chambord refuses to go to the altar of a constitutional monarchy and to be wedded to his people. He remains on a sort of Sinai, in a cloud, in the folds of his white flag. It would be difficult to describe the feelings which have been produced by the publication of his last letter. All his ancient manifestoes had been forgotten; the country was informed that a negotiation had been opened between him and some representatives of the monarchical parties. The last negotiator, a man known for his honesty and his piety, had come back in a state of great exultation. He had found the Comte de Chambord ready to accept the position of a constitutional sovereign, to allow the Chamber to annex to the proclamation of the monarchy a bill of rights, which was to be the foundation of the future constitutional laws. On the question of the flag, it was understood that the Count, as a Bourbon Prince, was still attached to the white flag, but that as a constitutional king he would claim no right to alter the flag, except with the consent of the Chamber; and it was generally understood that some fleur-de-lis would simply be spread over the white band of the tricolor. Everything was *couleur de rose*. The Government, which had during the first period of the fusion maintained a neutral attitude, was finally carried away by the monarchical current. Who could refuse to accept this unexpected chance of reconciling the best elements of the past and the best elements of present France? The Republicans kept up a desultory warfare against the fusion; the Conservative Republicans showed a little incredulity—they demanded some document, some treaty in due form, signed by the Comte de Chambord; but many of them did not compromise themselves, and waited quietly in the provinces. Many others told their old friends of the monarchical party that they were acting as indirect allies, and wished to protect them against the most extreme Legitimists. I feel a moral certainty that if nothing had happened the Monarchists would have carried a small majority in the Chamber; that if the Comte de Chambord had made a public declaration in conformity with the language of the negotiators of the fusion, this majority would have swollen immediately to a very high number. The Republicans themselves now confess that the Comte de Chambord has destroyed his own chances and, for the present at least, all the chances of the monarchy.

It will be a curious political enigma to explain for what reason and under what influences the last Bourbon has thrown away the French crown, which was so near him. Why did he keep France in the dark for more than a fortnight? Why did he allow his friends to frame a bill which contained all that he was unwilling to give? Was M. Chesnelong, whose respectability is above doubt, so confused and so moved by the presence of the future king, that he misunderstood his expressions, and was he such an inexperienced negotiator that he mistook his own desires for positive facts? Did the Church and did the Jesuits, who are said to have influence at Frohsdorf, at the last moment forbid the Comte de Chambord to make any concessions to the spirit of the time? But the Jesuits are generally credited with some worldly wisdom; and they must see that the fall of Henri V. is a blow to the Catholic Church. Was Henri V. really surprised to find that the French were not unanimous; did he think that they were still too divided, and that the Revolutionary venom was not sufficiently exhausted? At the moment of jumping the ditch, as Henri IV. said once, was he afraid of falling into the Paris of the Commune, of '93, of 1830, the great capital of barricades? Did the ghost of his father, stabbed at the door of the Opera, visit him? It is said that his wife, since she was threatened with royalty, has done nothing but cry and pray. Who can say what moved this royal monk, who has lived ever since he was born in a moral solitude, keeping his mind inflamed with visions of grandeur in the midst of an obscure and regular life, who has accepted the easy task of scolding a country of which he is ignorant, and is perhaps contented with this rôle of a living providence? We have heard him, after each event, each calamity, exclaiming from a distance, "I told you so." He is the prophet, the Jeremy of kings; he announces revolutions, and war, and the falling of fire and brimstone. But this is all he could do. When he was wanted as a saviour, he was found wanting. Far be it from me to speak of him otherwise than with respect and with pity; but my greatest pity and my greatest regard will always be for France. As for him, he is from this day among the things of the past; his name will go down to posterity with that of the last Stuarts, as a synonym of fatal and hereditary impotence.

And what will become of France, which is to-day, as it was yesterday, monarchical in its instincts? Can a country be changed between the setting and the rising of the sun? Can it be hoped that the fear of the republican party, which had brought France back before the Comte de Chambord, will vanish at once? An earthquake destroys huge palaces and high churches sooner than the little hovels built with mud. The moral earthquake which has shaken France has thrown many things to the ground, but it has not destroyed the subsoil of envy, of cruelty, of low appetites in which Communism is rooted. The Moderate Republicans are alarmed at the defeat of the Monarchical party almost as much as the Monarchists. They have but one cry now, when they can speak out of the presence of their own following: "Why did the Orléans, why did the Comte de Paris, abandon all their claims? Why did they renounce the crown during the lifetime of the Comte de Chambord?" Those know best, among the Republicans, who had been Orléanists all their life, and who followed the lead of M. Thiers at Bordeaux. M. Thiers tried to keep the Orléans in England; he tried to stop the Duc d'Aumale and the Prince de Joinville on their journey from Southampton to Bordeaux; he would not allow them to take their seats in the Chamber; he opposed for months all discussion as to the validation of their election and the repeal of the laws of banishment; he converted most of the Orléanists of any standing—M. de Rémusat, M. Dufaure, M. de Lasteyrie, M. Léon Say, etc.—into Republicans. The Orléans Princes would be exiles at the present day if the Legitimists had not protected them against M. Thiers. The Comte de Paris was obliged to make concessions to them; he has kept true to his word, he has withdrawn his claims to the crown. It is not his fault now if the Comte de Chambord was unwilling to accept it from the Assembly. The engagement which he made at Frohsdorf was so binding that none of the Orléans Princes could be persuaded to accept the regency. The Monarchists, stunned at first, rallied a moment round this idea of a pseudo-monarchy; but Prince de Joinville would not accept the regency, which was offered to him by the most noted Legitimists, and he said that, for the present, he saw nothing better to do than to give Marshal MacMahon a long term of power. The Marshal has refused to have his name of president altered into the name of lieutenant-general; he has distinctly said that he could not, in the present troubled condition of France, remain in power if he were not armed by the Chamber for a long time with great powers, similar to those of a constitutional king—the right of dissolution, the right to make treaties, etc. The prolongation of the powers of the Marshal, and the increase of these powers, became immediately the rallying-point of the Monarchists. "We have the power in our hands," said one to me; "why should we abandon it? We have not sinned against the country; we have committed no fault; we are not in the position of a beaten army, forced to retreat; we are like soldiers who learn on the eve of the battle that the general is dead. Must we run away for that, and abandon our position?" The resolution of the Monarchists is very great, and nobody has shown more presence of mind than the Duc de Broglie, the chief of the Cabinet. It would be idle to deny that the Monarchists at first felt defeated; now they wish to turn their defeat into a victory. It cannot be a victory for the monarchy; it may be a victory for the Conservatives. The leaders of the Conservative party say quietly that, if they cannot have a king, they will at least have a protector; he will be a constitutional king under the name of president. His prerogative will be very great, as his personal character inspires much confidence, and the condition of France requires that the executive power should be surrounded with much prestige. What name are we to give to this new Government? It will be a commonwealth rather than a republic. It will be a personal government, but with parliamentary institutions. Marshal MacMahon has so far never tried to diminish the ministerial prerogative. He considers himself as a soldier, chiefly charged with the maintenance of order. In the new character which the Monarchists intend to give him, he will have new duties and new responsibilities, and a definition of his prerogative will become a necessity.

What is happening now in France is truly extraordinary, and can hardly be well understood by anybody but French people. The Dean of Westminster, who is now in Paris, said to me two days ago: "You are very interesting, but will you never cease to be interesting?" I am afraid not; we are on the point of giving to Marshal MacMahon a lease of power for ten years, with the clear understanding that he must consider himself the president of a provisional republic. He will hold, so to speak, the place of president in trust for the monarchy. As soon as the Comte de Chambord dies or abdicates, the Monarchists expect him to abandon this post and to make room for the Comte de Paris. The Orléans Princes will continue to live in France as private citizens; but they will be considered and treated by the greatest part of the nation as princes of the blood, as members of a royal family. It is hardly to be expected that the Republicans will take the same view of Marshal MacMahon's duties as the Monarchists. They will oppose the prolongation; but, once elected, he will be in their eyes the president of a true republic; and he may, once elected for ten years, frame for himself a theory of his tenure of power which, at some distant day, may not be in conformity with the wishes of the Monarchists. But this is the mystery of the future; for the present, one thing only is certain: the Monarchists have the majority in the Chamber, and, as they cannot make a king, they will make a president for ten years, and invest him with regal power.

Correspondence.

A NOTE FROM MR. JOHN FISKE.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: I received this morning the number of your paper, which is dated Oct. 23, and very delightful it was to see it, after a *Nationless* interval of three months' duration. I read every word of it, and among other things the paragraph in which you mention so pleasantly my article in the *North American Review*. To your remarks concerning my introductory foot-note I shall reply at once with a plea of "guilty," though a defence might be forthcoming were it worth while to cumber your space with it. But as regards what you say about the "controversial maladroitness" of a certain remark of mine in my recent paper on "Agassiz and Darwinism" in the *Popular Science Monthly*, I must crave your permission to correct an apparent misconception—a misconception which I see has called forth animadversions from sundry other American papers, some of them by no means so good-natured as your own friendly criticism. In stating that my mind was fully made up "thirteen years ago" as to the essential soundness of the Development Theory, and in using very emphatic language to describe the strength of my convictions on the subject, I did not commit the unpardonable silliness of alleging the firmness and long persistence of my belief as an argument in support of the theory. I alleged it only as an additional reason, in my own case, why I should have been especially glad to meet with some staggering argument against the theory on the part of Prof. Agassiz. For obviously, if there is *any* chance that one's deepest convictions may be erroneous, the rougher the scrimmage in which they are forced to engage, the better. This, you see, is a very different thing. While I am about it, let me add that the paper in question was not intended as a defence of the Development Theory, or it would have been very differently expressed. It was intended to show that it will not do to cite Prof. Agassiz's *authority* against that theory, since he has never adduced a single scientific *argument* against it; and, furthermore, that in his case, at least, refusal to accept is equivalent to refusal or inability to understand.—Very truly yours,

John Fiske.

London, Nov. 4, 1873.

Notes.

An account of Sir Samuel Baker's expedition to the Upper White Nile, in Petermann's *Mittheilungen* for October 3, is accompanied by a map showing the district traversed from Gondokoro southwards, the route of Pasha Baker, the Egyptian garrison established, etc. The same number contains a map showing the daily drift of the Tyson company from the *Polaris* break-up to their rescue off the coast of Labrador, as well as the vastly shorter boat-course of Buddington and his associates. The whole history of the expedition is thus embraced in this map and the one given in the *Mittheilungen* for July 29.——The unexpected announcement is made that Messrs. J. R. Osgood & Co. have transferred the *Atlantic Monthly* and *Every Saturday* to Messrs. Hurd & Houghton, without change of editorship, and *Our Young Folks* to Messrs. Scribner, Armstrong & Co., who, we presume, will merge it in their new *St. Nicholas*. The fate of the *North American Review* is not yet made public.

—We learn from Berlin that the celebrated and veteran Semitic scholar, Rödiger, the pupil and successor of Gesenius, is about to dispose of his library, being driven to this step, we regret to say, by broken health. Here is a capital opportunity, such as has more than once before offered and been taken advantage of, for some American university or theological seminary to provide for itself at a stroke in the department of Semitic languages and Old-Testament literature. The library is said to contain between four and five thousand volumes, and its price will probably be about three thousand thalers. A catalogue of it is in preparation.

—In the Boston Public Library there is a book which deserves to be classed with the famous Portuguese 'New Guide of the Conversation,' as one of the curiosities of literature. It is entitled a 'Guide for Strangers in the City of Antwerp,' and seems to have been published about forty years ago. The work commences with the following "advertisement": "The underwriter prevents every Gentleman and Stranger that all the alterations and improvements which may be projected and executed in one or other public establishment, shall be immediately rectified, and that the plates of this work shall therefore remain untouched. Phillippe Ville, the Editor." A few pages are devoted to a historical account of the city, in which the author, with a praiseworthy devotion to the truth, remarks "that, when there is question of establishing the beginning of some famous cities, they have recourse to merveillous evenements, and for not throwing ourself in the doubtfulness of fabulous antiquities, we shall only keep us to what history offers." He has no need, however, to "trust on the annals," as "the construction of her buildings prouves its ancientness, and on examening this city, one shall find vestiges, which will bring us from age to age." "Its origin was of a middling extend. His most considerable augmentation, has been done by John the third in 1314; by Charles the Vth in 1543, the city, could not contain the prodigous nombre of inhabitants, who came thither from every part, for establishing themselves, encouraged by the situation of his Port, and by the wealth and abondance of this trading city, an enlargement of 1600 steps in lenth on 244 baoad, was required, that portion of ground contains the magnific Hause-House of which we shall still speak afterwards." But, leaving these dry details, we pass to the description of the bridges: "Four magnific swiping Bridges on the same manner as those in Holland, serve for the communication of the quais, from the citadel, till the doks, they are placed on the entrance of four canals, wich enter in the town, very commodious and sure for vessels of a small description to load and unload there." Speaking of the "doks": "The Emperor Napoleon ordered the two Doks on the nord side of the town, in which he intented to make his men of war pass the winter, now marchant vessels fill up these places where before ships of the line dicted the law." This is what is said of the charitable institutions: "There are 27 Hospitals foundated by pious men, 2 schools for poor children, and a great foundation, where every poor men may come to work when he does not shun it."

—M. Ville is most interesting, however, in his accounts of the various works of art in his "nature country." Commencing with the Cathedral, he says: "Every one avoud, this temple is fare out the finest in the kingdom, its lengthness is of more than 500 steps its largeness of 240 and its elevation of 360. . . . This monument was burned in 1533, excepted the choir, a great part of it had been dommaged without the vigilance of the burghmaster. . . . In 1797 this magnific Temple has been spoliated by profanous and sacrilegious hand. The fame year they sold very cheap, the precious things, which hand been respected till this period and soon the enemies of the holy religion attained their wishes, this temple represented in a few time but a confounded heap of ruines? if any precious things have been conseived, it was only by zeal for arts, and it is a wonder that we can still admire this Church and Steeple, yet eight days and these two Monuments were for ever demolished. In 1810, these Monuments took a new aspect by the cares of Mr. H——, and by the solitude of the administration, at the great satisfaction of the true friends of religion." Following the lead of our author, we pass through the Cathedral, stopping for an instant before "the Pulpit sculped by P. Verbruggen," until we come to Rubens's master-"peace," "The Descent from the Cross." At this point the simple descriptive style is dropped, and language better suited to the subject is used. The birth-throes of genius are vividly portrayed as follows: "Rubens has been heaving in several parts of this picture, it is smoothed and accomplished, and however all is vigorous and animated." The highest eloquence is reached in the closing words: "He deals with the wisest discerning to every figure his just part of affliction in this hard case and with the greatest knowledge he unites sentiment of love to that of veneration, it is an hart-felling scene, which electrises the soul it is an august cermony of religion which penetrate it even to exaltation." An exact knowledge of art is shown in the criticism of another of Rubens's works: "It has been acknowledged by juridict juges that this picture . . . is of a fine drawing, and recollect under this rapport the grandiose of the Caraches." Speaking of an "Assumption of the Virgin," M. Ville says: "All is in movings and occupied by the principal action, these follow with their eyes, the holy Mother . . . those amased of the miracle and being as trancid, cast their eyes towards the glorious way. . . . the aerial sight is produced there to the highest top of understanding." Over the grave of Rubens is "a precious picture composed with genius, drawed with puriness, gracefulness seduces everywhere and at every moment we discover them." A "Crucifixion" by Rubens (in the Museum) is the subject of this favorable criticism: "The Virgin is deeply afflicted: but the promises of his son fortify her against the pangs of a swoon. The horses are of exquisite beauty, that in the corner of the picture who seems to cheer up, is a mighty good thought which makes diversion." In a description of still another of Rubens's "workkx," we read: "St. Francis of Assise feeling his dead approaching desired to be led to the foot of the altar. . . . His clothes are pulled out and naked." But we must end our quotations, though we have left untouched "the magnific Church burned by thunter," the Embarcadere, "with its two landing places, between which are double steps of blew marmor," and the "Galery where is a picture of Zaccheus one of the leaders of the republicans."

—A collection of rare and inedited documents relating to the history of Paris, to be comprised in about 25 volumes of small size, has for its latest

issue 'The Condition, Names, and Number of all the Streets in Paris in 1636,' preceded by a study of the sewerage and public hygiene of Paris after the 12th century, by M. Alfred Franklin. This handsomely printed work will give some idea of what that Paris was which was indeed worth a mass. M. Edouard Fournier, by the way, has shown that it was Sully, and not Henri IV., who originated the famous saying that "Paris vaut bien une messe;" and Sully was still alive in 1636. Two other epochs in the city's checkered history are treated in M. Henri Wallon's 'La Terreur,' a series of critical studies, which have mostly already appeared in print; and in M. C. A. Dauban's 'Le Fond de la Société sous la Commune.' M. Wallon's studies are a sort of résumé of the more recent works on the French Revolution, including several by M. Dauban himself, viz., 'Paris in 1793,' 'Paris in 1784,' 'The Paris Prisons during the Revolution,' etc. The latter's picture of society under the Commune appeared before the final evacuation of France by the Germans, and was temporarily suppressed, because of the head-piece to the title-page, representing Paris as Babylon fallen and in flames, which had been published in Germany in September, 1870. The 'History and Memoirs' of the Comte de Ségur bridge in the person of the author the interval between the Terror and the Commune. They form eight volumes of highly entertaining reading, and conclude a lifelong apology for Bonapartism.

THE OXFORD METHODISTS.*

To those who are interested in tracing a great religious movement to its obscure beginnings, there is something very striking in this brief record by Wesley himself: "In November, 1729, four young gentlemen of Oxford, Mr. John Wesley, Fellow of Lincoln College, Mr. Charles Wesley, Student of Christ Church, Mr. Morgan, Commoner of Christ Church, and Mr. Kirkham, of Merton College, began to spend some evenings in a week together in reading — chiefly the Greek Testament." This was the cradle of Methodism, a type of Christianity which was destined to acquire so great power, and to enrol among its adherents so vast a number of persons, in both hemispheres. In 1735, "we were," says Wesley, "fourteen or fifteen in number, all of one heart and of one mind." Cambridge was a stronghold of Puritanism; but with this exception, Oxford has been the fountain-head of the principal religious movements in the later periods of English history. The Latitudinarians were of Cambridge, but they were rather a theological or philosophical school than a body of inspired and practical religionists. In our own time, the Tractarians, who resembled in many respects the Wesleyan circle in its earliest days, have had their seat at Oxford. Of this circle, John Wesley was of course the leader and master-spirit. Whitefield, who became a zealous member of the "holy club," equalled and even surpassed him as an orator and a preacher to the masses; but in force of intellect John Wesley was immeasurably superior to him, as well as to Charles Wesley, the brother of the Methodist founder. This Oxford brotherhood, who met together to study and pray, were at first Ritualists, and, in their theory of the Christian life, as we have said, were very like the class who bear the name at present in the English Church. They were scrupulous in observing the rules of ecclesiastical discipline, fasted, kept saints' days, received the sacrament frequently, and maintained to the full the doctrine of apostolic succession. They read and re-read writers like William Law, and highly prized books of an ascetic cast. To their credit be it said that they were equally diligent in visiting those who were sick and in prison, and in bestowing alms on the poor.

It took John Wesley ten years wholly to emancipate his mind from what we may term, without offence, Anglican superstitions, and to plant himself firmly and intelligently on the broader ground of a free and consistent Protestantism. He evinced the vigor of his mind in breaking through prejudices which would have hampered him in his great enterprise and have crippled his energy. When he saw that preachers were needed, and that episcopal ordination could not be obtained for them, he selected them, commissioned them, and sent them forth. When he was excluded from the parish pulpits, he preached in the open air, and organized societies of his own. He was not a man to be silenced by the force of conventionalities, or to do what he felt to be the work of God with his hands tied. It has been truly said of Wesley that his mind was logical rather than philosophical. But he was practical, and was not afraid of bold measures which were indispensable to the end. He was not afraid to fight, not frightened by the sound of the battle, nor over-sensitive when he was the victim of assaults. He combined the two essentials of the founder of a religious body—an unquenchable and, we might add, indomitable ardor, and a talent for organization and government. If he had had the first alone, his fire would have burned itself out, with no very permanent results. In the union of these two attributes, but not in any other respect, he resembled Loyola. Ingham, one of Wesley's associates, clung to the Moravians; and the societies which he formed with indefatigable industry came to nothing. He lacked Wesley's constructive and administrative ability. Wesley broke loose from the Moravians, with whom he was so long connected, but whose quiet ways were really foreign to the aggressive spirit of the reform which he was propagating. It is curious to see how the Oxford club dispersed, and how its members became separated and, in some cases, alienated from one another. Clayton remained in the Churchly and Ritualistic path, became a Jacobite clergyman, and so disapproved of the crusade of Wesley against irreligion and ignorance that he broke off all intercourse with him. Hervey, the author of books which were once read by thousands of people with avidity—as 'The Meditations,' 'Theron and Aspasio'—after maintaining friendship with Wesley for nearly a lifetime, became involved in an angry controversy with him on predestination. Wesley and Whitefield parted without quarrelling. The latter was a man of most amiable temper, with whom it would be very difficult for anybody to contend. Holding to the Calvinistic tenet of election, he separated in a friendly way from Wesley. Under the influence of Edwards and other American theologians, Whitefield's Calvinism was sharpened, and he felt called upon in England publicly to preach against the Arminian errors of his old friend and associate. But, prior to his last departure from England, when he, as well as Wesley, was an old man, they met in a very cordial manner.

Of the early associates of Wesley who are described in Mr. Tyerman's volume, the name which is now least obscure is that of Hervey. He became a parish rector and, we are sorry to add, a pluralist. He was considered to be a highly polished writer, and his books, carefully criticised and brought, by himself and by the aid of his friends, to what was deemed perfection as regards literary composition, were in reality widely read by cultivated people of that day. He set out to make discussions of original sin and imputation palatable by prefixing to them descriptions of walks in woods and gardens —the scenes of his theological colloquies—and by garnishing them with flowers of rhetoric. His rather stilted manner and elaborate elegance were then thought to be elements of fine writing.

We cannot say much in praise of Mr. Tyerman's literary qualifications for the task which he has undertaken of narrating the origin of Methodism through biographies of its pioneers. He often favors the reader with commonplace observations like the following, at the commencement of his account of Clayton: "God has wisely and graciously hidden the future from us. We may form guesses concerning it; but we have not the slightest certainty that our guesses will be realized." This sounds like a passage cut out of one of Mr. Tyerman's pulpit discourses. There is a tendency to introduce what Mr. Samuel Weller would call "self-evident propositions." A kind of half-cultivated way of thinking and of expressing thought frequently appears in his pages, together with a naïveté in communicating his personal impressions of men and things. At the same time, Mr. Tyerman, in his 'Life of Wesley,' and in this volume, which forms its sequel, has collected a large amount of valuable matter, and put it in a sufficiently readable form. In most respects we prefer, however, the excellent history of Methodism from the pen of our countryman, Dr. Stevens. Tyerman, of course, enters much more into details, and brings forward, to some extent, new letters and documents. But the reader will seek in vain in his volumes for a broad estimate, in the light of history, of the Methodist Reformation. The materials for such an estimate, however, are provided, and we are bound to thank the author for adding something to our previous stock of information respecting a subject so attractive to students of religion and philosophy.

* 'The Oxford Methodists: Memoirs of the Rev. Messrs. Clayton, Ingham, Gambold, Hervey, and Broughton, with biographical notices of others. By the Rev. L. Tyerman, author of the 'Life and Times of John Wesley.'' New York: Harper & Brothers. 1873.

MAGAZINES FOR DECEMBER.

In the December *Atlantic Monthly* "A Great Deed of Arms" is the title of a passage in early Canadian history, told in Mr. Francis Parkman's wonted manner. The scene opens with the fright of the handful of settlers around the fortified post of Quebec in the spring of 1660, when the Iroquois war was at its height, and when there seemed every reason to believe that the savages, departing from their usual policy of balancing the settlements on the St. Lawrence against the English settlements on the Hudson, had resolved to put the French colonies out of their lingering misery by giving them the *coup de grâce* and destroying at one blow Quebec, Three Rivers, and Montreal. A fiery comet had appeared above Quebec, and seemed to the terrified inhabitants a herald of their destruction; a blazing canoe had sailed across the sky; confused cries and lamentations had been heard in the air, and a voice of thunder had sounded in mid-heavens. These signs appeared none the less portentous that the Seneschal of New France, son of the Governor, had been surprised and killed, with seven companions, at

the Island of Orleans; that, in the summer of 1658, on the day after the Vicomte D'Argenson had arrived at Quebec to assume the governorship, he heard, while washing his hands for dinner, the war-whoops of the Iroquois and the screams of their victims; and that early in 1660 a Wolf Indian, who was burned in the city by Christian Algonquin captors, had informed the Jesuit advisers who converted him that 800 Iroquois were in arms below Montreal and intended the complete extirpation of the colony. "A modern Catholic writer," says Mr. Parkman, speaking of this victim of the stake, "says that the Jesuits could not save him; but this is not so. Their influence over the consciences of the colonists was at that time unbounded"—the whole colony being indeed a mission—"and their direct political power was very great. A protest on their part and that of the newly-arrived bishop, who was in their interest, could not have failed of effect." And he goes on to say that "they did not care to prevent the torture of prisoners of war: not solely out of that shameful spirit of compliance with the savage humor of the Indian allies of the colony which stains so often the pages of French-American history, but also, and perhaps chiefly, from motives purely religious."

The "shameful spirit of compliance" may seem rather strong language to use in reference to the conduct of men who felt themselves compelled to make use of the friendship or alliance of such a people as the Jesuit founders in the Canadian woods, and pressed upon by those redskin Romans, the Six Nations, found themselves in contact with. The reader of such narratives of captivity among the Canadian Indians as for instance that of Quintin Stockwell in Mather's 'Remarkable Providences,' has it brought home to him, as history hardly can bring it, how long and loose was the tether which the French had to allow their savage confederates, as indeed it stands to reason should be the case; and the compliance hardly shameful either. But whether the compliance is to be called shameful, or a piece of political or religio-political necessity, it was made, and the Wolf was burned with all the customary atrocities and, doubtless, "chiefly from motives truly religious," for the spiritual countrymen of Loyola were not in the wilderness to see that the earth be replenished, but that heaven be filled fuller. Torture "they thought good for the soul, and in case of obduracy the surest way of salvation. 'We have very rarely indeed,' writes one of them, 'seen the burning of an Iroquois without feeling that he was on the path to Paradise; and we never knew one of them to be surely on the path to Paradise without seeing him pass through this fiery punishment.' So they let the Wolf burn; but first having instructed him after their fashion they baptized him, and his savage soul flew to heaven out of the fire. 'Is it not,' pursues the same writer, 'a marvel to see a wolf changed at one stroke into a lamb, and enter into that fold which he came to ravage?'" To show that the world may grow two hundred and thirteen years older without, in some places, growing two hundred and thirteen years wiser, we may compare these utterances of St. Ignatius's spiritual countrymen in New France in 1660 and the letter written a week ago by a Cuban archbishop in the case of twenty of the *Virginius's* wretches: "Great jubilee fills our hearts when we announce to your Excellency that among the criminals of the *Virginius's* crew, twenty freely and spontaneously asked to become Catholics. . . . The prisoners were turned over to their spiritual advisers at eight o'clock in the morning and shot at four P.M., thus giving our priests only eight hours to convert the twenty."

Mr. Parkman's works have shown that whatever it may be to be a devotee of Ignatius three hundred years after date, to be so in 1660 could lead the devotee to honor by many roads; and this story of "A Deed of Daring" is well worthy of its title. The Wolf's secret, with which he requited the labors of his spiritual advisers, was a true tale, except for some slight exaggeration, and Mr. Parkman's business is to tell us how, by the zeal and courage of seventeen young Frenchmen of Montreal, the descent upon the colonies was stayed.

Reminiscences of a later war are to be found in Mr. Sidney Andrews's paper on the colored people's best-known church in Washington, the Israel Bethel Church, as it was in the first days of the Rebellion, and on afterwards until near the end of the war. Interspersed are specimens of the peculiar "spirituals" which are used in public worship by the Southern negroes, and which the Hampton band and other colored bands of singers have made known to many Northern and some English audiences.

As important and readable as anything else in the *Atlantic* is Mr. L. J. Jennings's essay on the career and character of Mr. Disraeli, concerning which Mr. Jennings writes with a degree of knowledge uncommon on this side of the water, and with a degree of sympathy which, combined with his knowledge, makes him a forcible pleader in behalf of his favorite. He has a great deal to say which the reader will find it of interest to hear, and we dare say his article will, to some extent, do for Mr. Disraeli what Mr Disraeli has always had a knack of doing for himself—that is, make him personal friends among his political adversaries.

Besides Mr. Whittier's poem, "John Underhill," and a graceful poem by Mr. T. B. Aldrich—"L'Envoi: Written on the Fly-leaf of a Reprint of Some Early Poems"—there is nothing else that calls for mention in the body of this number of the *Atlantic*. Outside of the critical departments, it appears to be rather lighter than usual. Captain Underhill may justly be allowed an honorable place in the company of Mr. Whittier's godly heroes.

In the *Galaxy*, Mr. Welles makes his final strictures on Mr. Adams's eulogy of Mr. Seward. As interesting as anything else that Mr. Welles here tells us is his statement that at the time of Commodore Wilkes's capture of the *Trent*, and while all the country and nearly every member of the Cabinet (Mr. Seward included) were rejoicing over it, Mr. Montgomery Blair from the first denounced it as "unauthorized, irregular, and illegal." Indeed, Mr. Blair was for having Commodore Wilkes ordered to take the *Iroquois* and go with Mason and Slidell to England, and there deliver them to the British Government before Lord Palmerston should have time to demand them. Thus, he argued, we should show our confidence in our own strength, and our contempt for rebel emissaries. Mr. Blair has had the credit of so many other things that it is no more than fair that he should have the credit of this also.

In "The Wetherel Affair," by Mr. De Forest, Count Poloski is apparently about to hear of something still further to his disadvantage, and Miss Nestoria to reap the due reward of her creditable reticence. Mr. Justin McCarthy goes on with the fourth, fifth, and sixth chapters of his new serial story, and, moreover, makes separately a sketch of the Czarovitz. Mr. Junius Henri Browne analyzes Signor Salvini's conception and rendition of *Othello's* character, and we think will assist the actor's hearers to form a judgment of his performance, and to enjoy it. The *Galaxy*, also, has a poem entitled "Fishing," by Mr. George A. Baker, Jr., in which the "building lines" are perhaps a little staring, but which is so neatly done that it would hardly do discredit to Mr. Frederick Locker.

In the *Catholic World*, an article that will attract the general reader is the last portion of a continued essay entitled "Catholic Literature in England since the Reformation"; but it will not be found critical or instructive. For instance: Pope personally was a Roman Catholic; but surely his writings belong to "Catholic literature" about as much as the writings of his friend Wycherley. The church had probably no more to do with the production of the one than of the other. It may be worth while to say here, apropos of Pope and his religious works, a word or two that we forgot to say on another occasion when the *Catholic World* was talking about Pope. Mr. S. Baring-Gould had, if we recollect right, been saying something about the Methodists, their origin and the origin of their lyrics, and remarked that in his opinion no writer who was not far removed from the centre of Catholic truth would ever have written such a hymn as that beginning:

"Vital spark of heavenly flame."

And this opinion Mr. Gould held for the reason that further on in the hymn some countenance is given to the grave error of believing the soul of man to be of kin to the angels. It says:

"Hark! they whisper, angels say,
Sister spirit, come away"—

which, says Mr. Gould, is as much as if we were to say that human souls and angels are of one substance—sisters in fact. The question involved is not desperately momentous; but the magazines that approve philosophers like Mr. Gould with their theories as regards Methodists and Catholic literature, may probably be required to recollect that the "sister spirits" are the production of Pope.

Sportsmen in search of Utopia should, before going elsewhere, give careful attention to Mr. S. C. Clarke's article on East Florida in *Lippincott's Magazine*. The region he describes appears to be simply a country for the angler to dream about, and miraculous draughts of fishes to be in the ordinary course of nature. Other sportsmen, also, as well as anglers may resort to East Florida without fear that luck will ever be against them whatever they want—from a snipe to a young alligator or a four-foot cuttle-fish. Mr. Clarke, at the end of one day's shooting and fishing, makes out a list that ought to take many a rod and double-barrel out of our Northern cities and into the ideal Floridian winter climate.

In the "Monthly Gossip" department of the magazine there is printed a communication from the late Mr. L. Gaylord Clark, who talks about some letters received years ago by his brother, the late Willis Gaylord Clark, from English correspondents. But one letter is quoted at any length, a letter written by Bulwer. Sad stuff it is too, if we must say so, and of a kind to reconcile one to the satirical gibing quoted by Mr. Clark a little further on from a dusty old *Punch*, in which "Bulwig" is flayed by M.

Jeames Yellowplush, who was not pleased with "The Sea Captain" just then offered to the London play-goers, and who signified his disapproval in a way that Sir Edward no doubt thought low enough. The letter to his American correspondent indicates his feelings, and we may add that 'Kenelm Chillingly' and 'The Parisians,' those children of his old age, show how indomitably incurable he was.

The 'Princess of Thule' seems to show, as it goes on, that its author is more certain of pleasing—or satisfying, for he always pleases—when his various excellent powers are utilized in the management of a courtship, than when he ventures into deeper waters. We should say that for some time now this story of 'The Princess of Thule' has got pretty much out of Mr. Black's hands.

We may mention, among other articles in *Lippincott's*, some noticeable verses by Miss C. F. Bates, and a readable sketch of Monaco and of life in that principality. It is like opéra bouffe to read of the Hereditary Princess's coming down to breakfast and eating all four of the boiled eggs labelled as designed for the morning repast of His Highness the Reigning Prince, Her Highness the Princess Consort, and His Highness the Hereditary Prince; of her being thereupon lectured by her father-in-law for such an audacious and entirely English breach of law, etiquette, and decency; of her giving His Highness rather better than he sent; and of her finally running away from her royal relatives and being chased "across lots," as we say in America, by two gendarmes, and getting home to her mother with her clothes torn half off her back.

The December *Harper's* is most interesting in its extracts from Mr. Maunsell B. Field's entertaining "Memories of Many Men," which ought to afford the readers of the magazine many "Chapters of Gossip." In this one Dickens is a principal personage, and although Mr. Field appears to be embittered against him, it is nevertheless true that in view of the unmeasured and gross eulogy which Mr. Forster is publishing as a biography of his friend, it is right to keep in mind this other side of the shield. Mr. Conway's "South Coast Saunterings" is always interesting, and this instalment of it not the least so; Mr. Nordhoff's "Northern California" is in another way equally good; and there is an illustrated article on the Erie Canal, done by two young men, an artist and a journalist, who made the through trip in a canal-boat. Like the other magazines, *Harper's* has its article on the panic and the crisis.

The principal thing in *Scribner's Monthly* is a poem by Mr. Bret Harte which recalls, and indeed we may say equals, the best serious writing, whether in verse or in prose, that this author has ever done. The rest of the magazine is of the usual variety and interest, the illustrations in particular being deserving of unusual commendation.

CHILDREN'S HOLIDAY BOOKS.*

THE propriety of inviting American youth to contemplate the career of Hugo's 'Gavroche' has appeared so great to Mr. M. C. Pyle that he has been at the pains to translate and adapt such scenes in 'Les Misérables' as are adorned with the figure of that personage. We do not know that much objection need be made. To "hint a fault and indicate dislike" may perhaps answer every necessary purpose. If the heir of the house may be trusted in the company of the Artful Dodger and Young Bailey without fear of his receiving moral detriment, as probably he may, perhaps the young French gentleman also is a sufficiently good companion for him. An objection to such a view might perhaps be based on the greater reality of Hugo's creation, and his imputed heroisms and claim to respect. We have heard of boys who became pilferers and young profligates after reading 'Jack Sheppard' or seeing it on the stage; but not of any who took to "cly-faking" because that was Mr. John Dawkins's way of life. The constant propinquity of a boy of Oliver Twist's character may, to be sure, have something to do with this. But Gavroche, although he fights at barricades with more than adult courage and is full of resources, and, being at war with society, is as charitable and magnanimous as any other of M. Hugo's heroes, unites to all these high qualities an impudence which already is not altogether unknown in some American homes. He may thus be dubious company for Young America. Parents holding a different opinion will at any rate find the book a well and clearly printed duodecimo not too dear.

The history of 'Lady Green-Satin and her Maid Rosette' is intended for young readers, but it will interest older ones by its strong local coloring. The hero, Jean Paul, is a lad who makes his way from his peasant home in the Pyrenees to Paris, where he earns a living by exhibiting two white mice trained by himself. Of these, "the largest was dressed in the magnificent dress of green satin, which fitted it extremely well: the petticoat was long, and nicely puffed out, and when my lady the mouse stood up and walked the train had a most graceful appearance." As for the other, "the long, white, slender tail of Rosette was seen below her dress." Jean Paul's career was nearly closed on one occasion by the piratical attempt of a tom-cat; but his "charming animals" escaped, and he lived for several years upon their accomplishments. In Paris, he met good company, pretty Madeleine Bienfait among others, a child of his own age. He marries her finally, but not before acquiring several amenities not generally known in his native village, such as reading, and writing, and the wearing of good clothes. The somewhat argumentative tone of Madame des Chesnez, in advocating these practices, will be amusing to the American reader; so, too, will be the sixteenth chapter, which hardly could have been written by an Anglo-Saxon. It shows how, under the supervision of Madeleine's excellent mother, Jean acquires a love for cleanliness, and is exhorted by that lady to courage in his first desperate encounter with the bath-tub. In the main, however, the old-world naïveté of the story is genuinely pleasant. There is no affectation about its style, and the residual flavors of French in the translation do not spoil its piquancy.

If we commend the subject of 'Children of the Olden Time' as being the best part of it, it is not because the treatment of the subject cannot also be praised. But it is particularly pleasant in days so prolific of fictitious, and too often aimless, juvenile literature to come across a little historical study like this, in which the facts will not only be a useful addition to a young reader's stock of knowledge, but may give a good notion to a boy or girl how to select a special topic from history, follow it up, and bring other reading to bear upon it in a way to be good mental discipline. In point of literary style, however, this interesting essay must be taken rather as a model of what to avoid than what to imitate. This is especially a pity, because a small amount of care in revision would have corrected most of the mistakes. Between the confusion of pronouns and the ellipses, it is often difficult and sometimes impossible to decide which substantive is under discussion. Speaking of the Princess Elizabeth, the author says, "By a letter from her governess to Lord Cromwell, she seemed actually to need clothes; but she speaks most highly of her character, saying she is 'as toward a child and as gentle of condition,'" etc.; while in the account of the visit of Madame D'Arblay and her boy to the household of George III., there is quite a hopeless confounding of personages. Another blemish which is noteworthy, as showing ignorance of American usage, is the writing of the word "nigger" without quotation marks; "the nigger playing the fiddle," p. 109. It ought to be a good thing for the luxurious children of our day to know what their forefathers did not have in the way of toys and amusements, and what they did have in the way of discipline and lessons in hardihood, and to recollect how many great men grew up under such training. The account of the barbarous old Saxon practice of destroying the weakly babies is a very literal version: "If a poor, tiny baby, a few hours old, objected to be placed on a slanting roof or the bough of a tree, and uttered its wailing cry of terror, they ordered it to be killed. . . . But if the baby laughed and crowed, it was brought home joyfully and saved." Any baby that "laughed and crowed" at the age of a few hours would be a curiosity nowadays, and we fear that the nation which made all its new-born heroes uncomfortable, and then killed them if they cried, would soon cease to exist. The idea that the nursery rhyme, "Hush-a-bye baby upon the tree-top," originated in this custom is ingenious, but it does not explain the second couplet. Probably few people know the origin of the senseless expression, to "know B from a barn-door," which is in vulgar use with us. Probably it is "to know A B from a battledore"; the "'battledore,' or 'first book' for children, was printed on card-board, and contained the alphabet and simple combinations of letters, and was a substitute for the horn-book."

In virtue of a great part of its contents, 'Northern Lights' belongs to the general class of story-books for children with which not only the kingdom of Liliput, but all the world, young and old, has been made familiar by Hans Christian Andersen, the brothers Grimm, and their numerous followers and co-workers. But besides "the mill that ground everything one wished for," and which is now grinding out salt at the bottom of the sea; the two idle sisters whom the cat guided into the enchanted meadow, and who afterwards were deservedly transformed into a spider and an ant; the owl's party, to which the thrush was invited because "we must seem to encourage art," and after singing at which the thrush resolved that, for his part, he would thenceforth leave the great fowls alone and be the little birds' songster; the learned entomologist and book-worm who found a strange insect

* 'Gavroche: the Gamin of Paris. Translated and adapted by M. C. Pyle.' Philadelphia: Porter & Coates.
'Lady Green-Satin and her Maid Rosette. Translated from the French of the Baroness E. Martineau des Chesnez.' Philadelphia: Porter & Coates.
'Children of the Olden Time. By Mrs. Henry Mackarness, author of 'A Trap to Catch a Sunbeam,' etc., etc. With preface by J. R. Planché.' With 27 illustrations. London: Griffith & Farran; New York: Scribner, Welford & Armstrong.
'Northern Lights: Stories from Swedish and Finnish Authors. Translated by Selma Borg and Marie A. Brown.' Philadelphia: Porter & Coates. 1873.
'The Childhood of the World; a Simple Account of Man in Early Times. By Edward Clodd, F.R.A.S.' Boston: Shepard & Gill. 1873.

called Genius, and did not know how to classify it; the seven little apple-sprouts whom at first the very carrot-tops laughed at for being so small, but who grew to be trees, and some of whom were of an idle disposition, and others were discontented, while one was a humble-minded tree, with a desire to be useful, and turned out to be the only one of the seven who had luck and survived to old age; Skrynkleben, the happy tailor, who guessed the three guesses and married the princess; the "boy who could stand on his nose," and who, by the diligent use of this talent, made a fortune, and came home rich to his grandmother; the sea-king's gift to the fisherman's wife, whose desires increase as her wishes are granted—besides all these familiar figures and lessons, there are several stories of other sorts, showing that the translators have ranged as far away from folk-lore as to the region of the Sunday-school story in one direction; the love-story in another; and, in a third, the village portrait sketch—as if one of Miss Mitford's had been written by a child, with a child's recollection of the gray old village doctor and schoolmaster. All is good of its kind, however, and there is nothing that boys and girls may not be the better for reading; for the peculiar talent of the northern nations for making stories full of affection and simple or romantic sentiments and homely wisdom, all conveyed to the childish mind through a happy system of symbolism, is very well illustrated by the writers in 'Northern Lights.' Side by side with this talent, or at the bottom of it, is the thorough understanding of children's character and ways, and the enjoyment of them which most of these writers are sure to show. One amusing example of this is the story of a terrible brigand of the name of Bullerbasius Rummelfelt. It is a story read from a manuscript by Miss Hilda, aged ten, to Master Lasse, aged six. One Sunday afternoon, Hilda calls Lasse to "come here." Lasse, who is sitting in the corner trying to stick on again a leg of his wooden horse—broken off by its owner in a fit of bad temper because the horse would not go fast enough—pretends not to hear, and abides in his place. Hilda, however, informs him that she intends to read to him something that will amuse him. Lasse, thinking that perhaps he is to be told about Bluebeard or Lunkentus, at once recovers his hearing and goes over to his sister. She then informs him that what he is to hear is the exploits of a brigand named Bullerbasius Rummelfelt. Lasse at once pricks up his ears, that brigand being, as he at the moment supposes, quite unknown to him. A brief preface informs him that once there was a brigand called Bullerbasius who had a fairy for a godmother, and who made so much disturbance in the world that his godmother found it necessary to begin writing a book which she had resolved should be published at Helsingfors, in order that every one might know how bad and unreasonable Bullerbasius was. This record Hilda had borrowed, she said. It opened with a brief entry made on the first of January, and to the effect that on the morning of that day Bullerbasius Rummelfelt began the year by kicking down his bed, and soon afterwards putting his stocking in the wash-basin to see if it would float in water; his mamma coming in gave him a slap with the wet stocking. At this incident in the life of the celebrated outlaw, Lasse looked exceedingly surprised; he however said nothing. But at the second incident narrated by Miss Hilda, and which was concerning a cat cruelly shut up by the chieftain in a heated oven, light dawns upon Lasse's mind, and he formally identifies himself with Bullerbasius and enters into a defence of him and himself. Nevertheless he is not spared the recital of the whole list of his offences—an inventory extending from January 1st to the 4th of the following December, the day of the recital or near it. Good, too, and rather out of the usual line of these story-books, is "The Savoyard." It recounts some singular adventures which befell little François, the Savoyard boy, and his rival and enemy, the adult Guiseppo. As we are first introduced to François, he is in Paris, basking in prosperity; the inhabitants of that gay capital being much pleased with a trained monkey, Cæsar by name, of which François is master, and by means of which he expects soon to be able to earn a dowry for his sister Nanon, who cannot be married until she has two thousand francs. But by-and-by there comes on the scene Guiseppo, who is no less a person than Nanon's unsuccessful suitor, and who not only is the owner of a very talented dog, Brutus, but who is resolved that, if Brutus's accomplishments do not drive Cæsar from the stage, he himself will by main strength drive Cæsar's master out of Paris. Here, it will seen, are materials for an exciting story; and we should say that means of further excitement are provided by an Englishman—of the German variety—who incites all four of our heroes to combats, and to that end makes a free use of his large fortune. So ingenious are the methods by which virtue finally triumphs over Guiseppo and Brutus that we do not mind gratifying the reader's curiosity by saying that triumph she does and that Nanon gets her dowry. Their curiosity about the methods the book must gratify. It is a little book that we may very well commend to the favorable consideration of our readers; and considering how few are the holiday books of the year, we may commend it to their attention the more heartily. Outside of the old and perennial favorites, they will not find many that are better or so good.

Mr. Clodd truly says in his preface that the compilation of such a work as 'The Childhood of the World' would have been impossible till within a very few years, owing to a want of knowledge on the subject; and we will add that only lately has theological rigor so softened that such a work, intended for the young, could escape being put in the orthodox *index expurgatorius*. For the author will have it that science has eliminated the Devil from the universe, along with other myths and superstitions; he places in one category the Hebrew, Brahminic, and Buddhist sacred books; and calls those who "say a verse out of the Bible, or gabble over the beautiful Lord's Prayer, because they think that in some mysterious way they get good by so doing," fetish-worshippers of a lower order than savages commonly so called. On the other hand, Mr. Clodd is manifestly reverent and devout in spirit, quotes the Scriptures frequently, and is not so thoroughly possessed of the scientific method but that he sometimes has recourse to the doctrine of final causes. "If God had given man," he says on p. 20, "thick, hair-covered skin, he could not have moved from place to place with comfort; and so man is made naked, but given the power of reasoning about things, and acting by reason." There are plenty of like examples of beginning at the far instead of at the near end of the problem of human existence, particularly in Part II., concerning man's moral and religious progress. In the following extract the idea of development from a lower state to a higher is almost lost sight of, and one would hardly expect to find such a passage in a strictly scientific treatise: "The cause of the shameful sin and crime of which every place in the world has been more or less the scene, has sometimes been man's ignorance of what is due to his God and his fellow-man, but more often his wilful use of power to do evil; forgetting, in his folly and wrong-doing, that the laws of God change not; that sin is a fair-dealing master, and pays his servants the wages of death." Mr. Clodd, too, has little hesitation in assigning limits to human enquiry. Thus: "It would be making another guess—and, as we shall never know whether we have guessed right, what is the use of guessing?—to say how many years man has lived here." In other words, knowledge which is not exact or positive knowledge is of little worth; whereas, to take the case in hand, the negative evidence as to the age of man is of the utmost consequence in accounting for his progress, and is indispensable to a right understanding of the order and duration of the steps towards our present civilization. Our author, however, does not conceal this evidence, though he misses a good opportunity of stating the lapse of time necessary to the formation of a stalagmite floor; on p. 41 he permits it to be inferred that the bone deposits in the Brixham Cavern in Devonshire may be eleven hundred thousand years old.

In general, we should have been better pleased with this praiseworthy essay if the illustrations of the narrative had been more numerous, and with more frequent comparison of primitive usages still extant; and we shall expect Mr. Clodd's successor in the same field to appreciate the value of pictorial accessories to the text. How easy it would be to show by this means that almost all the stages of human development may even now be studied in different parts of the earth.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*
Brachet (A.), Etymological Dictionary of the French Language	(Macmillan & Co.) $4 00
Clodd (E.), The Childhood of the World	(Shephard & Gill) 0 75
Davis (Rebecca H.), Kitty's Choice, swd	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.) 0 40
Edwards (Mrs.), Miss Forrester	(Sheldon & Co.) 1 75
Fawcett (Prof. H.), Speeches on Some Current Political Questions	(Macmillan & Co.) 3 50
Hill (B. A.), Liberty and Law	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Knatchbull-Hugessen (E. H.), Queer Folk	(Macmillan & Co.) 1 75
Lindsley (D. P.), The Note-Taker	(Otis Clapp & Son)
Maguire (J. F.), Young Prince Maricold	(Macmillan & Co.) 1 50
Perls (Dr. M.), Ueber die Bedeutung der pathologischen Anatomie, swd	(L. W. Schmidt)
Perry (Prof. A. P.), Elements of Political Economy, 11th ed	(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.) 2 50
Rath (G. vom), Der Vesuv, swd	(L. W. Schmidt)
Rogers (Prof. J. E. T.), Cobden and Modern Political Opinion	(Macmillan & Co.) 4 00
Seebach (K. von), Central-Amerika und die interoceanische Canal, swd	(L. W. Schmidt)
Schönberg (Dr. G.), Die Volkswirthschaftslehre, swd	" "
Steffert (Dr. L.), Das Autorrecht an literarischen Erzeugnissen, swd.	" "
Scudder (Rev. H. M.), The Catholics and the Public Schools	(Mason, Baker & Pratt)
Spalding (J. L.), Life of Most Rev. M. J. Spalding	(Cath. Pub. Soc.) 4 00
Stieler (A.), Hand-Atlas, Parts 15, 16, swd	(B. Westermann & Co.)
The Cumberstone Contest	(Dodd & Mead) 1 50
The Danbury News-Man's Illustrated Almanac, 1874, swd	(Shepard & Gill) 0 25
The Daily Record for 1874	(Hastings & Co.) 1 65
Warren (Rev. I. P.), The Three Judges	(Warren & Wyman) 1 50
Weller (E.), Atlas of Scripture Geography	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 0 75
White Rose and Red: Poetry	(J. R. Osgood & Co.) 1 50
Withers (F. C.), Church Architecture	(A. J. Bicknell & Co.)
Wolff (Dr. C.), Die unmittelbaren Theile des ehemaligen romisch-deutschen Kaiserreiches, swd	(L. W. Schmidt)
Wright (C. E.), Marcus Blair	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Yonge (Miss C. M.) Lady Hester: a Tale	(Macmillan & Co.) 1 75
Zschokke (H.), The Rose of Disentis: a Tale	(Sheldon & Co.) 1 50

PUBLISHED THIS DAY.

I.

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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

NOVEMBER 24.

THE situation in financial affairs shows a satisfactory improvement since our last writing. With the exception of a short time on Friday and Saturday, money has been easy. On Thursday the Bank of England rate of discount was lowered to 8 per cent., with the prospect of a still further reduction, the necessity for its advancement having entirely passed. The news from Washington in regard to Cuban matters is rather more pacific, and business men are disposed to take a more quiet, common-sense view of the troubles likely to arise out of the seizure of the *Virginius*.

The following shows how the banks stood according to the last published statement before the panic and that of last week:

	Sept. 20.	Nov. 22.
Loans	$278,421,700	$248,067,300
Specie	18,844 600	17,568,700
Circulation	27,414,200	27,299,800
Deposits	198.040 100	167,967 200
Legal tenders	34,307,900	30,899,800

Commercial paper has been in more active demand, and rates are lower than those quoted last week, the range for the best names being from 10 to 18 per cent.

The associated banks held a meeting on Thursday to take action upon the report of the "Committee of Nine," which proposes to make certain radical changes in the conduct of business among the banks belonging to the present Clearing-House Association. At the meeting the representative of each bank was called upon to state the position of his bank on the subject. It is said that forty banks out of the sixty-eight represented were in favor of the adoption of the report in substantially its present form. The other eighteen banks were either entirely opposed to adopting the report, or wished for delay before taking final action upon it. It is very proper to notice that, of the $122,000,000 capital and surplus represented by the banks belonging to the Clearing-House, $50,000,000 are owned by the banks opposed to the adoption of the report of the "Committee of Nine," among them the Bank of Commerce, the Metropolitan and Chemical Banks. Another meeting will be held on Tuesday, when some definite action will probably be taken.

At the Stock Exchange business has been fairly active. The Vanderbilt specialties have been the leading feature of the market, and have exhibited considerable strength. The dividend-paying investment stocks are all strong, and it is likely that on this class of stocks prices will be fully maintained, in view of the demand which may be fairly expected at the commencement of the new year. In the speculative list, the transactions are mostly for account of the brokers themselves, who buy or sell for quick turns, and generally close out their interest in the market every night. There is some demand for stocks from out-of-town buyers, but it is limited. It is thought that a new method of dealing will shortly be introduced into the Board somewhat similar to that of the London Stock Exchange—*i.e.*, buying and selling "for the account," with a settling-day twice a month. It has been proposed to make a clause in the arrangement by which losses shall be limited to 10 per cent. from the time contracts are made until the day of settlement; this would avoid the enormous losses caused occasionally by "corners," and would undoubtedly lead to additional business at the Exchange.

The following shows the highest and lowest sales of the leading stocks at the Stock Exchange for the week ending November 22:

	Monday.		Tuesday.		Wed'day.		Thursday		Friday.		Saturday		Sales.
N. Y. C & H. R.	87½	89	86	87½	86¼	88¼	88	89¾	87⅞	88⅝	87⅞	88¾	100,900
Lake Shore	67¼	68⅝	65⅜	67½	66½	68¼	68⅝	70¼	68½	69¼	68⅝	70⅜	170,800
Erie	43	45½	40	42	40⅜	42⅜	43⅜	44	43½	....	.....	.....	6,700
Do pfd	.....	.....	....	65	65	66	.....	.....	65	....	.....	.....	.....
Union Pacific	20⅜	21½	19¼	20⅜	19⅞	21	20½	21½	20	21	20¾	21½	84,300
Chi. & N. W.	39½	41	38¾	39⅜	38⅜	40¾	40¾	43⅜	42	43⅜	42	43¾	27 5 0
Do. pfd	64½	65	61	62¾	61	62½	64	65	64	....	63½	64	4,200
N. J. Central	91⅜	92½	92	92½	91½	92	92¼	....	91⅜	92½	....	92	900
Rock Island	88¼	90	87¼	88	87½	88¾	88	89	87½	88¾	87¾	88⅜	9,5 0
Mil. & St. Paul	29¼	30¾	28¼	29⅜	28½	30⅜	30⅝	31½	30¼	31½	30⅜	31	43,300
Do. pfd	53¾	55	52⅜	53½	53	54	54	55¼	54	....	.....	.....	.....
Wabash	40⅜	41⅝	39⅝	40⅝	39¾	40⅝	40⅜	42½	40⅝	41½	40⅜	41⅜	42,100
D., L. & W.	91	91½	....	90	89¼	90½	91	91⅜	....	91⅜	90½	91½	2,000
O. & M.	24⅞	26	23⅜	24½	23	24½	24½	25⅜	23½	24⅜	23⅜	24½	74,900
C., C. & I. C.	19⅜	20⅝	19½	19⅜	19¼	19⅜	19⅜	21	21	22½	21⅜	21⅜	23,600
W. U. Tel.	57½	60¼	56⅜	58½	57	60⅜	61	63	60⅜	62⅝	59¼	62	337,000
Pacific Mail	27¾	29¼	27¼	28	27⅜	28	27¾	28½	27¼	28¼	28	29	19,900

Government bonds are strong, with prices generally higher for the more active issues of coupon bonds, such as the '67s. The firmness of gold, and the favorable quotations from London, are sufficient to keep up the prices of our bonds here, besides which the demand for home investment is considerable, and is likely to still further increase as the condition of affairs improves.

The Spanish-American complications, and the possibility of war, have strengthened the gold premium, and the ease in money has led to more speculative transactions than have existed at any time since the panic commenced. The range of fluctuations has been between 108⅝ and 110½, closing at 110½ on Saturday night.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 4, 1873.

The Week.

CONGRESS met on Monday, and proceeded to the choice of Speaker. Mr. J. G. Blaine was of course elected. The Democrats, with all their accustomed profligacy and contempt for public opinion, supported Mr. Fernando Wood for the position, notwithstanding that gentleman's prominence as a "back-pay thief." The Republican members immediately held a caucus, and determined upon the repeal of the back-pay act. General Butler, who has generally been supposed to be in favor of back-pay, proved that this was an injustice by proposing that an act should be passed authorizing suits at law for the recovery of the pay already received. This, however, was thought unnecessary. So that the session opens ominously for the Party of Hate, and radiantly for the Party of Progress and Human Rights.

The President in his message reviews the condition of foreign affairs, and finds them on the whole in a satisfactory condition; renews his recommendation for a commission to distribute the *Alabama* award; invites Congress to work out and define when and how expatriation can be accomplished, to regulate by law the condition of American women marrying foreigners, and to fix the status of children born in a foreign country of American parents residing more or less permanently abroad; recites the history of the *Virginius* case, but does not submit the diplomatic correspondence for the consideration of Congress, as it was conducted by cipher and by Cable, and needs "the verification of the actual text" before this can be done. He has meanwhile "authorized the Secretary of the Navy to put our navy on a war footing, to the extent at least of the entire annual appropriation for that branch of the service, trusting to Congress and the public opinion of the American people to justify my action." He suggests two minor Constitutional Amendments. With regard to Government finances, the President expects a falling-off of the revenues and increase of expenditures, and recommends economy to Congress; refers to the panic, which he thinks may perhaps yet prove "a blessing in disguise"; thinks that permanent prosperity is impossible until a specie basis is reached, and that a specie basis cannot be reached until trade is in such a condition as to leave us an "appreciable accumulation of the precious metals in the country from the products of our mines"; opposes inflation; thinks the National Banks ought to be prevented from paying interest on deposits, and says that "elasticity in our monetary system, therefore, is the object to be attained first, and next to that, as far as possible, a prevention of the use of other people's money in stock and other species of speculation"; recommends the creation of clearing-houses, and makes some suggestions looking to "elasticity," clearing-houses, and free banking; refers to the increase of American shipping; makes one or two minor recommendations as to "cheap transportation"; thinks the involuntary clauses of the Bankrupt Law, so far as they cover non-fraudulent cases, ought to be repealed; recommends aid to the District of Columbia, more civil-service rules, general amnesty, and a new civil-rights act.

Secretary Richardson reports the receipts and expenditures for the fiscal year, and declares that the receipts have fallen off, owing to the reduction of taxation. Estimates of those for the coming year he does not venture to make. He reports that $84,500,000 of the new five per cent. loan have been taken, and that the whole amount of funding done since the passage of the act has been, or will have been when these subscriptions mature, $300,000,000, reducing the annual interest charge $3,000,000. The only portion of the report containing anything very interesting is his account of the part played by the Treasury in the panic. He says that last summer, anticipating the autumn stringency, he sold gold while the market price was high; that when the pressure came he was urged to lend $20,000,000 in legal tenders to the New York banks, on pledge of Clearing-House certificates secured by collaterals, but refused to do so as contrary to law. He was also asked to buy exchange on London with Government money, but refused to do so. The New York Produce Exchange also asked him to lend currency to bankers to buy exchange, on receiving satisfactory evidence that the gold had been deposited against it in London, and to anticipate payment of the loan falling due January 1, 1874. He refused. The Charleston Chamber of Commerce also asked him to lend currency to be used in the purchase of exchange in New York, which he also refused to do. He reports that he bought bonds to the amount of $13,000,000, but ceased at this point, owing to the large amount offered. He condemns the payment of interest on deposits by the National Banks; recommends that "elasticity" be given to the currency, but leaves it "to the wisdom of Congress" to say how it is to be done, though he thinks a return to specie payments ought to be coupled with it; nevertheless, would have the banks allowed, under certain circumstances, to increase their note circulation by pledge of United States bonds; denounces any increase of the legal-tender circulation beyond $400,000,000 as a violation of public faith solemnly pledged; thinks that in order to return to specie payments "the volume of currency must be reduced or that of coin increased"; thinks the power of the Secretary over the $44,000,000 reserve should be accurately defined; likes the late slight increase in American shipping; and makes a number of minor recommendations with regard to the organization of the Custom-house.

The Secretary of the Interior reports the favorable progress of the Indian policy, and thinks that the practice of paying annuities to the Indians in money should cease, on account of the bad effects of money on the Indian character, and that they should hereafter be paid in goods; suggests that individual ownership be substituted for ownership in common as far as possible; with regard to the Modocs, says that it has been deemed best to remove the entire remnant of the tribe to this side of the Rocky Mountains, and to break up its tribal relations and divide the members among certain friendly Indians in the Southern Superintendency; invites the attention of Congress to the request of a body of Mennonites, who for several generations have resided in Southern Russia, that our land-laws may be modified to such an extent as will enable them to settle here and acquire and hold land in accordance with their own customs. He refers also to the "present unprotected condition of the Yellowstone National Park," and says that no appropriation has yet been made for opening it to the public under proper regulations; that the public now go there without any regulations, and carry off the mineral deposits and other curiosities; and that a superintendent was appointed in May, 1872, but, there being no appropriation, his services have necessarily been gratuitous, as "he could not be expected, under such circumstances, to reside permanently in the Park."

The Secretary of War puts the strength of the army on paper (the figures are given in a report by General Sherman) at 29,505 men; the effective force at 19,652. The Secretary of the Navy puts the navy at 63 steamers, carrying 826 guns; 29 sailing vessels, 322 guns; 48 iron-clads, 121 guns; and 25 tugs. Of this number, there are at present in commission 46 vessels, carrying 407 guns. The eight new sloops-of-war authorized by the last Congress are all building. Every effort is now being made to have the navy ready for war, should one occur, and the Secretary thinks that, "inadequate as this force may reasonably be deemed to the responsibilities

and pretensions of a Government like ours, and greatly at disadvantage as we certainly shall be, in respect of number and character of vessels, in a contest with the fleet of any respectable naval power," the Secretary believes that the "activity, skill, science, and experience" of our navy "will be found equal to any difficulty which courage dares to meet or energy will avail to conquer."

We believe the Chief-Justiceship was, contrary to the fond and foolish anticipations of the Boston *Advertiser*, offered to Mr. Conkling, and by him duly declined. He looks forward, we imagine, to a wider sphere of usefulness. His friends in the press declare that he is going to devote himself this winter to the currency question. We are very glad to hear it, only we fear that he will hardly have "got himself up" in it before the close of the session. If he *does* buckle down to the study of any subject of legislation, it will be the first time in his political career that he has done so, and the phenomenon will be watched by the people of this State with great interest. We must warn him, however, that study is monotonous and repulsive, and cannot compare in liveliness to stump-speaking and "managing." Mr. Williams, the Attorney-General, has got the vacant place. It is rather odd, it must be admitted, that the chief of a court which has to pass on the most complicated controversies of a great commercial country, should be chosen from the bar of a frontier State like Oregon, whose practice is mainly created by the simple disputes of a rude and sparse population of farmers. But Mr. Williams, if not able and learned, is laborious, painstaking, and respectable, and, as things go, his appointment will create a feeling of relief.

There has been another terrific disaster at sea—the *Ville du Havre*, a splendid steamer of the French line, having been cut down to the water's edge by collision with a sailing vessel in mid-ocean, on a clear, starlight night. Two hundred and twenty lives are reported lost. Who was to blame is not known at this writing, and perhaps may never be. The officer in charge of the deck when the accident occurred has been drowned. The captain was in bed, but remained with the ship until she sank, and was picked up out of the water. The presumption in such cases is naturally against the steamer, which is bound to make way for a sailing vessel, but this rests on another presumption, that the sailing vessel keeps a proper lookout. We shall know more about the matter, however, by-and-by. The year has been terribly prolific in these calamities at sea, and the worst of them is that they all seem to show that science has run ahead of morals in the matter of navigation. All that the skilful use of natural laws can do for safety in sea travelling has apparently been done. We have now hulls and machinery which winds and waves assail in vain, compasses almost incapable of deception, and lifeboats as big and more seaworthy than the ships in which the early discoverers crossed the ocean. We do not *watch*, however, apparently as well as we invent and construct. The two ships which went ashore last summer were hurled on the rocks because men were sleepy and careless. We suspect that, when we know the whole story of this last wreck, we shall find that somebody who ought to have been wide awake was taking a nap or "trusting to luck." The same tendency to sluggishness shows itself in nearly every department of activity. Vigilance is a declining virtue, and, whether it be war or finance or navigation, we all hope that somehow we shall "pull through" without taking some troublesome or disagreeable or costly precaution. There never was a time when the duty of "keeping our weather-eye open" was more neglected.

We were a little premature in saying last Thursday that Tweed was at that moment in the Penitentiary. He was not removed to that institution until Saturday, and probably would not have been removed then if the Sheriff had not been filliped into promptness by a stern and threatening remonstrance from Attorney-General Barlow. Tweed was allowed three days at the Tombs to transfer his property and settle his affairs—which, though in the case of most criminals a humane and reasonable custom, irritated people a good deal in Tweed's case, owing to the general belief that his property consisted mainly of "swag." At Blackwell's Island he has passed into the regular machine of punishment, wears convict clothes and eats convict fare. His present condition must be a subject of hearty satisfaction to all friends of good morals and good government, and nevertheless he will attract more or less of the pity which people are apt to feel for an old man overtaken by a punishment which he cannot hope to outlive, and which the community in which he acted for many years encouraged him not to expect. He gave the finishing touch to the comic element in politics by registering himself at the Penitentiary as "a statesman."

Judge Davis worthily closed the proceedings in Tweed's case by a stern lecture to the three lawyers who tried to intimidate him at the beginning of the trial by the presentation of formal imputations on his impartiality, and inflicted on them a fine of $250 each—a mild, but perhaps adequate punishment. One of the trio, Graham, was an old offender, who has long figured in criminal trials as an uproarious and weeping bully, and has apparently relied largely on his turbulence and disorder to divert the attention of juries from the real matter in hand. If it had been possible to single him out for severer chastisement, the good work would have been nearly completed. We trust the applause which has followed Judge Davis all through this case will encourage other judges to cast aside the timidity of these latter years and do something for the lawful correction of "the manners and excesses" of the bar.

The Chamber of Commerce of this city have under consideration a series of resolutions in favor of a return to specie payments. On the 6th instant, these resolutions were referred to a committee, consisting of Messrs. A. A. Low, George Opdyke, and Samuel Babcock. Messrs. Low and Babcock have made a report, in the shape of a memorial to Congress, representing that the time has come when a just regard to the commercial and financial interests and the honor of the country demands a return to specie payments, or the initiation of such measures as will lead to resumption at an early day; that gold or silver is in the commercial countries of the world the accepted standard of value; that gold is still, in the United States, money for various enumerated purposes—*e.g.*, the payment of duties; and that its constantly fluctuating price enters into almost every commercial transaction, and is a constant source of trouble and loss, and causes speculation; that to this speculation is in part due the very premium which stands in the way of resumption; that "for all the uses above-named, with one exception, gold coin would cease to be a necessity in the event of resumption, as all the national currency would stand on the same plane. For the single purpose of liquidating the balance of our foreign trade, from time to time, the use of gold coin would be indispensable; and it may be remarked that what appears in our export tables as bullion for the last year, has consisted most largely of gold and silver bars"; and that it follows from these considerations that the only thing that need be taken into the account in determining the feasibility of resumption, is the condition of the balance of trade with foreign countries. The amount of gold required to liquidate this balance is constantly declining, owing to the increase of exports, and the committee therefore recommends, 1st, that the United States stop purchasing bonds; 2d, that redemption of legal tenders be begun on the 4th day of May at New York, or other places also, if convenient, but that the power of reissue be continued; 3d, that some of the greenbacks be funded, if the condition of the currency, after resumption, seems to make that necessary; and that the National Banking Law be amended, 1st, by a provision that the 25 per cent. bank reserve be altogether in legal tenders; 2d, by a provision for the substitution of gold for greenbacks as a part of the reserve, whenever the success of redemption is fully assured. Mr. Opdyke has made a minority report in favor of the 3.65 convertible-bond plan, but the majority report has been adopted by the Chamber.

Last week was effected the final breach in the Hoosac Tunnel, which united the east and west headings, and thus virtually completed the second longest tunnel in the world. The distance pierced is nearly five miles; the Mont Cenis tunnel is half as long again, and occupied but a fraction of the twenty years required for the construction of the Hoosac. The natural difficulties, however, were at least as great in the latter case as in the former, the engineering quite as creditable; indeed, the alignment of the Hoosac was simply perfect. The success of the sub-Alpine tunnel, of course, was a great encouragement to the Massachusetts enterprise in its later stages, and but for the Italian example of rock-boring by machinery the older work would probably still be far from completion. The tenacity with which the State has clung to the project through all manner of adversity, is proof of a deep conviction of the necessity of the tunnel, and this will doubtless be fully justified. The actual cost of opening the tunnel (about ten million dollars) is greater than it might have been under other circumstances, yet hardly seems extravagant in itself, and still less so as the price of Massachusetts' maintaining her commercial rank in the Union. The State reluctantly assumed the task of a private corporation, to which it had originally loaned its credit. More than once the tunnel has loomed up as a great job in Massachusetts politics, and produced wide diversity and much bitterness of sentiment. Apparently, it is still to afford a basis for party differences, as the State's future relation to it remains undetermined.

M. Magne, the French Minister of Finance, has made his report to the Assembly, and a melancholy document it is. The total cost of the war, including everything, he estimates at $1,484,000,000, or more than half our national debt, and it must be remembered that it was all incurred in a single year. The expenditure of 1874 will, it is calculated, be about $540,500,000, or 43 per cent. more than in 1869, the year before the war, and this is only a rough estimate after all. What aggravates the situation is that the loan of over $300,000,000 made by the Bank of France to the Government during the war, compelled that establishment to suspend specie payments, and this sum must be paid back before it can resume. The revenue for the coming year is only estimated at $470,000,000, so there will be a heavy deficit; and this M. Magne proposes to meet by increased taxes on salt and sugar, and stamp duties, new or increased, on deeds, bills, and checks.

In the new Prussian Parliament, everything is likely to go as well as Bismarck could possibly desire. Liberalism in politics and religion has everywhere carried the day in the late elections. The numbers of the "Moderate Liberals" (the French Left Centre) have risen from 116 to 178. The Advanced Liberals (the Left) have risen from 50 to 71. The Moderate Conservatives (Right Centre), who vote with the Government on the ecclesiastical question, number 62, giving the Cabinet a majority of 311 out of a total of 432. The Conservatives (the Right), the old Junker party, have dwindled down from 69 to 9; the Ultramontanes proper have risen from 60 to 82; the remainder of the Opposition is made up of 17 Poles, who have neither lost nor gained, and 3 "Particularists," or States-Rights men—making in all 111. Besides these, there are ten independent members, or "savages" (*Wilden*), as they are called, who fight under no banner in particular, but generally support the Government on the church question. This question appears to have constituted almost the only issue at the elections, and it is their votes on this, in the last Parliament, which have caused the Conservatives to be almost swept out of existence, and have cut the Moderate Conservatives down from 84 to 62. The Danes have not held their own, but the Poles have, and the three "Particularists" include only one Protestant.

Strengthened in this way, the Government is likely to push on its warfare with the church more vigorously than ever. A bill providing for civil marriages, in order to get rid of the difficulty created by the absence of priests in about one hundred parishes, is one of the promised measures of the coming session. Another bill is to be introduced empowering the Government to remove from their old places of abode, or even banish from the country, such deposed priests as it may consider mischievous The proceedings against Archbishop Ledochowski have resulted in his removal from office and imprisonment. The Bishop of Trèves is likely to catch it for appointing clergymen without Government approval. The Bishop of Paderborn was sued by his chaplain for unjustifiable removal from office, but the bishop scornfully refused to answer, whereupon the police entered his palace, and took from his papers, for the use of the court, all that bore on the controversy. The Archbishop of Cologne has been so much frightened that he has stopped the sale of his official organ, in which he prints his excommunications, and only circulates it privately among the clergy; and the Archbishop of Breslau has humbly asked the approval of the civil authorities for his appointment of an assistant priest in his diocese. Nor is the warfare against the church confined to Prussia. In Hesse, a court composed of Catholic judges has just dismissed the suit of the local bishop against a Protestant clergyman for publishing a statement that the 'Moral Compendium' used in the Catholic divinity schools taught the morality of scoundrels. The Parliament of Brunswick, thanking the Emperor for his letter to the Pope, denounces the latter as an enemy of Christianity, bent on the enslavement of mankind. Worse still, the Austrian Minister of Public Instruction is introducing into the Reichsrath a set of bills for the regulation of ecclesiastical education and other church matters, modelled on those of Prussia, which has called forth, as a sort of protest against them, the publication of a letter denouncing the Prussian legislation, written in June last by Cardinal Rauscher, the Archbishop of Vienna.

The bill legalizing or making obligatory civil marriages—we do not yet know which it is—has more importance than appears on the surface. At present, every Prussian marriage has to be celebrated by a clergyman. There is no choice in the matter. More than this, every Prussian has to be baptized, whether he likes it or not. We hear of no change in the law with regard to the latter obligation, but presume it cannot long survive the abolition of the former one. The same thing may be said of the obligation to be buried in denominational cemeteries, of which the registries are kept by clergymen. At present, there are no others. There was considerable difficulty in obtaining the Emperor's consent to the institution of civil marriages, but it was at last extracted, and it will operate, it is thought, as the first step towards a total separation between church and state, which is what the advanced Liberals already demand. It will, too, release the sceptical element in the German population—which includes the great bulk of the educated classes—from what they have considered a most galling relation to the clergy.

The Austrian Empire has also just had its elections for the Reichsrath, which contains 353 members, who are now elected directly by universal suffrage, and not, as formerly, by the diets of the different provinces. The only great party line in Austrian politics is that between the friends of a strong central government and those of provincial independence, and the former have a majority of 228, though this does not, any more than in Prussia, give the Government a compact majority. The great question in Austria to-day, as here, is the financial question. Vienna is still prostrated by the languor and despair resulting from the panic of last spring, and the only hope of recovery seems to be in Government aid. Prussia recently offered the Viennese Treasury a loan of 200,000,000 thalers in silver, of which it has no longer any need, to enable it to resume specie payments, but this was, after consideration, declined, though it is now again talked of. Prussia, since she adopted the gold standard, has more silver than she knows what to do with, and finds the irredeemable paper of Austria a serious hindrance to commercial intercourse.

HOW SHOULD WE FIGHT SPAIN?

THE settlement of the *Virginius* affair, as reported from Washington, leaves little to be desired if the Madrid Government proves able to carry it into execution. Arbitration, or rather the decision of a mixed tribunal, is perhaps as good a way as could be desired of deciding whether the *Virginius* was a *bona-fide* American ship. If, however, it should prove that her papers were regular, and her owners really American, we shall at once be brought face to face with the question of our responsibility for her acts. And if it should appear, as is most likely, that she was a notorious filibuster, it will not be difficult for the Spaniards to make some very unpleasant demands on us, which we shall find it very difficult, under the Geneva rulings, to gainsay. If, on the other hand, her assumption of the American flag turns out to be fraudulent, and her designs against Cuba hostile, we shall have nothing to complain of beyond the summary execution of American citizens; and as this took place under a familiar Spanish custom, the most we can hope for is what the Government has demanded—the pecuniary provision out of the Spanish exchequer for the survivors. On the whole, we could not perhaps have hoped to reach any more satisfactory result than that actually attained, and Mr. Fish may fairly consider it another feather in his cap.

But while we are bound, if only on the principle that all is well that ends well, to give the Government all possible credit for the conduct of the negotiations, it is proper, for the benefit of the Congress which has just met, to call attention to the fact that we have been playing a very dangerous game, which might have placed us in a very embarrassing situation. We have made peremptory demands for satisfaction for an insult on a nation by no means blessed with wisdom, and just now in a very wild and irritable frame of mind, and have allowed a few days only for their consideration, and have backed them by an open threat of war in case of non-compliance by a certain day. Now there ought to be, as every one will admit, a certain relation between our diplomatic tone and our means of offence and defence. A nation may regulate its demeanor towards foreign powers either by Quaker principles or by feudal—that is to say, military—principles. It may adopt a policy of patience and long-suffering, and may rely wholly or in great part for redress of injuries on argument, or in appeals to the conscience or to the opinion of the civilized world; or it may adopt a policy based on the feudal theory of "honor," or, in other words, the theory that in all disputes it is itself the sole and best judge of the extent of the injury received and of the nature of the atonement to be exacted, and that self-respect requires a prompt resort to force for the redress of wrongs. A nation which adopts the former of these policies can of course dispense with the maintenance of an army or navy. Even if the worst comes to the worst, and it is compelled to seek redress at the cannon's mouth, it is bound to spend so much time in discussion that it will be able to raise an army or equip a fleet before it is necessary to come to blows. We did adopt this policy towards England in the *Alabama* controversy. The wrongs complained of were committed in 1862. We waited patiently for redress until 1870, and declared even then that we were ready to wait for an indefinite period, and that time and the general course of events were all the while demonstrating the justice of our demands. Under this precedent, the dissolution of our navy, and our indifference to the progress made in Europe in the construction of ships' armor and marine artillery, were reasonable enough. Nobody, it was said, wanted war with England, and, considering what England had done, it was *à fortiori* improbable that we should ever need to go to war with anybody without three or four years' notice.

A nation which adopts the latter policy, as France does and Prussia, for instance, is bound to be always ready to fight. It must have its ships of war afloat, and they must be of the most improved kind; it must have its soldiers and sailors trained and armed in the best manner, so that when it finds its honor hurt it can strike swiftly and destructively. It must, in short, do as gentlemen did in the days when disputes were not carried into the police court—keep its sword constantly by its side. If it is proud, punctilious, touchy, it must, in order to avoid being ridiculous or getting into very bad scrapes, have constantly at hand the means of making its anger dreaded. In short, if we cultivate the military temper, we must cultivate military methods.

Now, in this Spanish embroglio we have acted on the latter policy. We have laid aside the philosophic air with which we pushed the *Alabama* negotiations, and taken the tone of peremptory indignation. We do not say this was not the best tone to take; in fact, we incline to believe that in the existing condition of Spanish affairs and of the Spanish mind it was the only tone to take, if we meant to look for redress at all, or prevent similar outrages in future. We are, therefore, not criticising the Government about it. But we wish to call the attention of Congress and the public to the enormous dangers to which, through their stupidity or indifference, this policy has exposed us. Mr. Fish has actually been threatening to fight a maritime power of considerable force, and to wrest from it an island, upon a few weeks' notice, without having anything that can be called a navy at his command. In our day, nothing is a navy but iron-clads. Everybody knows this. The huge wooden screws which we send cruising round the world with so much pomp and pride, to protect our interests in foreign lands, and which are paraded in newspapers as terrible engines of war, are almost useless for military purposes. They belong to a class of ships which other governments have sold or are selling for firewood. In a naval action with modern men-of-war they would be sent to the bottom in five minutes. In a war with Spain, therefore, we should, in the absence of iron-clads, be driven immediately from the sea, and could only protect our ports by the use of torpedoes. Have we any iron-clads? We have a few. Of one of the best of them a naval officer remarked, with unconscious humor, in Washington the other day, that "he had no doubt she could be got to Cuba in calm weather." There is not among them a sea-going vessel, fit to contend with the Spanish frigates. Here is what happened to one of the best of them when she tried to make her way down the coast the other day in tow of one of the wooden screws:

"U. S. STEAMER POWHATAN, via LEWES, Del., Nov. 28.

"After we passed the Capes of the Delaware on Wednesday night, the monitor *Manhattan* did very well in tow, the weather being favorable, until yesterday morning, when a strong southwest wind sprung up, with occasional squalls. The sea swept clean over her from stem to stern, upsetting the men at the wheel and carrying away the log-book. The ventilators, with the exception of one, were all washed away. A leak was sprung under the turret, through which the water poured in with alarming rapidity. Commander Yates expected the monitor would go down, and ordered the boats to be cleared and life-buoys distributed. Shortly after 9 A.M., however, Capt. Beaumont having turned the *Powhatan* before the wind, the *Manhattan* became easier. This was off Chincoteague buoy. The monitor being in a leaky condition, and her bilge-pumps having become choked, while everything and everybody on board were thoroughly drenched, it was considered advisable to return to the Delaware breakwater, which we did about dark last night, the *Manhattan* going inside, while we remained outside. The *Manhattan* will probably be ordered to Philadelphia for repairs."

There is no reason to believe that any other monitor would, in like circumstances, fare one whit better, and in estimating the importance of this, it has to be borne in mind that to transport an army to Cuba, and supply it after it gets there, we must command the sea absolutely. As we now stand, unless the Spaniards should prove even more fatuous than they have yet shown themselves, it is hard to say where the fighting would be after we went to war. We could raise men enough to rid the island of the volunteers and regulars in a very few weeks, but how should we get at the volunteers and regulars?

An army, even when there are as many drilled soldiers and experienced officers in the country as we now have at command, takes some little time to equip and organize, but it is a very simple and easily prepared machine compared to a navy. A navy is the most costly, complicated weapon a nation can have. It takes years to construct it, and constant and elaborate care to keep it in a state of efficiency. If we deliberately make up our minds not to maintain one, however, we must also make up our minds to be very peaceful in our demeanor, and to bear insults and "outrages" and "dungeon" troubles patiently, and to give up the luxury of speedy vengeance, and to treat fiery patriots like Alexander H. Stephens,

who call for "war immediately if not sooner," as harmless lunatics. But there could hardly be a better illustration of the disappearance of foresight, judgment, and adult discretion and prudence among a certain class of our politicians, than the fact that one of the principal orators at the Cooper Institute "war meeting," a fortnight ago, was a member of Congress who has distinguished himself by his resistance to appropriations for the navy, and who two years ago made a desperate effort in the House to secure the extinction of the corps of marines. Nevertheless, on the occasion in question, he demanded war at once, and refused even to wait until Congress met. It will be found, too, by anybody who will take the trouble to watch Congressional proceedings, that the most blatantly bellicose members, the ones most jealous of the honor of the flag, most troubled about "the rights of American citizens," and readiest to hurl defiance at powerful foreign nations, and to encourage hostile expeditions directed against their territory, are the very men who most pertinaciously resist all rational preparation for war, such as the maintenance of an army or navy, experiments in gunnery, the support of schools for the training of officers, and the various other methods by which, as is now known to the civilized world, nations prepare themselves for fighting.

THE PENNSYLVANIA CONSTITUTIONAL CONVENTION VERSUS THE STATE OFFICERS.

AFTER having finished their projected draft of a constitution, the Pennsylvania convention passed an ordinance providing for its submission to the electors of the State for their approval or rejection. This ordinance, ignoring or disregarding the existing general statutes of the commonwealth, and even any particular statute which may have been passed in reference to the convention and its proceedings, contains a body of special rules touching the manner of conducting the election, the count of votes, and their return in the city of Philadelphia, and makes the convention itself, or a committee of it, a board of canvassers to examine the returns from the whole State. The object of this provision is well understood; in fact, it was openly proclaimed. Under the present constitution, legislative corruption had become notorious; the law-making power had for years been a mere instrument of advantage in the hands of private persons and corporations. Upon this foundation is built, not the supremacy of the Republican party, but the domination of the men who have obtained control of the machinery of the party. The proposed constitution, through its limitations upon the legislative power, which have been carefully prepared under the light furnished by a costly experience, and which are even more minute and peremptory than those contained in the latest constitution of Illinois, will destroy this stupendous evil. A result so much desired by all good citizens, and so necessary to the great commonwealth itself, is naturally dreaded by those persons who, obtaining and keeping power by means of the evil, seek to have it perpetuated. The word had therefore gone forth from the secret chambers of the Ring that the proposed constitution must be defeated at the polls; and the elections of the last few years make it clear that if the voting machinery of Philadelphia should be left in the hands which ordinarily manage it, an opposing majority adequate to the emergency could easily be returned from that city. Knowing these facts, the convention has undertaken to possess itself for the time being of this voting machinery, to supervise the election, to count the votes, and finally to examine the returns from the entire State. It thus seeks to ascertain the actual will of the electoral body, and to prevent the wholesale alteration of returns and falsifying of results which, in a representative government, is the most stupendous crime against society of which men can be guilty, more base and more dangerous even than treason. This action was not a scheme devised by one party to injure another, for the convention was decidedly Republican, and the ordinance received the assent of all the members except a few delegates from Philadelphia. The State officials, however, deny its validity, refuse to obey its directions, and are endeavoring to procure a decision of the courts pronouncing it null and void. That the convention's plan should be successful so far as its immediate objects are concerned, must be the wish of all who hope for the overthrow of organized political corruption; but it may be possible that with the best of motives and for a most laudable purpose, the convention has overstepped the bounds of its own authority in such a manner and to such an extent that the ultimate consequences may be more disastrous than the present evil which it desires to remove. Whether there has been any such excess of authority or not, whether the ordinance of the convention is valid or void, are questions which involve the very bases of our peculiar civil polity. No portion of the American political system is more obscure than the functions of the constitutional convention regarded as a part of the orderly administration of government, as an instrument for the peaceful and legal reconstruction of the fundamental law. A correct conception of the logical position of the convention, and of the nature of the process by which a State constitution is framed and adopted, is not a mere abstraction; its practical importance equals if not excels its scientific interest; and it alone furnishes an answer to the specific questions which we have just proposed.

There are three conditions under which the ordinance may have been passed: (1) the act of the legislature which called the convention may have provided in express terms that the constitution was to be submitted to a popular vote in such manner and under such regulations as the latter body should determine; or (2) the act may have been wholly silent on that particular subject; or (3) the act may have provided in express terms that the submission was to be in accordance with some existing election laws, or in accordance with some regulations then prescribed, or thereafter to be prescribed, by the legislature. Where the first condition exists, no doubt can arise; the ordinance of the convention, having received the express approval of the legislature itself, must be valid, for there is no other body whose assent or sanction could in any event be necessary. The second and third conditions present the only difficulty, but they must be considered together, as they depend upon one and the same principle. The question is, Has the constitutional convention any such legislative authority? If it has not, the failure of the regular legislature to act in the matter would not clothe it with the authority; if it has, the assumption of the legislature to act in the matter would not necessarily take away the authority. Under which of these three conditions the Pennsylvania case falls, it may be difficult to determine with absolute certainty. Section 5 of the originating statute provides that "the convention shall submit the amendments agreed to by it to the qualified voters of the State, for their adoption or rejection, at such time or times, *and in such manner, as the convention shall prescribe.*" Standing alone, this section would be decisive. But Section 6 goes on to say that "the election to decide for or against the adoption of the new constitution shall be conducted as the general elections of this commonwealth are now by law conducted," and contains some details as to the manner of making the returns by the "election judges" (inspectors), and of opening, counting, and publishing them "as the returns for governor are now by law counted and published." While we do not think that, upon a fair comparison of these two sections, the latter one so limits the comprehensive language of the former as to take the case out from the first of the above conditions, or as to conflict with the terms of the ordinance passed by the convention, yet we prefer to base our discussion upon general principles rather than upon the particular language of the statute. As a striking illustration of the vicious theory which we combat, which exalts the legislature and makes it supreme not only over the convention, but even over the people acting in their organic capacity in the matter of establishing a fundamental law for themselves, we refer, in passing, to another clause of this statute which enacts "that the said convention shall not create, establish, or submit any proposition for the establishment of a court or courts with exclusive equity jurisdiction."

If we refer to precedents, the result is instructive. Prior

1867, seventy-eight constitutions had been submitted to the people for their approval, and the convention itself ordered and regulated the manner of the submission in sixty-three instances out of this whole number. In about one-half of these instances, the action of the convention was prescribed either by the State constitution or by the originating statute, but in the other instances there was no such direction, and the convention assumed the authority to be lodged in itself as an essential element of its existence and functions. While these precedents are not absolutely decisive, they show very clearly the opinions which have generally prevailed. After some variations of method, but still through a steady progress towards the full conception of the plan, the following has been established as the normal process of calling a convention to revise a State constitution and of adopting the scheme it prepares: The legislature passes a statute submitting to the electors the question whether a convention shall be held, which statute frequently, and perhaps usually, contains provisions for an election of delegates and other details, in case the popular vote is in the affirmative. The proposition of the legislature being approved, delegates are elected, who assemble and draft a constitution. This is submitted to the electors, and, if approved, becomes the fundamental law of the commonwealth. Such, we say, is now the normal process, and beyond a doubt it will in time be universally followed. It is true that in some instances the legislature has called a convention without the previous assent of the people, and it may be that in a few States the constitution expressly authorizes such a course; but these cases are certainly exceptional. If a State constitution is silent upon the subject, it is universally conceded that the legislature may lawfully take the initiative in the manner described.

What are the functions of the body thus authorized and created? It is said by one school of political theorists that the convention is clothed with all the sovereignty possessed by the people of the State which it represents; that its powers are, therefore, for the time being, unlimited except by the restrictions of the national Constitution; and that, as a necessary consequence, its work might be imposed upon the commonwealth without the form of a submission to the popular vote. Although this extreme theory has never been carried out to its full results in actual practice, it has invariably influenced and modified the action of State conventions. We believe that it is erroneous, and degrades instead of exalting the attribute of sovereignty; But we have no space in which to discuss or combat it, and shall only refer our readers to the able treatise of Mr. Jameson, in which it is successfully overthrown. But while refusing to the convention the possession of absolute sovereignty, Mr. Jameson is carried —and unnecessarily carried—by his argument to the opposite extreme, and denies that it possesses any inherent powers whatsoever. He even reaches the conclusion that it differs in no essential element from any voluntary assembly of citizens met for a peaceful and proper object. The error which underlies his whole discussion is his notion that the convention derives its authority from the legislature, his assumption that the legislature possesses as a part of its ordinary functions any capacity in the matter of amending or originating a constitution. The legislature is clothed with all powers of ordinary law-making, except as restrained by the national and State constitutions, but among these is not that of remodelling the organic law. As the only possible representative of the State, it takes the initiative, and gives an opportunity for the people in their organic capacity and in a formal manner to call and choose an assembly of delegates; but when this act has been performed, when this opportunity has been given, its function is gone, and its control over the process of constitution-making is ended. The convention once chosen derives all its powers from the people —not from the individual electors, but from the organic people who constitute the State. To speak in the technical terms of logic, the statute is the occasion, the will of the people as shown by the electors is the cause. What is delegated to this body? We answer, not any absolute sovereignty, but the exercise of that sovereignty so far as may be necessary to accomplish a double purpose—(1) the framing a proposed constitution, and (2) the ascertaining in a formal and legal manner whether the people, through their constituted electors, will accept the proposed scheme and establish it as the fundamental law of the commonwealth. We concede that the convention does not possess the ordinary legislative function, that it cannot enact ordinary statutes, that it cannot invade the province of the government which exists by its side. It is not called into being to supplant, but to supplement the legislature, to do certain acts which are outside of, and to a certain extent antagonistic to, the proper business of the legislature. There is an evident incongruity in conferring upon the latter body the duty of working its own overthrow, by destroying the very foundation upon which it rests; and therefore the American system, through progressive steps, has finally contrived the convention as the sole depositary of this extraordinary power.

Constitution-framing and constitution-establishing are not branches of the legislative function, and as the notion, at first somewhat dimly conceived, has been gradually developed and perfected, the people have retained those fundamental processes of government in their own hands, entrusting the preliminary work to their direct agents chosen for that specific object, but reserving to themselves the final and absolute voice in the act of adoption. It is a mistake, in analyzing this perfected system, to regard the convention as a mere committee employed to prepare a scheme of government and submit the same to the legislature. Its report is to the people, who are its only superiors. The theory which we thus reject might easily render the revision of a State constitution impossible, except by a revolution, since the legislature, by a repeal of the statute calling the convention, or by a refusal to submit its work to the electors, could at any time defeat the popular will. A doctrine which leads to such necessary results is plainly opposed to the American principles of government and notions of legislative subordination. The true theory, on the other hand, avoids all possible conflict between the various departments of the government, and is in strict harmony with our conceptions of popular sovereignty and of the law-making function. The constitutional convention exists for a definite purpose, and has such powers as enable it to accomplish that purpose independent of any other delegated body, and accountable to no one but its own creator—the people. This ultimate purpose has been already stated, and it is unnecessary to enumerate the incidental and minor powers which are embraced within it. If we are correct in this position, it follows as a necessary consequence that the legislature has rightfully nothing to do with the submitting the proposed constitution to the people either in substance or form; that subject, transcending its legitimate authority, belongs solely to the convention. Undoubtedly, in a very few instances, the legislature has assumed exclusive control and the convention has acquiesced, but these exceptions do not affect the principle. If, however, a conflict should arise—as perhaps in Pennsylvania—between the ordinance of the convention and the statute of the legislature, the latter must give way.

We remark, in conclusion, that every modern constitutional convention has consciously and avowedly adopted the view which we maintain in opposition to that advocated by Mr. Jameson.

CHURCH DISCIPLINE.

THE decision arrived at by Mr. Beecher's church on Wednesday of last week, in reply to the remonstrance received from the two sister churches in Brooklyn on the subject of ecclesiastical discipline, if acquiesced in, as it is not unlikely to be, by a good many others, will make a much greater charge than appears on the surface in the relations of Presbyterian and Congregational church organizations to the community at large. The controversy in question arose out of the refusal of Plymouth Church to investigate serious charges made against one of its members still on its lists. Instead of doing so, it allowed him to withdraw from connection with it of his own accord, and simply dropped his name from its list. The two other Congregational churches in Brooklyn thereupon protested against this, as contrary to Congregational usage, and as likely to cause scandal and bring discredit on the denomination; and this protest, after full deliberation in Plymouth Church, was treated by a heavy

majority as of no weight or effect. The most important feature in the debate was, however, Mr. Beecher's speech, in which he laid down certain doctrines, which to most people will be new, but which the church adopted, touching the nature of the church organization. His view of his church is, in substance, that it is simply an assemblage of persons taking an interest in spiritual things and desirous of hearing him preach. But he holds that it has no jurisdiction either of offences against morality or of departures from orthodoxy; that its doors are "as wide as humanity for entrance," and "wide as necessity for departure"; that, in short, it is none of the church's business what a member's way of life is, and that enquiries into his morals and manners, with the view of making him the subject of ecclesiastical discipline, are simply futile and mischievous; that the object of the church is to give as much in the way of edification to those who take pews in it as they are capable of receiving, but not to exercise any supervision over their lives, or make curious enquiries into the relation of their practice to their professions. It is true, he says, that people of "scandalous" lives ought to be expelled, but this concession is of little use without a definition of the term scandalous. The lives of some of the Plymouth Church members have of late years certainly caused scandal, as the term is ordinarily used, and yet have met with no church censure. The effect of this theory will be twofold. It will of course, in the first place, do away at once, as far as the churches adopting it are concerned, with the practice of granting dismissory letters, or certificates of "good and regular standing," to retiring members, so as to secure them admission to other churches, because under it such certificates will mean nothing. In the second place, it will, as regards the community at large, act as a formal abandonment of the theory which has played so large a part in English and American history—that there is a real distinction displaying itself by outward marks between members of Congregational churches and the world outside. According to this theory, the church was composed of a body of persons who had not only embraced certain beliefs with regard to Christ's character and mission, but had, as a consequence or accompaniment of those beliefs, undergone certain changes of hopes, desires, tastes, and aims, implied in the term "conversion" or "change of heart," which created a real line of demarcation and a real difference of standards between them and their non-religious neighbors; and this change, and this alone, constituted fitness for participation in the sacrament of the Lord's Supper. The tests of the change were two in number, and the only possible tests, viz.: the convert's own account of his state of feeling and of his opinions on religious subjects, and his general conduct in the discharge of his various duties in life. One of these would not have been accepted without the other. Professions of faith would not have been accepted without amendment in action, or amendment in action without such an account of the motives to it as would satisfy the church that these motives were Christian—that is, had their root in certain recognizable views of Christ's character and mission.

It is hardly necessary to say that this was not and is not the Catholic or Anglican view of church-membership. To explain in detail why it was not would lead us into fields which it is none of our business to explore. But we may mention, as the chief reason, the fact that the Catholic and Anglican conception of the church is that of a body of clergymen, commissioned to preach, to baptize, marry, and bury the rest of the world; by whom, in the Anglican Church, the co-operation of the laity is accepted in a reluctant, half-hearted way, and in the Catholic Church not at all. In England, every man is, in law, a member of the national church, whatever his character or beliefs may be; and the tolerant view of what constitutes a Christian life which this has bred, has not unnaturally, though under widely different circumstances, been perpetuated by the Episcopal Church here. As regards the Catholic Church, it is a necessary deduction from its claims that all men are members of it. They may be bad or good, pious or unbelieving, but they are Catholics of some kind all the same, and whether they will or no. The bad behavior of a Catholic layman consequently reflects no discredit on the Catholic Church. It does not pretend to be an organization composed of repentant or believing persons. It is an organization of priests commissioned to teach religion and morality, and administer the sacraments, to everybody who can by hook or by crook be made amenable to their jurisdiction.

What we have been saying as to the Congregational Church is true, with some modifications, of the Presbyterian, Baptist, and Methodist churches. Membership is in them all held to be an outward and visible sign of an inward change, affecting not only opinions but conduct. The congregations are, in short, not simply audiences, but parts of an organization existing partly in this world, and partly in the world to come, and in the enjoyment of certain spiritual relations with God and Christ not partaken of by the world at large. The position taken by Plymouth Church, however, repudiates this theory *in toto*. What it says is that church members may or may not be Christians or good men; about that it does not concern itself. The one thing certain is that they like to come to the building on Sunday, and are strong in their devotion to philanthropic enterprises. In short, the church is not an institution. Its members are not held together by any visible bond. They are persons who like to expose themselves to spiritual influences, but have nothing to say as to the effect of these influences on their character.

Some one has said that this is putting the church on "a democratic basis," which is true; but then, it is by introducing into the church organization that feature of democracy which gives cause for a very large part of whatever apprehension exists as to the future of modern society. One of the greatest helps to conduct—which, as Matthew Arnold says, is three-fourths of life—in the ancient and mediæval world, was the close dependence of men on each other created by various artificial arrangements. Everybody was a member of some small organization, whose interests took his thoughts off himself, of whose honor he was jealous, and whose opinion stimulated him in any course of action which its code prescribed as best. He belonged to a small tribe, or state, or guild, or commune, or order, in which he was every day reminded of his dependence on his fellow-men, in which he lived under continual observation, which exacted of him continual sacrifice of self, and whose concentrated censure he dared not face. The result was that, in spite of barbarism and insecurity, great ideals were kept alive, and great types of character were produced in every age. In the modern world, all these have disappeared. The only organization the modern man belongs to is the nation, and when nations contain thirty millions of persons, each one's sense of obligation to it is apt to be very slight. Public men have ceased to be responsible to anybody but "the people," and the people is so vast and busy that responsibility to it is hardly more burdensome than responsibility to Posterity, or the True, or the Good. Public opinion, too, is expressed through so many organs, and is distracted by so many objects, and is made up of so many influences, that it is all but impossible to concentrate it with any force on any one man's deeds or misdeeds. Society every day comes nearer to a promiscuous crowd, each individual of whom supplies his own tests of conduct, and his own aims in life, and lets the others go their way. The one institution which has come down to our time as an artificial check on wrong-doing or stimulus to decent behavior, is the church as the Puritans set it up. It is (if we except the Quakers) the only organization which has professed to exact more than common decency of men engaged actively in the busy work of life, and exposed daily to its trials and temptations. It took the best moral opinion of the day, and brought it to a focus, so that it was felt, not simply by society at large, but by A and B, and opposed a practical and visible obstacle to their cheating and lying and licentiousness, by making the disgrace of it prompt and tangible. There is nobody who has fairly considered the temptations of our time but must regret deeply that the process of social disintegration which has already worked so much mischief, and has even attacked the family, should have reached religious organizations, and dissolved one of the most successful. What has occurred in Brooklyn will be taken, however, as a frank confession that what so many men of the world have maintained, is true—that church-membership was no guarantee of purity of character. Perhaps it was not; perhaps it was folly for any tribunal to sit on the condition of a man's heart; but this is hardly a reason for resolving itself into a simple public meeting. It might, if it cannot exact holiness, at least exact, and successfully exact, decency of life, by judging and casting out slanderers, cheats, forgers, blackmailers, adulterers, and peddlers of worthless securities. The Stock Exchange does something of this kind, and so do most clubs; can it be that we are about to witness a formal confession by religious bodies, not only that we are all sinners, but that in democratic communities one sinner is just as bad as another, and that the difference between robbery and petulance is not worth a Christian man's notice?

ENGLAND

LONDON, November 14, 1873.

WE are sick of this miserable Ashantee war before it has begun, and our only comfort is to know that, for better or for worse, it must be over and done with before next Easter. Lord Grey has contributed two depressing letters to the literature of West Africa, written in that vein of soured self-sufficiency and dyspeptic dissatisfaction which has characterized all the speeches of that noble veteran since he found himself consigned to the wax-work exhibition of old Whigs. Lord Grey desires to prove that all our troubles on the Gold Coast have arisen from the abandonment of the policy which he initiated but could not carry out. And what do you suppose this policy was to have been? The simplest matter in the world. The Governor of the Gold Coast settlements was to have founded a free confederation of Fantee and other adjacent tribes, under the quasi-protectorate of the British

flag, and to have taught these interesting pupils to live and flourish under a parliamentary system of their own, after the model of the British Constitution. There was to be no annexation of territory, and the protectorate was to be purely Platonic; but the Fantees and the rest of our allies were to be "advised" by agents of the British Governor, and taught to behave like good Christians and good Whigs. This admirable policy of Lord Grey's is unfortunately out of date, and no longer practicable in present circumstances. The first thing we have to do now is to thrash the Ashantees into submission, and then it will be time enough to consider the question—what next? You may be sure that we are more anxious to get out of a bad business than to extend our responsibilities in that quarter. Lord Derby's opinion, that "we have quite black men enough," will probably prevail. But I doubt whether Lord Kimberley will come very well out of the debate next session. The manner in which the Dutch settlements were taken over, and the withdrawal of the West Indian regiments without having ascertained the sentiments of the Ashantee King, and almost on the eve of a threatened insurrection of the annexed population, are points which can hardly escape animadversion, however speedily and victoriously the campaign may be disposed of.

The new law appointments are not yet completed. Sir John D. Coleridge accepts the Chief-Justiceship of the Common Pleas; he will preside over that court with grace and dignity, sum up and pass sentence with unexceptionable suavity, and wear his robes like one to the manner born. Mr. Henry James becomes *per saltum* Attorney-General; and it is said that Mr. Vernon Harcourt will be offered the Solicitor-Generalship. Should he accept it, he will bring to the post qualifications which his colleague does not possess, as a scientific jurist, a professor of ecclesiastical law, and an earnest law reformer. Having abandoned the parliamentary bar for a seat in the House of Commons, he had almost given up forensic practice, and was supposed to be looking rather to a political than a professional career. His success in the House of Commons has been considerable as a vigorous and powerful speaker, and a sarcastically independent critic of ministerial blunders and shortcomings. His seat at Oxford is, I fancy, almost if not absolutely safe, though the influence of his relatives at Nuneham goes against him. Even his acceptance of a law appointment would not perhaps disqualify him for taking political office in a future administration if he should prefer the Treasury to the Judicial Bench.

Mr. Fitzjames Stephen, whom the Government are very anxious to provide with a seat in the House of Commons, and who at this moment would be Attorney-General had he succeeded the other day as a candidate for Dundee, has been delivering a couple of lectures at Edinburgh on the defects of parliamentary government—a good topic for an unsuccessful candidate, but an odd argument for a lawyer who desires to be a legislator. Mr. Stephen was admirably fitted for the post of legal member of the Legislative Council at Calcutta, and he would make a most valuable law officer in a government charged with large measures of law reform. And he is so much more than a mere practising barrister who makes Parliament a half-way house to the Bench, that all law reformers would be glad to see him on the Bench engaged in administering justice under the new system which the Judicature Act will bring into operation. He is unquestionably a man of rare intellectual force and accomplishments, with enormous capacities and an insatiable appetite for the hardest and toughest work. It would be a pity that such faculties should not be utilized for the public good in England as they were in India, and no doubt his opportunity is soon to come.

The first edition of Mill's 'Autobiography' has been rapidly exhausted. The volume is found to be as readable as a romance. It is the absolutely truthful confession of a life-experience perhaps unique, and it is discussed in many circles as keenly as the last new religion or the last social scandal. Did you ever hear the story of Mill calling upon Carlyle to tell him that the MSS. of the first volume of the 'History of the French Revolution' had been used to light the fires by a servant in Mrs. Taylor's house? Mrs. Carlyle came down into the historian's study, and found him attempting to console the philosopher, who, with his face covered by his hands, was sobbing like a child. Mrs. Carlyle, not knowing the cause of this terrible grief, ran out to the gate where Mrs. Taylor was sitting in her carriage, and said to her, "I do hope, my dear, you have not left your husband." By the bye, a reviewer of the 'Autobiography' in the *Pall Mall* thinks it his duty to raise a protest, on behalf of society, against Mill's interpretation of that exceptional and decisive episode in his career.

Among the productions of the publishing season which has just begun, perhaps the most important is one which appears to-morrow. I refer to Mr. G. H. Lewes's first volume of the great work which has occupied his thoughts and engaged his researches during the past five-and-twenty years. The title he has given to the completed work is 'Problems of Life and Mind,' but the volume now published is only the first of three or even four, and its subject is "Foundations of a Creed." You know that Mr. Lewes was one of the earliest disciples and expounders of Auguste Comte's Positive philosophy in this country, and one of those disciples who parted company with his master when the latter erected his philosophical system into a hierarchical religion. In the 'Problems of Life and Mind,' traversing the border-land of physiology and psychology, and unfolding a new rule of faith and conduct, and a new conception of man's relation to the universe from which the supernatural is altogether excluded, Mr. Lewes strikes at the root of the conventional theologies; and perhaps one ought not to wonder that Mr. Blackwood, of Edinburgh, should have been so startled by a perusal of the proof-sheet of the first chapter as to beg his friend the author to excuse him from undertaking the responsibility of issuing it in the name of a Tory and orthodox firm. Mr. Trübner, the eminent publisher of Ludgate Hill, is not so readily frightened by heterodox opinions, and accepted the book gladly without an instant's hesitation. It is written in too severely scientific a spirit and purpose to be light or popular reading; and I need hardly add that it has all the clearness and the charm of style of which the biographer of Goethe has the secret, and that its perfect courage is never disfigured by a single word that can shock the most reverent of thinkers. Heterodoxy, however, to say the truth, is gaining ground every day in this country. In proof of this, let me point to the article on Strauss in the last *Edinburgh*; a passionate defence of the faith which, in order to save the ship, throws overboard the Book of Genesis, the law, the prophets, original sin, and the necessity of baptism to salvation.

The Roman Catholic Church appears to be unwilling to leave the defence of the faith in England in the hands of heretics. Dr. Newman some years ago asked the Pope for leave to found a college at Oxford. The site was bought and the building was planned, when the Pope changed his mind, withdrew his consent, and formally disapproved the project of mixed university education in a Protestant country. Dr. Newman retired to the Oratory at Edgebaston, near Birmingham, where he still presides as head-master over an excellent school, at which many of our aristocratic and middle-class Catholic youth have received a thoroughly manly English education and a sound classical training under accomplished tutors, some of whom are seceders from the Anglican Church. And now Dr. Newman's contemporary at Oxford, Archbishop Manning, under the express sanction of Pius the Ninth, is engaged in founding and organizing a distinct Roman Catholic university, to which the great Catholic colleges of Stonyhurst and Oscott will be affiliated, and at which the young Catholic noblemen and gentlemen will be trained to compete on equal terms in after-life with the graduates of Oxford and Cambridge. Archbishop Manning, you know, is an Ultramontane and Infallibilist to the core, and consequently in the highest favor at the Vatican. This separation of the youth of the two churches in England is according to the Syllabus, which condemns mixed education and mixed marriages. A few undergraduates, belonging to old Catholic families, are to be found at Oxford, both at Balliol and at Christ Church, in spite of the interdict. The establishment of this new university is a gigantic enterprise. The cost of the buildings alone will not be inconsiderable, and think of the endowments that will be required for exhibitions, scholarships, fellowships, and the professorate. It is not to be a theological university; the tutors are to be laymen, and most of the professors also; and the discipline is not to be semi-monastic, but such as befits young men who are going into a busy world. The Principal, of course, will be a priest, and Monsignor Capel, the famous and fashionable confessor and preacher, whom Mr. Disraeli introduced by an accident into the pages of 'Lothair,' and who did actually convert the Marquis of Bute, is designated, with the usual sagacity of the Vatican in such matters, to fill a post for which it would be impossible to choose a fitter or an abler candidate. Where the professors of natural science and moral philosophy are to come from remains to be seen; dogmatic theology and canon law and church history will take care of themselves. There can be no doubt that this university is designed to play a great part in that reconversion of England which is being continually prayed for at a thousand altars, and will probably be prayed for until the arrival of Lord Macaulay's New Zealander on London Bridge.

Notes.

WE are desired to remind the sculptors of the country of the existence and aims of the Fairmount Park Art Association. Fairmount Park is, as most of our readers are aware, the park of Philadelphia, and second to no other in the United States. The association just named, of which Mr. Anthony J. Drexel is President, and whose other officers and trustees are among the leading men of the city in wealth and public spirit, has a membership of over nine hundred persons. It is now in its third year, and has for its object to "contribute a statue, or some other work of art, for the adorn-

ment of Fairmount Park, at least once in every year." Already it has set up a life-size bronze figure of "Night," and a life-size "Group of Wolves," by Kemeys, also in bronze. It would commonly prefer to employ American talent in its commissions, though it does not choose thus to restrict itself. Any artist with a design to propose will be sure of attention, and may address Mr. John Bellangee Cox, Secretary, 723 Walnut Street, Philadelphia.——The Second Biennial Report of the Commissioners of Public Charities for the State of Illinois is accompanied by three colored statigraphic charts, a kind not often met with in our social statistics. The first two show to the eye, by means of figures constructed about a central axis, the distribution by age and sex of insanity, idiocy, blindness, and deaf-mutism in Illinois and in the United States for the years 1860 and 1870. From these it appears that, both in the larger and the smaller territory, more males than females are afflicted by these diseases, except in the case of insanity, where the females slightly preponderate. On the other hand, except in the case of deaf-mutism (for 1870), the ratio of afflicted is larger in Illinois than in the country generally—at least for the ages at which insanity, idiocy, etc., are most prevalent. The third chart exhibits, by means of circles, the aggregate number of the insane, etc., of the United States, according to the last census, by sex, color, and nativity.——The utility of some of the recent modes of permanent photography is well exhibited in 'Memoranda No. 15,' just issued by the U. S. Ordnance Department. The mode employed appears to be one of the forms of the Albert-type process, though whether Mr. Bierstadt's or Mr. Rockwood's we cannot determine. Here are some hundreds of views of as many different breech-loading arms, with all their parts detached and numbered, photographed on the same page with the printed text describing the parts. The most famous American and Continental arms are thus accurately represented (though not in every case with the same clearness as in a good mechanical wood-engraving); and this feature, to say nothing of the reports of experiments, makes the volume highly valuable for comparison and reference.——Roberts Bros. will publish in this country the 'Personal Recollections, from Early Life to Old Age,' of the late Mary Somerville.——A 'Life of Samuel Johnson, D.D.,' first president of Columbia College, and not unworthy of his name, is in the press of Hurd & Houghton. The author is Dr. E. E. Beardsley.——The recent change of ownership of the *Atlantic Monthly* is not, as some have thought, equivalent to a transfer to New York, and a consequent proof of the absorbing tendency of this metropolis. The editorship and literary corps remain exactly the same; the printing will still be done in Cambridge, though henceforth at the Riverside Press; and the publishers' imprint will put Boston at the front, and New York in the second place.——Shepard & Gill announce for immediate publication 'The Little People of God, and What the Poets have said of Them,' a collection of poems about children for the lovers of children, containing a new poem by Mr. Whittier, written expressly for the volume; also, a work by Rev. Dr. Lorimer, of Boston, called 'Under the Evergreens; or, A Night with St. Nicholas.'

—*Wilkes's Spirit* accuses us of "servile plagiarism" of its long review of the Rev. W. H. H. Murray's 'Perfect Horse'—a review which we now read for the first time, and which appeared in its issue of November 1, our own appearing on the 13th. It is enough to say that our notice had been in type at least a fortnight before it was printed, and had been composed exactly as it was printed at least three weeks in advance of publication. *Wilkes's Spirit* therefore behaves abominably in saying that "the *Nation* reviewer derived all his knowledge of the book and the subject from our columns.". The coincidences pointed out were owing to the fact that the errors were obvious to any one familiar with the subject.

—One aspect of the Tweed régime in this city has not had much attention, but it is of social importance, and ought to be well understood. It was never surprising to learn that a certain set of Tweed's friends had presented him with "a rich service of plate, beautifully ornamented with the arms of the Marquis of Tweeddale." The gentlemen who subscribed on such occasions knew all about the Boss, and did not know all about the Marquis of Tweeddale; and the plate which they were wise enough in their generation to buy they ornamented in the manner that seemed to them good, and everybody was satisfied—the Boss himself for one, and, for the others, the O'Briens, Creamers, Genets, Loews, Comans, Cardozos, Watsons, Mike Nortons, Hank Smiths, Tim Campbells, Oakey Halls, Bernard Smyths, Richard O'Gormans, and Edward J. Shandleys, who got offices, and, in due return for them, bought silver services, and set on foot associations for the purpose of erecting statues to their senator and supervisor. The names that we have just quoted are all to be found in a list of the officers and trustees of the Tweed Testimonial Association—a society formed some three years since, and which had "for its object the erection of a statue of Hon. William M. Tweed in consideration of his services to the Commonwealth of New York." Nothing else was to have been expected than that such names should have been found in such places. The strange thing was to know that the Ring of which these men were part and parcel should be able to secure the tacit or open support of men of character and respectability so high that the tameness of their acquiescence in Tweed and Sweeny's rule was the wonder of their neighbors and acquaintances. But the Ring's power in its various details was not comprehended by the public. It is only lately that there has been any public mention of one of Tweed's most potent means of coercion, and but a moment's consideration of one of the little-known weapons in his armory may probably bring about a reversal of judgment in numerous cases, to the real state of which no clue has hitherto been visible. The Ring was composed not merely of jolly, champagne-drinking club-men of the Americus Club, with "hearts as big as meeting-houses," as their friends used to say, and a fondness for clapping "the boys" on the back, and going with them to chowder parties; nor of good-natured, fighting politicians; nor of easy-going fellows who, because the public treasury lay invitingly open, naturally of course put in their hands—as who wouldn't?—but meant no great harm by it, and did nobody much hurt. Whenever the occasion called for cold-blooded cruelty, they could be as remorseless and as deliberately flinty-hearted as Jonathan Wild himself. For instance, one of the mainstays of their power is now said to have been their possession of the archives of the District Attorney's office. Most families have their secrets, of one kind and another, which it is desirable, for various reasons, that the general public should not know; and in a certain amount of cases some record of such secrets, involving a son, perhaps, or a cousin, a brother, an uncle, a wife, or what not, has found its way into the office of the public prosecutor, or, if not, can be made to find its way there. Armed with this means of inducing tractability, and employing it with native brutality and callousness to decency, it is no wonder if the Ring was able to enrol among its plate-buyers, statue-projectors, voters, legislators, and nominal friends and supporters, numbers of men who detested it as bitterly as ever did its most vigorous open assailants. In the nature of the case, there is an insurmountable difficulty about determining the extent to which this particular species of tyranny was employed; but that it was a great deal employed is asserted on good authority.

—The enormous convenience of decimal fractions, in computations great and small, makes it quite proper to honor duly the inventor of them. There has been no difficulty in recognizing him in Simon Stevin, of Bruges, whose tract published in 1585 was entitled the 'Disme.' Using circles in place of parentheses, he wrote 27.847 as 27 (0) 8 (1) 4 (2) 7 (3), and read it as 27 commencements, 8 primes, 4 seconds, 7 thirds. Dispute has arisen concerning the origin of the simpler notation by means of the decimal point, whether used before the fraction alone, or as separating it from the integer. Napier's claim to their discovery (as if the invention of logarithms were not glory enough for him) has been contested by De Morgan; but Mr. Glaisher, in a paper read before the mathematical section of the British Association, and since printed in *Nature* (Oct. 16), seems to establish his priority in introducing the decimal point into arithmetic. The full modern use of it, it is true, was first exemplified in a posthumous work of Napier's called 'Mirifici Logarithmorum Canonis Constructio,' edited by his son in 1619, where the formal definition of the decimal separator is given and illustrated, and the point subsequently used in operations as we now use it. Briggs, who died in 1631, constantly used an underscored line to distinguish the decimal part of a number; and Oughtred, one of his followers, improved on this by using, together with the line, a vertical bar to mark the separation still more clearly. "On the whole, therefore," says Mr. Glaisher, "it appears that both Napier and Briggs saw that a mere separation to distinguish integers from decimals was quite sufficient, without any exponential marks being attached to the latter; but that Napier used a simple point for the purpose, while Briggs employed a bent or curved line, for which in print he substituted merely a horizontal bar subscript to the decimals." It is further pointed out, as "not a little remarkable, that the first separator used (or, more strictly, one of the first two) should have been that which was finally adopted after a long period of disuse. All through the seventeenth century exponential marks seem to have been common."

—We recently called attention to a valuable article in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, by A. Geffroy, upon the Germanic Conquest. Two other articles, of somewhat earlier date in the same periodical, will be of interest to those who follow the discussions upon the history of landed property. In the *Revue* of May 15, Prof. Fustel de Coulanges has one of his brilliant and instructive articles on "Landed Property in the Roman Empire and the Merovingian Period." He develops with great clearness the position which landed property held in Roman society, and his sketch of the colonial system is striking and novel. The discussion of the beneficiary system in that time is able, but he makes no reference to the great work of Roth upon

this subject, and does not seem even to be acquainted with it. This portion of the article is therefore of less value, for while his facts are not inconsistent with Roth's views, his theories are; and certainly these views must be either accepted or disproved by any one who undertakes to write upon the subject. In the *Revue* for June 1 is an article by Emile Laveleye upon the Allmends of Switzerland, a topic touched upon, but not exhausted, by Von Maurer in his works on the *Mark* system. M. Laveleye has done for the French what Mr. Maine has done for the English in popularizing the results of Von Maurer's investigations. Last year he had a series of articles in the *Revue* containing probably as good a general sketch of the subject as exists. The present article is in continuation of this subject; but the writer was especially drawn to it by practical considerations. In the well-balanced, conservative democracy of the Swiss cantons, he sees a possible remedy for the destructive shapes that radical democracy is prone to in more artificial communities. The early migrations of the Slavonic populations, which have been the subject of much controversy, have been ably treated in a treatise by Rösler, whose 'Romanische Studien' we noticed last year. He appears to have proved that, while their movement westward from their original seats on the Dnieper took place as early as the fifth century, they did not cross the Danube until the middle of the seventh; up to this time, the Greek Empire maintained that line. Among other points, he successfully attacks the alleged Slavonic origin of the Emperor Justinian.

—A curious collection, illustrating the Franco-German war from a literary and artistic point of view, is now to be seen in the Royal Library of Berlin. It was the accumulation of the Emperor, through gifts and purchases, and contains every accessible production of the press, of the pencil, and of photography, from German, French, English, American, and Italian sources, that was called forth by the war, or that can serve in any way to represent its passing phases. The Emperor has made over the collection to the Library, and, before being deposited in its permanent alcoves, it has been placed on exhibition as a whole in the main hall. First of all is the library of the war—rows upon rows of volumes upon its general history; upon the special history of the army; the history and achievements of particular regiments, battalions, detachments, corps; the official reports of battles and sieges; popular descriptions of the same, as, for instance, the war correspondence of the London *Daily News;* volumes upon Elsass and Lothringen; upon the sanitary work in the army; upon transportation, railways, signals, ballooning, telegraphy, and the chaplaincy. Then come poems and romances founded upon the war, biographical sketches, speeches, addresses, documents, collections of telegrams, bulletins, proclamations, etc. Next in order are complete sets of illustrated journals, conspicuous among which are *Harper's Weekly* and the London *Illustrated News.* Another department consists of maps, plans, pictures, photographs, etc., exhibiting all the phases of army-life—the march, the bivouac, the camp, the siege, the battle—and under these are innumerable photographs of persons, incidents, movements, which some occasion had made prominent. The most interesting feature of this collection, and one which will be of special value to the historian, is the French literature of the siege and of the Commune; the journals, the pamphlets, the sketches, the photographs, the caricatures, representing every phase of Parisian life during those memorable months, and giving a view of French politics and of French character even more vivid and more complete than that revealed by Bazaine's trial. The Emperor of Germany has been at much pains to collect all the caricatures of himself, and the rabid and even blasphemous diatribes upon himself and his army, in which French wit and hatred found vent during the war; and these he now deposits in the literary archives of Berlin as an episode of his reign. This whole collection forms a library of itself, and increases the demand for a commodious fire-proof library building, to contain the treasures now crowded into a wing of the royal palace at Berlin.

GEORGE GROTE.*

AUSTIN, Grote, and John Mill will live in literature as the representatives of the philosophic radicals. They all possessed the marked peculiarities and the equally remarkable virtues of their school. They were all strict utilitarians, strict sensationalists in philosophy, and political economists in politics. Their radicalism was not the offspring of ardent sentiment, nor grounded on any enthusiastic belief in the people, but was the result of their general philosophical theories. They all, therefore, consistently enough, in youth were the assailants of the established order of things, whilst advocating reforms, such as the amendments of the poor law, which were far more unpopular than the abuses which they assailed; and in advanced life showed in some respects a tendency towards a kind of conservatism, without sharing any of the admiration for the past or satisfaction with the present state of society which are ordinary characteristics of Tories. They all, again, had a certain similarity in the tone or color of their minds. Though avowed utilitarians, and, therefore, making happiness the end of life, they each betray a vein of feeling which has more similarity to stoicism than to the popular conception of epicureanism. They all, further, exhibited an amount and kind of pure disinterested public spirit which had very rarely been displayed by any school of philosophers or politicians. Each of them, further, extended the doctrines of their philosophy with marked success to different fields of thought. Austin revived the study of jurisprudence, Grote gave new life to the investigation of ancient history, and Mill applied to logic and political economy the doctrines which he had learnt from Bentham and his father. But though no three men of equal ability could easily be found who possessed more traits in common, it would be difficult to exaggerate the essential differences of their personal character; and it is very curious to note, now that in the case of two of them, at least, their private life has been laid more or less before the public, the way in which these differences told on the whole of their careers. If an observer looks at the intellectual results of their efforts, he will find it impossible to deny that they each of them achieved as great a success in promoting the spread of the doctrines in which they believed as any theorist can hope to achieve. But, except in the case of Grote, it is hard to look upon their lives as successful in the attainment of happiness. Austin lived under a sense of having failed to produce any effect on the world at all in proportion to the greatness and originality of his powers; was tormented through life by indignation at the folly and perversity "of the great confederacy of fools" in general, and of English lawyers in particular; and died too soon to see the brilliant result of his labors. Mill's life, as painted in his autobiography, was certainly not such an intellectual tragedy as that of Austin, and he must have died with the well-warranted conviction that he had not lived in vain. But his life has its side of sadness. His retirement to Avignon looks like an exile, and it is difficult not to feel that an incongruity between the man's dispositions and his philosophic creed made his existence at times rather a struggle than a triumph. The strongest impression left, on the other hand, by the annals of Grote's life is its completeness and absolute success as far as regarded the attainment of its objects. In the records of his early youth you could trace feelings of discontent or dissatisfaction. But on the death of his father he "found himself set free to act whatever part his choice might dictate," and, as his wife remarks, "in the mature period of his life George Grote followed the dictates of his own self-knowledge, and they directed him wisely." This sentence might, in fact, be the motto of his biography, for it strikes its key-note. The marked individual feature by which Grote is distinguished is the honesty, vigor, and firmness with which he followed the dictates of his own self-knowledge. It is impossible not to fancy that he derived something from his German ancestors. In everything he did, and still more what he avoided doing; in his slow, elaborate self-culture, in his utter absence of intellectual hurry, in his studious tastes, in his passion for music, as well as in his firm, tenacious, and, it must be added, intolerant adherence to opinions once adopted, it is at any rate easy to imagine that you trace the qualities of his grandfather from Bremen. His calmness and complete self-knowledge stand in curious contrast with some of the characteristics of his celebrated friends. No man had a more stern contempt for doctrines or views at variance with his principles; but one can hardly conceive that Grote could under any circumstances have let his life be fretted away by indignation at the folly of mankind. No man, again, strove to make his life conform more sincerely to certain principles, but it is hard to believe that Grote ever went through the sort of moral and intellectual crises which marked parts of Mill's career. His calmness and self-knowledge are the good side of some deficiencies in his character; for both Austin and Mill, if they had not all the strength of Grote, certainly were capable of entering into feelings which it may be suspected could hardly be realized by a man of his solid, quiet German temperament. But when the merits and defects of a character like Grote's are carefully weighed, few readers of his life will feel inclined to deny an abundant tribute of admiration to the man whose self-knowledge guided him with such singular wisdom.

In nothing does Grote's personal character appear to greater advantage than in his political career, though this was in one sense the least successful part of his life. He had, certainly, many qualifications for playing a distinguished part in politics. Though known to the world in 1832 as an extreme radical, he possessed at bottom a moderation of sentiment which is essential to a statesman. Any one who, in 1873, reads Grote's address to the electors of London will be surprised, not at the violence, but at the calmness of its tone. The address does not contain the slightest appeal to popular passion or, it may be

* 'The Personal Life of George Grote. Compiled from family documents, private memoranda, and original letters to and from various friends. By Mrs. Grote.' London: John Murray.

added, to popular sympathy. All the reforms which the radical banker advocates are of a matter-of-fact and somewhat prosaic character. He urges the importance of removing taxes on knowledge; of lightening taxation; of exchanging the corn-laws for a moderate fixed duty; of regulating the constitution of the East India Company; and of simplifying the law. He issues a programme which might have been, and perhaps was, written in the study of James Mill, and which is as dry and precise as the writings of the philosopher whose influence is traceable in every line of the address, just as it is traceable in every one of George Grote's opinions. Nor was he deficient in political foresight. Every one of the reforms advocated in his address have now been carried, and various instances occur in his biography of the soundness of his judgment about questions which could be decided by reference to the rules of plain common-sense. Thus, though a close friend of De Tocqueville, he pronounced, on the very day after the *coup d'état*, a judgment on De Tocqueville and his associates which is worth quoting for its sagacity and its application to the present condition of France:

"They have been helping, and even outrunning, the President for the last two years in crushing everything like public liberty and popular force. They have done this without seeing that the popular force formed the only security to themselves as against him, and that, as soon as they ceased to have a spirited and free-spoken political public under them, they were at the mercy of the executive power, even for their own personal safety. This is a terrible lesson which they are now taught when it is too late. Tocqueville and all the rest of them, in their intense fear and hatred of the Republican party, have been just acting in such a way as to prepare France for that military despotism which now menaces the country."

Mr. Grote also was, if not the orator which he appeared to his wife, certainly an efficient speaker. He was, moreover, well versed in business, and would have made a far more capable Chancellor of the Exchequer than any of the gentlemen whose financial blunders brought discredit on the Reform government. Mr. Grote would, in short, it may be conjectured, have displayed in office very much the qualities which distinguished his most intimate friend, Sir George Cornewall Lewis. In spite, however, of his possessing many of the characteristics which go to make up a statesman, Grote, in common with the party with which he associated, failed in achieving political success. The general causes of this failure are traced in Mill's 'Autobiography,' and do not here concern us. The virtues of the philosophical radicals hindered them quite as much as their defects, but it were vain to deny in the case either of Grote or of his friends the existence of faults almost fatal to the attainment of success in statesmanship. The weak, though no less than the strong, point of the whole party was that they were *doctrinaires*. They cared far more for their "doctrine" than for the feelings of the men to whom it was to be applied. It is manifest that Grote, at least, never possessed the talent of men such as Cobden or Bright for enlisting popular sympathy in favor of the reforms of which he was an advocate. The immense efforts he devoted to the introduction of the ballot are a proof that he attached an excessive importance to an almost mechanical improvement which, to a man of wider sympathies, could hardly have appeared a matter of supreme consequence. Nor did he or his associates exhibit, for the most part, any capacity for entering into a great number of widespread ideas which, sound or unsound, must be taken into account by a great statesman. The philosophical radicals never anticipated the influence which would be exercised by the principle of nationality. The so-called principle is in reality a sentiment, and could hardly be understood by men trained up to think that Mill's 'Analysis of the Phenomena of the Human Mind' gave an exhaustive description of human nature. The only trace we can see in Grote's biography of his interest in movements founded on this principle is that "he devoured the narratives of Garibaldi's exploits with eagerness." But even in this case he was clearly not much inclined to trust to a movement grounded on feelings for the improvement of mankind. "His practised intellect prompted him to entertain a distrust of any wholesome regeneration of the Italian people by political efforts of this kind, as long as the ascendancy of the Pope should continue." In this instance his intellectual coolness showed him dangers to Italian freedom which ardent Liberals have been too much inclined to overlook, as it also may have led him to reflect that the so-called principle of nationality might come into conflict with principles on which depend the existence both of freedom and good government. But the same disposition to underrate considerations of sentiment certainly blinded him with regard to the true nature of "secession." In 1862, he is struck with "the unreasonable and insane language of the Americans against England," and thinks that in dealing with America "the English Government and public, generally so meddlesome, have displayed most prudently commendable forbearance in spite of great temptations to the contrary." Nor did he ever feel that the South were bent on setting up a government opposed to all his most cherished convictions. It may be suggested, but we believe without ground, that Grote's later sentiments displayed a conservatism of advancing age. His views certainly underwent modifications, but he seems to have spoken the simple truth when he said in 1869, "The opinions of the so-called Radicals of the present day do not accurately represent those which I and my friends held thirty years ago, and which I continue to hold substantively." His political opinions were the result of certain general theories, and scarcely changed throughout his life; but he had never at any time strongly sympathized with popular sentiments. He was always a political theorist rather than a practical politician, and possessed neither the vices nor the virtues which are essential for pre-eminent success in parliamentary contests. He himself perceived that this was so. In 1841, he retired voluntarily from Parliament, and never attempted again to enter it. When, towards the end of his life, he was offered a peerage, he declined a position for which he wisely thought himself in some respects fitted, simply because he felt it would interfere with the discharge of other public duties. His retirement from politics was in itself a rare proof of calmness and self-knowledge. What, however, is even more remarkable is, that he never seems either to have expressed or to have felt any of that discontent or vexation which able men are apt enough to express when they are conscious of anything like failure. His interest in politics, as is shown by his essay on the affairs of Switzerland, and by his excitement at the revival of French liberty in 1869, remained as lively as ever. He withdrew from public life simply because he felt that his real vocation was rather that of a student than a statesman.

Of Grote's character as an historian this is scarcely the place to speak. An opportunity will occur of estimating his great services to the study of history when the more "qualified expositor" to whom Mrs. Grote refers, publishes an estimate of Grote's "intellectual achievements." The points to be here noticed with regard to his writings are noted simply because of their bearing on his personal character, and especially on that self-knowledge which we have singled out as its marked feature. The composition of the history was no idea taken up simply to console himself for a retreat from public life. The notion of writing the history of Greece may have been, as Mrs. Grote believes, suggested by herself in 1823, but long before that date he had become interested in the studies of which that work was the outcome. Nothing is more remarkable in the whole of the biography than the notes of Grote's elaborate and systematic studies when quite a young man and occupied in business. The following record of the reading of a day is a mere example of the continuous employment of Grote's time:

"Rose at 9; breakfasted and continued my thoughts of the evening preceding; Mr. Bury brought me Ricardo's pamphlets this day; dined at half-past five; played on the bass; read some more of Ricardo; his reply to Mr. Bosanquet, which is most able; locked up and drank tea, then spent the evening in going on with my thoughts, looking at some parts of Xenophon and Aristotle."

This specimen is really a sample of the whole of Grote's life, from youth to age. It was an active life combined with an existence of constant study. In this passage may be seen that combination of interest, both in modern political philosophy and in Greek literature, which gives a peculiar character to Grote's historical works. This and like passages also show that Grote, in giving up active politics, simply returned to the career which he had deliberately marked out for himself. The quotation, moreover, suggests another matter which ought fully to be considered in order to attain a full understanding both of his literary and public activity. Grote was, it is true, a student, but mere study, or the mere acquisition of knowledge, was never the aim of his life. He remained, from the time, at any rate, of his acquaintance with James Mill to the day of his death, a zealous Benthamite, anxious to propagate the tenets of his school. Whether writing history or writing metaphysics, Grote was equally bent on the service of mankind. He was, of course, a man of far too much grasp of intellect to indulge in the weakness of writing the history of a great country with a view to enforce a moral. But he certainly looked upon the exposition of sound views of history, and especially of sound historical criticism, as a means of educating the world in political and philosophical truth. The fact that Grote was throughout life bent on aiding the triumph of the truths or dogmas in which he firmly believed, explains several features of his life which perplex those who look upon him simply as an ardent student, and a man of great kindliness of heart, and unrivalled courtesy. It explains, for instance, the readiness with which he passed from the political annals of Greece to works on the doctrines of Plato and Aristotle. His latest writings will not add greatly to his fame, and many critics will be inclined to blame him for passing from historical studies to metaphysical speculations. The world probably lost something from his not devoting his later years to the elucidation of some portion of history. But the course Grote took was, at any rate, perfectly natural. He had always entertained an interest in history, chiefly because of the light which history appeared to him to throw upon moral and metaphysical speculations; and when he began to treat of the Greek philosophers, he was not

deserting his main field of study, but was exploring precisely that portion of it which seemed to him to require by far the most careful investigation. Many admirers of the historian, again, deplored his conduct with regard to the professorship of moral philosophy at the London University. We are not concerned either to defend or assail the part which he took in giving that professorship to an unknown man with whose views he agreed, instead of to a writer of high reputation, whose philosophical doctrines seemed to Mr. Grote to be grounded on error. All we would here point out is that his conduct, right or wrong, was in strict conformity with the principles of his life. Neither he nor any of his school were persons by any means tolerant of hostile doctrines. Grote's most ardent desire was to spread what he held to be the truth, and he did not entertain the least doubt that the truth meant in substance the doctrines of Bentham and James Mill. One of the anxieties of his later life was to fill professorships with teachers who would teach sound doctrine:

"I have," he writes to Mill, "gone through nearly as much anxiety of mind as I did when Bain's appointment was lying *ἐν γόνασιν* of Sir George Lewis. If Robertson proves worthy and effective (as everything leads me to hope), the gain for inductive and scientific mental philosophy will be most important. I am sorry to say that the younger generation—even those trained in University College and the University of London—appear to me to be of a cast essentially feebler and more prejudiced. It is melancholy to observe this when one has been laboring to improve education."

Part of Mill's reply is as follows:

"We must not forget that your experience and mine of the older set includes the very best of them—those who were formed under the Benthamic influence. There was in general Kimmerian darkness then beyond the region to which that influence directly or indirectly extended."

The letter and the answer mark out the exact position which Grote and his friends occupied in their own eyes. They were the survivors and representatives of heroes who had struggled in the battle between light and darkness. Tolerance was scarcely the virtue to be expected from soldiers engaged in such a contest. If they had some of the defects which a life of fighting engenders, they had also its appropriate virtues. Grote not only preserved his singular calmness of disposition, but combined with his equanimity an untiring energy, in which we suspect he had some reason for thinking the young generation deficient. To the very last days of his life he was devoted to the service of the London University. It might almost with truth be said that he shortened his existence through his labors on its behalf. His zeal for the public good becomes in a sense the more noble because his moderation of mind led him in his later years to be less hopeful of the effect of reforms than he had been in youth. When at last the measure to which he had devoted the exertions of his manhood was carried, he confessed that his belief in the ballot was less ardent than it had been:

"I have come to perceive that the choice between one man and another among the English people signifies less than I used formerly to think it did. Take a section of society, cut it through from top to bottom, and examine the composition of the successive layers; they are much alike throughout the scale. The opinions all based upon the same social instincts, never upon a clear or enlightened perception of *general* interest. . . . I believe, therefore, that the actual composition of Parliament represents with tolerable fidelity the British people; and it never will be better than it is, for a House of Commons cannot afford to be above its constituents in intelligence, knowledge, or patriotism."

A careful study, in short, of Grote's uniform and consistent career, both as a historian and as a public man, will make readers see something much more than a trite metaphor in the expressions of a friend, who told Mrs. Grote that Grote's intellectual course "always seems to me to resemble the progress of a planet through the firmament, never halting, never deviating from its onward course, steadfast to its appointed purpose." And any one who reflects on the inestimable value to a country of men upon whose firmness and honesty friends and opponents can alike depend, will feel the force, both as a compliment to Grote, and as a reflection on French society, of this passage contained in a letter from Mrs. Austin, written from Paris just before the Revolution of 1848: "There are no *Mr. Grotes* here; take my word for that; and, least of all, among the so-called Liberals."

RECENT NOVELS.*

'THE Fair God,' by General Lew. Wallace, is an historical novel which has for its subject the first part of the conquest of Mexico by the Spaniards. The story is assumed to have been written in Spanish by Fernando de Alva, a man of the conquered nation, who was unwilling to have the glories of his country forgotten, and of whose long-lost manuscript 'The Fair God' is presented as a translation. It pictures to us the Aztec civilization just before the arrival of the Spaniards, and the fierce conflict between the two races—a conflict which was made easier to the European by means of the widely spread superstition that Queztal', "the fair god," the founder of all their greatness, whom they had banished, was to return from the East at about the time that Cortez and his men landed. Of this most dramatic chapter of modern history, the account is given from the Mexican side; we have put before us the intrigues of the different leaders, the life in the court, and also various love-affairs. As suits the subject, the book is extremely bloodthirsty. It is full of accounts of slaughterous fights, which are told with much enthusiasm.

That a great deal of pains has been expended on the setting of the story is evident—Mexican palaces are described at great length, and a general familiarity is shown with the life of that early time; and so far we may speak well of 'The Fair God.' As to the men and women who figure in its pages we shall not say so much. In fact, they do not impress us as remarkably living people, despite the quantity of killing they require. It is a maxim useful to remember, that an anachronism is the most pardonable error of which the historical novelist can be guilty. All the preparation in the world, accuracy in every detail, do no more towards making such novels good than real rain-water does towards making "King Lear" impressive. The first condition is to have men and women in the book; having got them, of course, the more gracefully and accurately they can be clad, the better it is. In the novels of the great originator of this sort of fiction, the armor of the knights, and the "by-'r-ladys" of their men-at-arms, the continual falling of portcullises, and the riding of palfreys, while it is the part that is most attractive in our salad days, all seems to the aged reader a good deal like a collection of theatrical properties, and yet he does not fail still to enjoy and be refreshed by the human nature which makes these romances so delightful. In 'The Fair God,' we must say we do not find much of this charm. The conversations, for instance, remind one of the somewhat sophistical tone of those noble dramas in which scene-painting and much dancing take the place of true dramatic effects. In short, the work is all done from the outside, and the result is a clever book which falls far short of being a good novel.

'The Son of the Organ-Grinder,' by Mme. Marie Sophie Schwartz, is a newly translated novel of rather more interest than most of her stories, so far as they are known to us. In the construction of the plot it is very similar to many German novels, while in the fluency with which it was apparently written we note a trait which distinguishes so many women who write novels; and there really is not much else to be said about it. To the side remarks of the author we must, however, award the merit of being perfectly true. For instance, no one will refuse assent to this exclamatory statement: "What a revolution in a person's life is produced through being suddenly changed from an itinerant child to the owner of a considerable fortune!" Nor is there here room for scepticism: "What a fever one is in when he has to pass his examination and does not yet know the result of it!" And this is of universal acceptance: "How strange life is! How completely ignorant we are of what the next moment may bring forth! We stop outside a door, we lay our hand on the knob, and we do not know until the door opens what we shall find within." The book is well-intentioned, but, as the intelligent reader already may have suspected, dull.

Dull, however, is not the word of blame which is demanded by 'Nina's Atonement'—a volume which takes its name from the first sketch, wherein a most dismal and appalling tragedy is told. It would seem that Nina, whose other name is Dalzell, is engaged to Ralph Wyverne, and that Ralph has a black-hearted friend, Martindale by name, who also falls in love with Nina, and who resolves to secure her hand. Being by profession a chemist, he expects to find it easy to effect this purpose. His method is the simple one of luring young Wyverne into a room filled with the fumes of a poisonous gas. But what is the result? The person who enters the fatal chamber is not Ralph; it is, on the contrary, Nina, who is instantly killed. Ralph, however, is balked of his vengeance; for, as it seems, Martindale had

"A glitter in his eye as ominous as the lurid glow that had come to Ralph's.

"'Do you think I will ask your leave when to die?' he demanded. Then he put his hand to his lips.

* 'The Fair God; or, The Last of the 'Tzins. A Tale of the Conquest of Mexico. By Lew. Wallace.' Boston: James R. Osgood & Co. 1873.
'The Son of the Organ-Grinder. By Marie Sophie Schwartz. Translated from the Swedish by Selma Borg and Marie A. Brown.' Philadelphia: Porter & Coates. 1873.
'Nina's Atonement, and Other Stories. By Christian Reid, author of 'Morton House,' 'Valerie Aylmer,' etc., etc. With Illustrations.' New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1873.
'Crooked Places. A Story of Struggles and Hopes. By Edward Garrett.' New York: Dodd & Mead. 1873.
'The Dead Marquise. A Romance. By Leonard Kip, author of 'Ænone,' etc.' New York: G. P. Putnam & Sons. 1873.
'Athol. By M. R. H.' New York: Pott, Young & Co. 1873.
'Brave Hearts. An American Novel. By Robertson Gray. Illustrated by Darley, Beard, Stephens, and Kendrick.' New York: J. B. Ford & Co. 1873.
'Miss Dorothy's Charge. A Novel. By Frank Lee Benedict.' New York: Harper & Bros. 1873.
'Blanche Seymour. A Novel. By the Author of 'Erma's Engagement.'' Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1873.

"Ralph made one quick, tiger-like spring forward; but he was too late. In the throat on which his fingers closed, the death-rattle had already sounded. With one mocking smile, the soul fled. That faint, subtle odor of bitter almonds which betrays the swiftest and deadliest poison known to chemistry, was all that remained to the baffled avenger"—

certainly but a slight consolation. The smell of prussic acid, at no time very gratifying, must under the circumstances have been simply annoying.

The other stories in the same volume are very much of the same sort, with beautiful heroines, large-eyed, mysterious heroes, and often with tragic terminations of the various love-affairs. The names of the characters indicate a nature which could only be at home in "manors" and the like. Indeed, we do not know why Helen Trefalden, Louise Cheriton, Powell Vardray, and Vance Lorimer, etc., should not have a large and luxuriously upholstered steamboat cabin. If our author could prune her imaginations into something resembling real life, she would do a good deed for herself, for she by no means lacks a certain quantity of merit.

Far different from such gilded scenes is Edward Garrett's 'Crooked Places.' This "story begins more than fifty years ago; and it commences in a quiet, dark room, with a young woman sitting at a window." It treats of the sufferings of the poverty-stricken, and of the consolations which right-doing brings them. The novel is far from being exciting; it is rather a meritorious Sunday-school story, a trifle more interesting than many of its congeners, because the veil of fiction is less transparent than is often the case in such stories.

'The Dead Marquise' is the ill-chosen title of a tale of the French Revolution. It is in reality a pleasing little love-story, prettily told, which has the advantage of escaping from being horrible. With that terrible background one has to be careful to keep tragedy from being too prominent, and this Mr. Kip has effected.

'Athol' is a production of our own great country. The heroine, Atholinda Derwent, sings her love for John Graeme, her cousin and guardian, after a fashion which is by no means rare in works of fiction. This is the sort of man John Graeme was:

"He was standing on the hearth-rug, in front of the grate fire, his riding-gloves and whip in hand, looking down at me in his grand Romanesque way, with his black hair tossed carelessly back—his heavy riding-cloak drooping from his broad shoulders. It gave me a great sense of vitality and vigor but to look at him, and by some mesmeric agency he imparted some of his life and strength to me when he was near."

John is older than Atholinda of course, and has a familiar habit of clasping her to his bosom, of smiling "his sarcastic smile, mocking and shimmering as sheet-lightning." This is when he is talking on "serious" matters. In short, there is no one who reads novels who has not become well acquainted with John in some of his forms, in any one of which he need only lean on a mantel-piece to fascinate completely the Atholindas who write novels. This story is no sillier than the others of the same kind, nor is it in any respect better. The plot is rather complicated, but the main point is the love-affair between the hero and the heroine, and there is in this so much "mesmerism," so many "fond kisses," such a getting engaged to the wrong man, that, on the whole, "M. R. H." had really better stop it. Her book is not too silly to do mischief, and "M. R. H.," like the rest of us, owes something to society.

'Brave Hearts' is another American novel of the present time, which gives us an account of life in the gold mines, with a judicious sprinkling of civilized society. We have set before us the gambler, without whom no true picture of this country could be drawn, and over and above such just measure we have the defaulting cashier—a delicate touch of realism on the part of the author for which we ought to thank him. The principal interest of the story lies in the way in which a little experience of life is shown to drive certain philosophic platitudes from the head of a young man just out of college. He goes to the West and falls in love with a young woman, meets with various adventures which are well told, and at last marries the girl of his heart—several of his neighbors and friends, whose fate is more or less bound up with his, also getting themselves married at about the same time. The best part of the book, we need hardly say, is that which gives us sketches of Western life, but certainly the "civilizers," as Walt Whitman calls them, would seem to be not extravagantly interesting people. Young people, however, will find this a tolerably entertaining novel; though their elders, whose taste in the matter of love-making demands something more complicated than propinquity, will not be so much entranced. As to the illustrations, it would be hard to say whether it is Mr. Stephens, Mr. Darley, Mr. Beard, or Mr. Kendrick who has done himself least credit.

A more serious attempt at novel-writing is Mr. Benedict's 'Miss Dorothy's Charge.' This gentleman is the author of 'Miss Van Kortland' and 'My Daughter Elinor,' as well as of several magazine stories and sketches. What is noticeable in 'Miss Dorothy's Charge' is its curious resemblance to ordinary novels, and its lack of any peculiar quality of its own. Nowhere is there a trace of plagiaristic intent, nor is there any page to which we could point as an imitation of any particular writer, but there is in it a general resemblance to hosts of novels rather than any especially lifelike trait in the characters or incident in the story. The heroine is the illegitimate child of an evil-doer, who, after breaking many hearts, marries for money a woman who avenges her sex most nobly. The heroine meanwhile is adopted by the rake's sister, Miss Dorothy, and under her care she grows up. Then she visits Europe with her father's legitimate daughter, and they both go into society with greater satisfaction than they could have done in their own land. They have various love-affairs, there is the disclosure that after all the first child was born in wedlock, but she throws the proof in the fire to save the fame of her friend, and they are both happily married. As may be seen, the plot of the story bears no strong resemblance to life, nor if it did would it have much effect in making the story appear natural. Everywhere it runs along at about the same degree of excellence, but everywhere it falls short of being really good; yet it escapes so many of the faults which disfigure works of fiction that it certainly should escape condemnation, and this negative merit it is that demands that 'Miss Dorothy's Charge' should be judged by higher standards. When this is done, the book appears to be an excellent imitation—written in good taste and with an intelligent appreciation of what goes to making life agreeable—of better novels, which have been studied from life itself, and not from the pages of other writers. As novels go, this one is fairly readable; we only regret that Mr. Benedict has not improved on his earlier work, and made it still more so.

A thoroughly readable novel, and one which may well be compared with Mr. Benedict's, is 'Blanche Seymour,' a reprint from the English edition. This is by no means a story which will be read and praised when Cervantes is forgotten; it is simply the story of the love of a young and charming girl for a man who was unworthy of her. It is not made a pretext for tragic denunciations of heartless men, nor of pathetic appeals for sympathy for neglected maidens; it is nothing more than a picture of a not uncommon life, which everywhere is agreeably set before us. The author's great merit consists in the commendable naturalness of all her characters. She is, too, very amusing with her side-remarks and the feminine cleverness which is to be seen on every page. In fact, except for the small tragic pang at the end of the book, which occurs at what is perhaps the only solution of the complication of the plot, we hardly know a more entertaining little volume than this.

CHILDRENS' HOLIDAY BOOKS.—II.*

THAT industrious statesman, Mr. Knatchbull-Hugessen, has another thick volume of stories ready for this Christmas, called 'Queer Folk.' As it resembles his previous ones in size, so it appears to do in merit. The 'Warlock of Coombe,' which contains a very animated battle-scene, will probably be as popular as anything he has written; and in none of the seven stories does there seem to be any falling off in inventive capacity. Our opinion as to his demerits, expressed very fully last year, remains unchanged; although the offences against decent and gentle manners seem to be fewer in number this time, they are unabated in quality. As, for example, in a scene supposed to be pathetic, where an old farmer discovers his only daughter to have been carried off by bandits, this sentence occurs: "Then he threw himself down on the ground in utter despair, which, as the spot he selected for this performance was the middle of the cow-yard, improved his personal appearance no more than it removed the cause of his sorrow." And this is followed by a pious appeal for "strength from Him," etc. If that is "humorous," we suppose this is too: Three beautiful girls are "condemned to be stripped and washed in hog-wash before all the court-ladies." Truly, this seems strong meat, even for British babes.

Mr. Knatchbull-Hugessen appears to have a rival in the field this year in the person of Mr. John Francis Maguire, M.P., who offers the child-public 'Young Prince Marigold, and Other Fairy Stories.' The one which gives its name to the book is the shortest and for the youngest readers, the remaining two being much more important. Of the innumerable animal biographies and autobiographies it has been our lot to read, Mr. Maguire's "Autobiography of a Cat" has about the most in it. These stories are not likely to reach the popularity they deserve among the young folks, on account of the "big words"—the style of language being entirely beyond most small readers. Grown-up people are evidently included in the audience, and much of the dry

* 'Queer Folk. Seven Stories by the Rt. Hon. E. H. Knatchbull-Hugessen, M.P., author of 'Stories for my Children,' 'Crackers for Christmas,' etc. Illustrated by S. E. Waller.' London and New York: Macmillan & Co.

'Young Prince Marigold, and Other Fairy Stories. By John Francis Maguire, M.P. Illustrated by S. E. Waller.' London and New York: Macmillan & Co.

'Child-World. By Gail Hamilton.' Boston: Shepard & Gill.

'The Three Judges: Story of the Men who beheaded their King. By Israel P. Warren. With an introduction by Rev. Leonard Bacon, D.D.' New York: Warren & Wyman.

humor that must be wholly lost on the children will be relished by the parents. It is a little difficult to do justice to these traits by single quotations, as they are mostly exhibited in the development of the characters. The king and queen of the monkeys are rather elaborately sketched; he is old, dignified, and uxorious, she young, handsome, and "skittish." "I regret to say she was too much in the habit of making over his royal highness [the baby prince] on his majesty, with whose public duties, more particularly those of ceremonial, the office of dry-nurse seriously interfered;" his "domestic clouds confirmed his tendency towards philosophy." "Jack Tubbs" is quite the most delightful fairy story we have come across in a long while. It will be impossible for most boys who love animals and sea-going stories as well as magic not to be pleased with Jack and his adventures. Moreover, Jack is humane and not brutal. The whole spirit of the book is good, even if a trifle ironical. Careful parents and guardians will want to go through it first to scratch out the epithets "nasty dirty," "nasty wicked," "nasty filthy," where they frequently occur.

'Child-World' deserves especial attention as being a thoroughly characteristic specimen of one kind of modern American "juvenile." The class of which it is a type is highly popular, widely sold, and without doubt is a potent factor in the moulding of mind at the tender age when impressions are strongest and even trifles are not trivial. The origin of this kind of writing is perhaps owing, as much as anything else, to the liberal reaction from the orthodox Sunday-school books—those stories of painfully and impossibly good and bad children, of which Mark Twain's 'Jacob Blivens' is a coarse but deserved satire. To depict children as they are in actual life was the natural and proper change from this sort of thing, and the tendency from that time on has been to make the pictures of them more and more realistic. That writer for the young who can present the most unmitigated photograph of any sort of boys and girls is the one whose works generally sell the best. Miss Edgeworth is out of date; her stories are not "truthful"—not "accurate representations of daily life as we see it." *Simple Susan* is unnaturally filial and unselfish, and *Francisco* unnaturally honest and industrious. Can any good result to children from teachings founded on such presentations of false character? This question is generally answered by the modern "juvenile" writer with a hearty negative—if not after process of thought, at least after process of imitation of the popular style. Gail Hamilton now enters this field, and, with her usual cleverness, "goes you one better" than the last veritable historian. To paint the "child-world" as it is, is plainly her intention—or, to be more exact, to paint the "child-world" as she has seen it. So we have precocity of language, a good deal of funny "baby-talk," some slang, a touch of swearing, plenty of natural naughtiness, little goodness but that resulting from natural impulses; docile papas and mammas who either rule by love or let ruling alone altogether; grown-up folks who use very big words and draw out funny retorts from the young ones. Nobody is unpleasantly disciplined; everybody is "smart," especially the writer. Her children can all "see through a millstone"; explanations or circumstantial descriptions are superfluous with the sharp little Yankee audience she intends to address. "Why draw these old-fashioned obvious 'morals'?" asks, in effect, this entertaining story-teller.

Let us give some illustrations of all these assertions. To begin with, here is a lesson for a very small child:

"Have you had a good visit, Lotte?" said Mrs. Meadows. "Can that chicken walk?" asked Lotte eagerly. "I asked you if you had had a good visit?" repeated Mrs. Meadows." "I want to see that chicken walk." "Then tell me if you had a good visit." "Let's see that chicken walk *fust!*" persisted Lotte. Mrs. Meadows *could not help laughing*, but she gratified her by putting the chicken in the chair, to show that he could walk, giving Lotte at the same time a little wholesome instruction, *which she probably forgot at the moment, even if she heard it*, so intent was she on the chicken.

Anybody who thinks we overrate a trifle in calling this a lesson, and a lesson in those bad manners which are so notorious of American children, can have had no experience of the plasticity of the youthful mind. Again, Gerty's father disapproved of her taking ether when she had her tooth out. "If Gerty had been a little girl, I do not hesitate to say she should have had the ether and welcome. *Pain is too dreadful to be accepted when it can be avoided*, and the very slight risk seems to me far preferable to the certain suffering." What a sermon on courage! But Gerty's parents, "unwilling to use mere authority," and having in vain exhausted their reasoning on her, offered her a pony if she would consent to have her tooth out! There is nothing, then, between "mere authority" and outrageous bribery! Still another case of discipline is in the story of "Jessie." Jessie has a hopeless lack of perseverance. Her father allows her to try everything, hoping that she will find something, at least among pleasurable occupations, to fix her wandering mind. The final effort is at lace-making in a beautiful garden. Jessie's interest in lace endures about three days, when it gives out, and she excuses herself to her father, concluding with:

"Haven't you often told me to keep my eyes open to see what was going on around me, and be observant, and how can I learn to make lace under such circumstances? Haven't you often told me not to try to do two things at once?" "You good-for-nothing little minx," ejaculated papa, jerking her down from his knee, "take yourself off. You'll be a burden on my hands all your life. Clear out!"

And this is actually the end of it! The excellent Miss Edgeworth would turn pale at such a notion of instruction, could she appear on our scene; and no doubt Gail Hamilton would be quite willing she should, so utterly different are her principles, and so cheerfully does she proceed to be amusing, regardless or ignorant of consequences. But those mothers who shall have admitted both authors into their nurseries will be apt to confirm the title of Miss Edgeworth's volume as "Parents' *Assistant*," while the unintentional teachings of the "natural" 'Child-world' may take long and patient labor to undo.

It seems to us that the method of dealing with children adopted by many of their modern entertainers in fictitious literature is wholly erroneous. Children do not desire, and ought not to be furnished, merely realistic pictures of themselves. Sensible parents do not describe their children to their faces, nor repeat in their presence their funny speeches or amusing little naughtinesses. Books which aim only to paint children "as they are" should be placed only in the hands of people old enough to discern their philosophy. A boy's heart craves a hero; and he believes in his hero with all the beautiful literalness and seriousness of early childhood. We mature so soon here, we so soon become self-analytical, sharp, critical, sceptical, that we not only cannot enjoy anything but realism ourselves, but we become incapable of comprehending that the young are imaginative and full of faith, and that for them a moral romance—we use the word "moral" broadly—may be made by a skilful writer of more weight and wider influence than many sermons. From the very nature of the case, it is impossible to separate children's books into the "instructive" and the "amusing," with the benevolent idea that it is cruel "to be always teaching a child," that you must sometimes show him how you "understand and sympathize" with him. A lesson he is bound to make out of everything he hears and sees, in spite of your false coddling; and if, to divert him after his arithmetic and grammar are over, you offer him a story of children with a low standard, he too will adopt a low standard. He will rest satisfied with his pertness, his slipshod good-nature, his bad breeding; he will not care a fig for such superfluities as discipline, endurance, modesty, or reverence.

The "three judges" of the last book on our list are more commonly called the regicides, Goffe, Whalley, and Dixwell. Their history is comprised in the fact that they were regicides, and became refugees. More fortunate than many of their associates who also lived beyond the Restoration, these three escaped the vengeance of the Royalists, and obtained a refuge in the wilds of New England. After their arrival here their perils were solely such as were caused by their desire to linger about the settlements of their fellow-men. In the wilderness they were safe from Royalists, and hardly endangered by savage foes. Yet as the sentiment of Puritan New England was favorable to them, these regicides lived and died in peace, known to a few friends, and only occasionally obliged to lie hid when some Government emissary was in their neighborhood. Two of them, Lt.-Gen. Edward Whalley and his son-in-law, Major-Gen. William Goffe, came to Boston at first without concealment; and the third, John Dixwell, seems to have lived undisturbed, with very little difficulty.

The book above-cited is simply a repetition of the well-known facts in the case, giving undue credence to Stiles's collection of traditions about Goffe and Whalley. It may answer, however, as a sufficient account to satisfy ingenuous youth, who will find more entertainment in later episodes in our history. We note on page 144 the curious statement that our President Harrison was descended from the regicide Gen. Harrison. On the contrary, according to Meade (i. 311), the President was son of Benjamin, the signer of the Declaration of Independence, whose earliest known ancestor was Benjamin H., born in Southwark Parish, Va., in 1645; probably the son of Herman H. or Gov. John H.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*	
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Cassell's Illustrated Catalogue, swd.	(Cassell, Petter & Galpin)	1 25
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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

DECEMBER 1.

THE money market has been rather more active on call loans in consequence of the increased amount of business at the Stock Exchange. While parties in good standing have been able to procure all the money they required at the legal rate, others whose business requires large amounts have had to pay as high as $\frac{1}{32}$ and interest. There is more discrimination than ever among lenders as to the standing of borrowers and the character of collaterals offered before making loans.

A more active business has been doing in commercial paper, and the demand for the best names is reported to be very good. Prime names pass readily at from 10 to 15 per cent., and good names at 15 per cent. and above.

Advices from London are very favorable. On Thursday Cable despatch reported a gain of £1,065,000 in bullion in the Bank of England, and that the directors had reduced the minimum rate of discount 2 per cent., from 8 per cent., at which it had been standing, to 6 per cent.

The Union Trust Company recommenced business to-day with some $4,000,000 cash on hand with which to pay $5,000,000 deposits; besides which the Company has other assets, readily convertible into cash, to double the amount of the balance due to depositors. Several important changes have been made in the officers, to the very decided advantage of the Company. Mr. Edward King has been elected President, and we speak understandingly when we say that an appointment more satisfactory to the business community could not have been made.

The bank statement for the week ending November 30 was extremely favorable; the total liabilities were increased $6,439,000, while the reserve showed a gain of $6,900,000, of which $4,500,000 consisted of legal tenders. According to the figures published below, the banks now hold in legal tenders and specie $5,000,000 over and above the amount required by law. The following is a comparison of the averages for the past two weeks:

	Nov 22.	Nov. 29.	Differences.
Loans	$248,067,300	$247,922,300	Dec... $145,000
Specie	17,568 700	19,968,700	Inc.... 2,400,000
Circulation	27,299,800	27,238,800	Dec... 61,000
Deposits	167,957,200	174,467,200	Inc... 6,500 000
Legal tenders	30,899,700	35,399,800	Inc... 4,500,000

The stock market has been active and, up to the afternoon of Friday, strong. The greatest rise was on Wabash, Western Union Telegraph, and Northwestern common, in all of which stocks a pool was said to be operating. There was a sharp advance on Saturday in Union Pacific from 22½ to 24¾, upon the announcement that the U. S. Circuit Court at Hartford had decided in favor of the Company in the Crédit Mobilier case.

Prices were lower at the close of the week on nearly the whole list. There has been considerable realizing upon the part of holders, who, at Saturday's prices, secured a handsome profit on their purchases made within the week; besides which, a reaction should reasonably be expected after a sharp advance.

The investment stocks are firm, especially New Jersey Central, Delaware, Lackawanna & Western, and Harlem, all of which appear to be strongly held, and any demand for them advances prices without developing any large amount of stock for sale.

The following shows the highest and lowest sales of the leading stocks at the Stock Exchange for the week ending November 29, 1873:

	Monday.		Tuesday.		Wed'day.		Thursday	Friday.		Saturday		Sales.
N. Y. C. & H. R.	88⅛	89⅝	89	89⅜	89⅛	91⅝		91⅜	92⅜	91⅜	92⅜	74,000
Lake Shore	70¼	71⅝	71⅜	72⅜	71⅝	72⅜		72⅝	73⅜	72	73⅛	101,100
Erie	43	43⅝	43⅜	44	....	44		44⅛	46½	46	47	11,900
Do. pfd	66	67⅛	....	66	....	65		....	....	....	....	....
Union Pacific	21¼	21⅜	21⅜	22½	21⅜	22½		22½	24¾	24⅜	26½	141,300
Chi. & N. W.	43½	45	44¼	47	46⅜	48		47⅜	50	47⅜	49	44,900
Do. pfd	64½	66	66	67½	67	69¾		69¼	70	69½	70	4,400
N. J. Central	92½	92½	....	9?½	93¼	93½		94	95	....	96	1,500
Rock Island	88⅜	90	89⅜	91	90½	94		93¼	94¼	93¼	94	18,100
Mil. & St. Paul	31	32	32	33⅛	33¼	36½		34½	36¾	35¼	36¼	51,000
Do. pfd	54⅜	55	55½	57½	57½	59⅜		59	60	59	59¼	3,100
Wabash	41⅜	43⅜	43⅜	41¾	44½	47¼		47¼	49⅜	46⅜	47⅜	51,100
D., L. & W.	91½	92	92½	93⅜	92⅜	93		93½	94½	94¼	95⅝	4,900
B. H. & Erie	....	1½	1⅜	1½	...	1½		....	1⅜	1½	1⅜	800
O. & M.	24¾	25	24⅞	25⅜	25	25⅜		25⅜	26⅜	26½	27	42,500
C., C. & I. C.	21⅜	22¾	22	22⅜	21⅝	22¾		22⅞	23½	23⅜	24	38,400
W. U. Tel.	61⅜	63⅜	63½	65¼	64⅝	66		66½	68⅜	66⅞	68⅜	222,500
Pacific Mail	28⅜	31⅜	30½	31⅜	29⅜	31⅜		31⅛	32⅝	32	33¼	51,100

The Government bond market has been strong, with prices generally higher, in sympathy with foreign quotations and the firmness of the gold premium. The amount of bonds seeking a market is small, especially the later issues of the five-twenties. The official statement for November shows that the National debt has been increased $9,028,576 84, and reflects the effect of the late panic so far as the revenues of the Government are concerned.

Railroad bonds have been more active with higher prices. The bonds of the Union Pacific Railroad Co. were favorably affected by the result of the suit brought by the Government against the Company and the stockholders in the Crédit Mobilier, the Incomes advancing from 58 to 67, and the Land Grants from 70 to 71.

The following Companies have defaulted upon their interest payments due to-day: Kansas Pacific, on $4,063,000 bonds; Chicago, Dubuque & Minnesota, on $4,500,000 8 per cent. bonds; and the Chicago, Clinton & Dubuque on about $1,500,000 8 per cent. bonds—the two last-mentioned being branch roads of the Chicago, Burlington & Quincy Railroad, through which corporation and upon whose recommendation the bonds were placed at 90 among its stockholders. It is probable that something more will be heard about these bonds placed by the Chicago, Burlington & Quincy.

The gold market has been sensitive to the various rumors circulated during the week respecting the Cuban difficulties. Upon the receipt of news that all difficulties were in a fair way to be settled amicably, the price declined to 108⅞, after having been as high as 110½.

SPECIAL NOTICES.

TERMS: In advance, one insertion, four cents per word; five insertions, three cents per word, each. The enclosure of a stamped and addressed envelope will secure a numbered box, to which communications may be addressed.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 11, 1873.

The Week.

THE Republicans in the House opened the session somewhat inauspiciously by voting two of the Kellogg delegates from Louisiana into their seats without reference to a committee. About one of them, Mr. Sheldon, there was no dispute. About the other, Mr. Sypher, there was a good deal, but he was also voted in with the greatest *sang-froid*, General Butler directing the proceeding. Pinchback, of whom we have given a short biography in these columns, was the third, but his case was laid over, and the next day, under Butler's direction, was referred to a committee. An attempt was made to dispose of contested seats for Western Virginia by a party vote also, but it was too barefaced, and they were referred to a committee. But when it came to the case of Smith, the Kellogg delegate from the Shreveport district in Louisiana, which was on its face a suspicious one, the majority again went to work and voted him into his seat without enquiry by a committee, Butler again presiding over the process.

The only speeches of importance during the week were those of Mr. Morrill of Vermont and Mr. Ferry of Michigan, in the Senate, on the financial situation. Mr. Morrill confined himself to an able exposition of the defects and dangers of an irredeemable paper currency. Mr. Ferry, who represented Western ideas, advocated the substitution of Government legal-tender notes for the national-bank notes now afloat, making the total volume of irredeemable Government notes $800,000,000. This done, he would release the banks from all legal restrictions, and issue 3.65 bonds to give the currency an "elastic end," and would substitute silver for the fractional currency, after which he thinks the country would thrive in a surprising manner. He is of opinion that the great need of the day is more greenbacks. The "elastic end" to his currency would, however, only enable him to put money into bonds when it was too plentiful; it would not enable him to increase the volume of the currency when it was too scarce—a difficulty which has been frequently pointed out to the advocates of schemes of this class, and to which we again earnestly call their attention. Will they seriously consider what is to be done when, the business of the country having "grown up" to their $800,000,000 limit, the stringency again begins to be felt? Suppose the whole amount is thrown out, and money still brings 200 per cent. in Wall Street, what then? Would they not once more step forward and ask for more greenbacks, and so on *ad infinitum*, or, in plain English, to the bottomless pit? Mr. Kelley of Pennsylvania also appeared on the scene in the House with the 3.65 bond scheme. The amount of happiness and prosperity expected from this plan appears to be enormous. It seems to bring many gentlemen mental peace not unlike that which Micawber felt when he discharged his debts by giving his note. The ignorance—we were going to say brutish ignorance—which prevails on these questions in many quarters has been illustrated during the week by the Chicago *Journal of Commerce*, which maintains that the volume of the currency does not affect prices, and the Philadelphia *Press*, edited by a leading Pennsylvania politician, actually adopts the statement.

Mr. Wilson of Indiana has also introduced a financial scheme, which proposes to remove all restrictions on the bank circulation, and allow the banks to use their reserves, and enable the Government to withdraw enough legal tenders, as fast as the bank circulation is increased, to accumulate a Government "reserve" of $100,000,000, to be lent in tight times to all comers, on the security of Government bonds, for periods not exceeding three months. This is the old story; but he makes one new and excellent proposal, which is that the Bank Examiners should report to the Comptroller of the Currency at stated intervals, and publish in the local papers, the nature and amount of the loans made by the banks, and the kind of security taken. This would supply valuable information now wanting to dealers, and would inspire bank managers with much salutary caution. We present these schemes now as fair specimens of what is floating in the minds of inflationists and persons who think that some good must come of putting the pea under another thimble; but we owe it to our readers not to burden our columns with any more of them until something is produced with a sufficient amount of support to make it seem likely that it will pass.

In our account of the President's Message, we were unable for the want of space to give any account of the Dominican Protectorate applied for by Baez. It seems that as long ago as the 18th of August, Baez drew up a memorial to the President, recalling to his memory the facts in the case, viz.: that though for thirty years the Dominicans have been harassed either openly or by secret warfare by the Haytians, and that though always successful on the field of battle, they have "not yet been able to complete a victory." For this reason they desired annexation, but the annexation scheme falling through, the country was left to struggle alone with overwhelming difficulties, the Samana Bay Company giving "the finishing stroke to the situation," "especially since the noise of its establishment has been succeeded by the most deliberate silence and the most listless indifference." Baez therefore asks relief for the Dominicans from their present situation, which he says is "horrible," by the establishment of a protectorate, and expresses the opinion that if the President does establish one, he will have "the immense satisfaction of having saved the future of a people of the world discovered by Columbus," without entailing upon himself any embarrassment whatever. This document, it is now said, was handed by Baez to a representative of our Government, who took it home with him, and forgot all about it until he remembered that Congress was going to meet in December, and then sent it on to Washington. Dr. S. G. Howe, who wrote to us some weeks ago denying that the Samana Company was urging the Government to establish a protectorate, will find in this petition of Baez the facts out of which the rumor sprang. Dr. Howe in his letter said that a statement of ours, to the effect that the "barbarous population of the interior are now in arms against him" (Baez), was entirely untrue. Baez, unfortunately, represents that, whether they are in arms or not, they give him at any rate a great deal of trouble; and we are inclined to think that his views about his actual condition in San Domingo are as trustworthy as those of Dr. Howe.

After the Crédit Mobilier exposure last winter, Congress passed an act directing a suit against everybody connected in any way with that company. The object of the suits was the recovery of the money of which the company had defrauded the United States, and, for the convenience of the Government, the act authorized a single suit against all the defendants in a single United States Circuit Court in Connecticut. The immediate effect of this act was a depression of Union Pacific securities, owing to the injunction served on every one who held the bonds, the innocent holders suffering quite as much as the "corruptionists." The suit itself has gone against the Government, the court (Judges Shipman and Hunt) deciding that it had jurisdiction, but that the Government had not sufficient interest to support the suits. The case will be taken up to the Supreme Court. The whole affair has been shamefully mismanaged, for the Government has certainly been defrauded of several millions dollars interest, if nothing else, and at one time had such a control over the road that it might have compelled any terms; but that was before the Crédit Mobilier business was heard of. As to the suit itself, the defendants were represented by such lawyers as B. R. Curtis, Sidney

Bartlett, and W. M. Evarts, while the Government lawyer was Mr. George H. Williams. The appearance made by Mr. Williams in the case was very unfortunate, and does not tend to reconcile the bar throughout the country to his nomination as Chief-Justice.

The publication of the protocol of the agreement between Mr. Fish and Admiral Polo caused great excitement at Havana, which Jovellar, the Captain-General, tried to calm by a proclamation, meanwhile, however, telegraphing to Madrid that the order of the Government in the matter of the delivery of the *Virginius* would be carried out. On Friday last the news came that Cuba, or rather the Volunteers, were prepared to fight Spain, the United States, and any other great powers that made common cause with them, sooner than surrender the *Virginius*, and this alarming threat was actually sufficient to cause a decline in stocks and an advance in gold. The Volunteers were, it is said, prepared to deliver the ship to a neutral power instead of the United States, to await the result of arbitration, and Admiral Polo, it was reported from Washington, gave some support to the suggestion, but Mr. Fish declined to accede to it. Later advices show, however, that the Volunteers are undergoing a change of mind, and will probably not engage in hostilities with the United States at present. Our Government has in the meantime very properly avoided wounding their susceptibilities by not making as yet any display of force in Cuban ports.

There have been numerous stories during the week about General Sickles's position in Madrid, and it seemed at one time to be certain that he had resigned. At this writing, however, the news is that nothing is known of his resignation in Washington, and that the sole reason why he has been set aside in the late negotiations is that the Spaniards preferred treating through Admiral Polo. This does not militate against the story, however, that he has been making himself, in some manner, obnoxious at Madrid. In fact, we believe that he has never been more than tolerated there, in spite of the efforts of some of the Administration papers to make it appear that he was becoming an object of mingled love and reverence. Whether he has resigned now or not, we think most decent people on this side of the water are of opinion that it is high time that he did. He has never been anything in Spain but a disgrace to us all. He was preceded to Spain by a pamphlet in Spanish, which was sent to every Spaniard of note in and out of politics, and contained his not very savory private history in full. The result was, of course, that his appointment was felt to be an insult, which, however, Spain was in no condition to resent. So Spanish gentlemen made the best of the matter by covering him with official civilities and carefully withholding social ones. Spaniards are not remarkably good politicians, but men of honor are still numerous among them.

A despatch was received from England on Monday which bore evident marks of the cock and the bull, relating how the crew of the *Loch Earn* had reached home, reported that the French officers and crew of the *Ville du Havre* had behaved in a most cowardly manner, the officers having made their escape in dry clothes in their boats before the steamer sunk, and resisted the entreaties of the *Loch Earn's* people to go back and try to save life, until the latter, in a burst of humane indignation, took arms and threatened to fire on them. This was all silly and ridiculous; but it obtained circulation and credence enough to induce the agents here to telegraph to France and ask for an answer, which has come. It contradicts the story *in toto*, and with it contradicts the statement of the master of the *Loch Earn* that he saw the steamer long before he struck, and vainly endeavored to attract her attention and avoid the collision. The matter has undergone thorough enquiry in France, and we shall probably have the evidence, if not the report or decision, in a few days. In the meanwhile, the fewer "theories" are put in circulation, the less injustice there will be done. We may say, to come down to particulars, that the "views of an old shipmaster," of which there are a great many afloat just now, on a marine disaster of the facts of which he knows nothing, are hardly more valuable than those of an old gaucho.

Besides the Boston municipal election—so curious for its multiplicity of candidates, and so encouraging in its defeat of the rings—two other things in Massachusetts politics are worth attention. One is the movement, already well under way, of fully rehabilitating Mr. Sumner as the regular Republican candidate for the Senatorship. Who it is that is to be his opponent next winter, in case nothing goes awry in the meantime, is well understood; but General Butler apparently has forgotten how hard a man to beat Mr. Sumner can make himself in any probable Massachusetts legislature. It is a long way to be looking ahead at this time, it being possible for so much to happen between now and January of 1875, but the preliminaries of the contest are already engaging serious attention in that State. The other thing of which we have spoken as noteworthy is the probability that in the course of the next two years an end will be put to the long and discreditable chapter of Massachusetts prohibitory legislation, so-called. A rearrangement of legislative representation takes place after the census of the State has been taken. Massachusetts takes a census independently of our national census, in the middle of each decade. It is known already that the census of 1875 will furnish further proof of the fact that the State tends more and more to gather its population into the cities and towns. These busy places grow with rapidity, and relatively to them the country districts may be said to stand still. But the cities and towns show every disposition to abolish at least the more obnoxious portions of the prohibitory legislation, and even to do away with it altogether. Should this anticipated event take place, it will, to be sure, be a rather illogical way of bringing to an end the State's policy in respect to this matter, but we imagine that it will be welcome nevertheless. And, indeed, to make men act as cool legislators in regard to a subject about which it is so much easier to feel and wish like a good man than to decree like a wise one, will always be hard. It is a very searching test to apply to the ability of any legislature, and it is no wonder if our legislatures are found wanting when tried by such a standard. It is a little wonderful, however, that they should swear till they are black in the face that they are not found wanting.

The Granges continue forming throughout the West, and the membership in the entire country is estimated at several hundred thousands. Since the elections, and probably not only since but because of the panic, there has been latterly in these organizations very little of the discussion which seemed so rife a few months since on the subject of *pro-rata* transportation charges. When a Grange meets now, and organizes by the choice of officers—among whom in some of the Granges is a female official known as Ceres and another as Pomona—the debates which ensue are as a general thing not denunciatory of the corrupt holders of stock, but cover much ground, political, social, and financial—ranging often from the tyrannous exactions of the Pork-men to some of the nicest questions of finance, political economy, and sociology. The Indiana State Grange, for instance, has been in session at Valparaiso, and adopted resolutions favoring such a change in the laws "as will remove the trial of all minor crimes punishable by fine or imprisonment in jail to justice's courts"; favoring "such expansion of the currency" as may be "necessary to relieve the country of the present financial embarrassment and promote the interests of labor"; favoring a reduction of the number of members of the legislature by redistricting the State; condemning all increase of salaries; demanding the repeal of the Salary-grab Bill, and favoring the encouragement of home manufactures. The only thing in the platform relating to railroads was a resolution in favor of more lines, and asking for Congressional charters, but opposing Congressional subsidies.

Judge C. T. Sherman of Ohio (United States District Court for the Northern District) has resigned his position on account of the charges brought against him some time ago. The charges, which were substantially proved, were these: Hearing that the New York Stock Exchange wished to obtain a repeal of the tax on borrowed capital, he made an arrangement with Mr. Lockwood, one of its principal members, since dead, to bring about the repeal; and, the repeal having been secured, demanded $10,000 for his services, representing that the repeal was accomplished chiefly by himself, through his great influence with such men as his brother, John Sherman, Chairman of the Finance Committee of the Senate. When brought before the Committee of Ways and Means, however, he denied that he had had any interviews with the gentlemen named, and said that he did not want the money for himself, but for some third persons—Judge Bartley, his brother-in-law, and Mr. R. C. Parsons, a United States marshal. He says in his letter of resignation that his leading and governing motive in leaving the bench is the desire to "avoid publicity." Judge Delahay of Kansas, another United States judge, has made up his mind to retire from the bench, and has resigned; but what he desired to avoid was not publicity, but impeachment for drunkenness.

The quarrel between the people of Pennsylvania and the Philadelphia Ring has resulted in a victory for the latter. The Supreme Court has unanimously decided the ordinance of the Constitutional Convention, providing a special election for Philadelphia, under the superintendence of a commission appointed by the convention itself, to be illegal. The election, as far as Philadelphia is concerned, must therefore be held under the registry law passed by the Ring for the sole purpose of enabling it to roll up fraudulent majorities. The ground of the decision is that the legislature imposed restrictions on the convention, one of which was a restriction from interfering with the registry law. Those restrictions the convention illegally disregarded. There is, besides this, however, another miscarriage, for the registry was not the only thing which the legislature, on passing its law for the government of the convention, declared to be sacred. They forbade, also, any interference with the Declaration of Rights, and notwithstanding this injunction the convention made alterations in it. The opponents of the instrument now say that these alterations have "tainted the whole work," and hint very broadly that if they do not defeat the constitution at the polls they will afterwards get the Supreme Court to declare it null and void, or that they will perhaps get it declared void in advance. There is known to be an overwhelming majority in the State in favor of the constitution, and it would be melancholy indeed if technical quibbles should really defeat what is perhaps the best draft of a constitution in the United States. It may be worth while to recall the fact that the constitution of the United States itself was adopted in a wholly illegal manner, the Constitutional Convention which assembled at Philadelphia having been sent there under restrictions imposed by the States which it disregarded in the most glaring way; it would seem that their work was all tainted, and that we have really had no constitution in this country for nearly a century—and in fact never. The *Press* of Philadelphia says that the newspapers of the State stand (without counting those which are not committed either way) 208 for, to 18 against, the constitution.

Bishop Cummins's secession has resulted in the formation of a new church, called the "Reformed Episcopal Church." The organization was set up in this city a fortnight ago. Dr. Cummins is the presiding bishop, and Mr. Cheney, of Chicago, the missionary bishop. The new church stands by the Bible, the Apostles' Creed, the Thirty-nine Articles, and recognizes the episcopacy, not as of divine right, but as "a very ancient and desirable point of church policy." It condemns as erroneous the doctrine that there is only one order or form of ecclesiastical polity in Christ's church; that ministers are any more priests than other believers; that there is any real presence in the Sacrament of the Lord's Supper, or any regeneration in baptism. These are all Low-Church doctrines. It is difficult to see, however, what Dr. Cummins and Mr. Cheney hope to gain by keeping up the episcopacy. They both proclaim that nobody is bound to obey a bishop unless he pleases, and the use of a bishop who has no authority has not yet been revealed. Why will Mr. Cheney, on his own showing, be anything more than an itinerant preacher? His confirmation can be dispensed with, and his ordination is a mere form.

The British expedient for the solution of the railroad problem, the "Railway Commission"—appointed by an act of last session of Parliament for the decision of controversies between the corporations and the public—has recently had its first sitting, and a report of the proceedings has reached this country by the last mail. The experiment is one which we on this side of the water would do well to watch. The commission is composed of a dry statistical politician, Sir Frederick Peel, a man entirely wanting in "magnetism," a Queen's counsel, Mr. MacNamara, and an engineer, we believe, Mr. Price. The jurisdiction of the commission covers all complaints of the charges made by the companies, and all other disputes between them and the public, except such as relate to damages for injuries actually sustained; these are, as heretofore, left to the courts. The cases which came before the commissioners on the first day may help to give some idea of their powers and duties. They were only two in number. One was the complaint of the town council of Dover against a railroad company for not supplying Dover with adequate railroad accommodation, both as regards fares and the number of trains, and for giving undue preference, to the detriment of Dover, to Ramsgate, Margate, and Hastings, which are rival watering-places. The other was that of an expressman, or carrier, against another company for giving themselves, indirectly through their agents, a preference over him in the collection and delivery of goods. In every case the complainants are examined strictly on the point whether they have used all proper means to obtain redress directly from the railroad before coming to the Commission, as it is only when these have been exhausted that a summons is granted.

The Austrian Minister of Finance has introduced some extraordinary measures for extricating the commercial community in Vienna from the financial embarrassment in which it has been languishing since April last. The attempt made to wind up the various broken-down companies by the aid of a syndicate of bankers, of which we spoke some weeks ago, has failed through want of money and the panic in New York, so it is now resolved to resort to extraordinary measures and make a great state loan to people in distress. Neither "Uncle Boutwell" nor "Daddy Richardson," as the brokers call them, has ever proposed anything half so paternal. The state is to borrow $40,000,000 in silver, and lend part of it to complete the railroads which were in process of construction when the panic occurred. What remains of the money is to be lent out, through the medium of loan-offices, on produce and wines not subject to deterioration, and on quotable stocks and bonds, for periods of three and six months, and at eight per cent., which is what the money costs the Government. Whether this will "move the crops" remains to be seen. There is, we believe, a scheme somewhat resembling this in preparation at Washington, by which an unlimited quantity of "money" is to be lent to all persons applying for it, on bond and mortgage on real estate, at four per cent. per annum; but here the Government is not to descend to borrow the sum needed to make the loans; it is to strike it off from an Adams press, in the best style of typography.

THE CUBAN VOLUNTEERS.

NOTHING has occurred in the Cuban affair to raise any doubts as to the soundness of the opinion that the *Virginius* was not entitled to the use of the American flag, and that the dispute with Spain will eventually turn upon her mode of deciding the character of the ship and of disposing of the passengers. The theory to which Dr. Woolsey has given some countenance, that, if the *Virginius* was a mere pirate, we might not be able to call Spain to account for her summary mode of dealing with the crew, receives a severe blow from the following article of the Treaty of 1795 between that country and the United States:

"ART. VII.—And it is agreed that the subjects or citizens of each of the contracting parties, their vessels or effects, shall not be liable to any embargo or detention on the part of the other for any military expedition or other public or private purpose whatever. And in all cases of seizure, detention, or arrest for debts contracted or offences committed by any citizen or subject of the one party within the jurisdiction of the other, the same shall be made and prosecuted by order and authority of law only, and according to the order of proceedings usual in such cases. The citizens and subjects of both parties shall be allowed to employ such advocates, solicitors, notaries, agents, and factors as they may judge proper in all their affairs and in all their trials of law in which they may be concerned before the tribunals of the other party; and such agents shall have free access to be present at the proceedings in such causes, and at the taking of all examinations and evidence which may be exhibited in the said trials."

If this article have any force, while the right of the *Tornado* to arrest the ship may not be questioned, the duty of holding the crew for examination, according to the stipulated forms, seems very clear, and the offence against humanity involved in their execution has been aggravated by breach of faith. We may add that, while we hope our Government will not complicate the pending case by the introduction of any new points, a settlement with Spain cannot be called complete which does not provide in some manner for the control of the Cuban Volunteers. The presence so close to these shores of a large body of armed men, undisciplined, and refusing obedience to any authority known to diplomacy, is something which, out of consideration of the difficulties created by the rebellion, it may have been well to overlook for a while, but five years is long enough, and, as it has turned out, too long, for any such indulgence. The holding of Cuba by an army which deliberates in public meetings, regulates its movements by resolution, and refuses obedience to any regularly constituted government, and threatens foreign powers with war, is something which no neighboring power can be expected to tolerate indefinitely. We are, as our readers know, opposed to anything like "blood and thunder" diplomacy, and think a war with Spain would be one of the most wretched enterprises in which a nation like this could engage. We can, therefore, say, without being misunderstood, that we should be very sorry to see plainly necessary precautions neglected, and plain duties avoided, either through sentimental admiration of Señor Castelar, or sentimental sympathy with that peculiar form of political organization called the "Spanish Republic." These two motives supply a good many people with all the policy they have with regard to either Spain or Cuba, and we dare say that in all the ladies' boarding-schools and at all the Women's Rights lunches they are deemed overwhelming. But it can hardly be that they will weigh seriously with adult male politicians like General Grant and Mr. Fish. Whatever may be Señor Castelar's merits, and whatever may be the character of the Government over which he presides, and however reluctant we may be to mix ourselves up in the Cuban embroglio, and however ready we may be to look on while the Spanish regulars try to extinguish the rebellion, the *Virginius* affair shows plainly that we cannot safely tolerate any longer the control of the island or of the civil authority by the Volunteers. These Volunteers are a large body of armed men who are not amenable to the Captain-General or to the home Government, and who nevertheless proclaim martial law and inflict death by sentence of drumhead court-martial at their pleasure, and who pass on the lives of foreigners apparently with as little hesitation as on those of native Cubans. Their movements, so far as can be made out, are directed by a club in Havana, having branches in other cities, called the Casino Español, which deliberates in secret and openly defies the recognized functionaries of the state. In fact, these men have come to occupy towards their own Government a position closely analogous to that occupied by the Janissaries and Mamelukes, before their destruction, towards the Governments of Turkey and Egypt respectively. Towards foreign governments, and our own in particular, they occupy to all intents and purposes the position of a band of buccaneers who have taken possession of a West Indian island and bid us defiance. They are not worth discussing as a military body. They are apparently drilled to some extent, but show no sign of discipline, and would probably be dispersed on open ground by a few rounds of grape; but as long as they are let alone, under the pretence, which everybody knows to be a sham, that they are Spanish troops under the orders of the Spanish commander-in-chief, we shall be constantly exposed to complications such as that from which we have just so narrowly escaped.

Now, we think we are within the mark when we say that our Government owes it to American citizens of all classes, to merchants, to sailors and travellers especially, to see that this nuisance is now abated. It is perfectly reasonable to ask the Spanish Cabinet either to disarm the Volunteers, or to convert them into a proper military corps, under military discipline and professional officers. If it cannot do this, or refuses to do it, then it will certainly be our duty, and one which international law allows and common sense imposes, to exercise a police in Cuban waters and ports so powerful that we shall have an end, at least in the large towns, of the butcheries, and émeutes, and vaporings which have disgraced Cuban history during the last five years, and that American citizens shall have a fair trial. We cannot negotiate with the Casino Español, but we can bring it down to its proper duties of smoking and gossip. Of course this means that the navy ought to be put on proper footing. We ought to have a small iron-clad fleet of the best kind, and maintained in the highest state of efficiency. The worst of being taken as short as we are now is not the laughableness of our hurried launching of swarms of old wooden tubs, but the enormous waste, jobbery, and corruption which this sudden preparation either produces or covers, and which in the event of hostilities exposes us to a check which, by stinging us to the quick and leading the enemy to underestimate our strength, might convert, as once before, a "ninety-day" skirmish into a long and bloody war.

THE CONGRESSIONAL SITUATION.

IT is now but little more than two years since this city appeared to be hopelessly under the rule of the Ring, with Tweed jocular in the supposed impregnability of his position; with a judiciary whose controlling members turned the judicial power to the support of what was dangerously bad, and the protection of those who were most audaciously guilty; with operators like Fisk, able to use the civic power, the courts, and the ruffian element of the city with equal impunity in furtherance of their predatory schemes. The changes that have taken place since, and the consummation that has been reached so recently, it is unnecessary to sketch. Outside of the city, there was the same general apathy of the public conscience, indifference in the breasts of some men, and hopelessness in the breasts of others. The immense harvest of embezzlements and defalcations which we have reaped during the current year were not only planted but well grown, the principal difference between that time and this being that the public intelligence did not care to investigate where it suspected, nor to bring criminals to punishment where crime had actually been brought to the light. Underneath that apathy, however, there was, as we frequently took occasion to hope when affairs seemed at the darkest, a sense of right and an appreciation of public integrity that would become effective whenever aroused into real action. In this city the evils were the worst, but they were not confined to the city; and it is, therefore, not surprising that other and distant parts of the country have, within say four years, been engaged in the work of reform. The Constitutional Convention of Illinois is an instance of what public sentiment was

there, and the recent Constitutional Convention in Pennsylvania is an instance of what public sentiment is becoming there. Both of these conventions, we may remark, went much deeper into matters than their projectors even hoped for, and both will leave lasting effects and results that could hardly be anticipated by the most sagacious. It seems now clear that the Constitutional Convention of New York came too soon, and that its extraordinary timidity was the effect of the then supposed public indifference, and its timidity the cause of the limited good and unsatisfactory result which it accomplished.

So far as the Federal Government was concerned, the principal evils under which the country suffered were readily traceable to Congress. In Congress at that time the Crédit Mobilier operators must have felt as secure in their position as Tweed did in his, with the apparent advantage that their public enquiry was effectually over, while his was only beginning. The "salary-grab" of 1866 had produced very little censure, notwithstanding that it was retroactive, that it was fraudulently coupled with a meritorious measure, and that it was pushed through Congress with indecent haste. Congressmen took courage, and, after ingeniously dividing the responsibility between the two political parties, so that neither could be made to answer for it, concluded that the act would be forgotten, or, at most, be classed with ordinary public and political scandals. Indeed, the public apathy was so universal that the honorable managers of the foray were afterwards able to boast that only one member had refused to take his share, and that he was not re-elected by his constituents. Special legislation was rapidly becoming the only legislative business, and Honest John Vanes, by the dozen, regarded "the last hours of the session" as an unfailing harvest-time, and congratulated themselves when the hammer fell, and the Speaker declared the session at an end, as "being now in comfortable circumstances." Such claimants as Mr. Chorpenning were coming forward with greater vigor than had been displayed by them since the days of Galpin and Matteson, and, in short, affairs looked very much as though it were generally conceded that Congress could do what it pleased with the country. In our columns, before the last Congressional election, we urged the advisability of sending new men to Congress, and, while giving due credit to the incomparable advantage of real trained statesmanship, we pointed out that modern Congressional experience had bred nothing more than adroitness in a system of tactics sufficient to hinder every measure of reform, but never sufficient to stop a flagitious piece of legislation. The action of the Congressional constituencies did not seem as decided then as was wished, but it is now evident that much more was felt than appeared on the surface. The unusual change which was made in the House of Representatives, though not unequivocal at the time, now looks like an advancing wave of the changed tide of public opinion.

Such being the situation outside of the national capitol, we may next note the changes which have occurred within. In the Senate they are comparatively few. The Republicans have lost such men as Pomeroy and Patterson; the Liberals, Mr. Trumbull; the Democrats, Mr. Casserly; but with the exception of the two last-named, the effective leaders of the Senate remain the same. In the House the remarkable fact is to be noted that two-thirds of that body are new members. These new members are not the direct fruits of the salary-grab and Crédit-Mobilier awakening. Their elections took place before those two scandals wrought out the present state of public determination. They were not chosen as reformers. They were not instructed by their constituencies through the elections as to what incisive work would be expected from them. They merely came into Congress with a lively sense of what they have recently heard, and tolerably clear ideas of some things in the way of public wrong which the people are by no means disposed longer to endure. Being for the most part politicians of the modern school rather than reformers of the school which is yet to be brought into Congress, it is natural for them to look, or try to look, upon the changing tone of public sentiment as an ebullition of passing excitement, and shape their measures for the temporary rather than the permanent redress of national grievances. In other words, they believe it cheaper for the modern Congressman to undo with ostentation some of the "most obnoxious" doings of the last Congress than to busy himself quietly with a system of reform which shall assure us against such doings in the future. That "the last hours of the session" are not necessarily and properly a harvest-time for the individual legislator will strike many of the new members as quite as chimerical as the other annoying proposition, that the public service is not necessarily and properly a fund wherewith the Executive ought to bribe the Congressman, and the Congressman buy up his constituents.

Such being the state of public feeling on the one hand, and the condition of Congress on the other, it is not wonderful that Mr. Blaine should be rechosen Speaker. We have before this classed Mr. Blaine as among our better politicians, and have founded some hopes on his energy, courage, and intelligence. He was, at the opening of Congress, in a position to choose between public opinion outside of the House and the political wiles and influences within. Something was expected both inside and outside of Congress. It was inevitable that a choice must be made between the better and worse elements of Congress, and the attempt to remit the choice to a caucus having failed, it was equally inevitable that Mr. Blaine must accept the responsibility of choosing both for himself and for his party. It is needless to say how he has chosen. General Butler promoted to the chairmanship of almost the most important committee of the House; Mr. Butler of Tennessee assigned to the chairmanship of another committee; Mr. Dawes, with his Crédit-Mobilier duplicity hanging about him and his back-pay still in his pockets, rewarded with the highest post of honor in the Speaker's gift; Mr. Cessna (Chorpenning's Honest John Vane) placed on the Judiciary Committee to draught laws against Congressional corruption; Mr. Schofield given the chairmanship of the Committee on Naval Affairs, when naval affairs promise to involve the most numerous contracts and largest outlay of the session; and, not finally, but perhaps most significantly, Mr. G. F. Hoar, who did not, like Mr. Dawes, gratuitously pledge himself to support General Butler, pushed into second places on insignificant committees, while Judge Hoar, with all his courage, ability, and experience as Attorney-General, is shelved on committees where he can do the least good to the country and the least harm to the politicians.

Such is the Republican situation in Congress—the position which the party has assumed with regard to the past—the assurances which it gives with regard to the future. As to the Democrats, a recklessness which indeed seems like insane depravity brought them directly to the point of choosing as their leader at this eventful time the predecessor and preceptor of Tweed—an equally bad though not an equally bold or able man. It is, however, refreshing to know, and one of the hopeful signs of the times, that Tammany has felt the necessity of uttering a protest against the act, and (stranger still) an approval of the two bolting members. We await with some curiosity the censures which Republican conventions will utter against the disheartening organization of the House.

SUGGESTIONS AS TO THE BANKRUPT ACT.

IF the framers of the Constitution, in giving Congress the power to establish a uniform law on the subject of bankruptcy, could have foreseen what use would have been made of the power, they would perhaps have been inclined to make the clause compulsory rather than permissive. At any rate, if they had been gifted with prophetic foresight, they could not have failed to be amused at what was coming. That for some years the power should have lain in abeyance was not perhaps so remarkable, because for some years the business of the country was yet small; there were no railroads or telegraphs; in fact nothing like the network of commercial correspondence and intercommunication which, since the opening of the railroad era, has made connection between the various parts of the country so close and the country itself so homogeneous. Nor was there anything very surprising in the fact that the first important

bankrupt act should have been the result of the panic of 1837—by far the worst commercial crisis through which the country has ever passed. But what does strike us as remarkable is that a bankrupt act having been passed in 1800, only to be repealed in 1803, and another having been passed in 1841, for the purpose of enabling those who had become crippled by the financial embarrassments of 1837 to get rid of their debts, it should have happened that this desirable object was no sooner accomplished than this act also was immediately repealed; and that having been again revived because at the close of the war another generation of debtors found themselves hopelessly involved, it should again be proposed, now that the second bankrupt generation have generally got their discharges, to repeal the law and begin once more. It was the idea of the framers of the Constitution that the growth of population and commerce, might, as they have done, make the local State insolvent laws prove inadequate and embarrassing, and that the time might come when a uniform law on the subject would be as important to us as a uniform currency, or as a uniform bankrupt law is in England; but that the machinery they provided would be made use of at intervals of twenty or thirty years, first, by enactment for the purpose of enabling debtors to get rid of their debts, and secondly, by repeal for the purpose of facilitating the production of a new crop, to be harvested by a new bankrupt act—this is what they probably hardly looked forward to at all.

Whether or no the present bankrupt act is in need of amendment is a question into which we do not propose to enter, but there are one or two considerations connected with the subject which are important, and which are yet generally overlooked. The President has recently been looking into the matter, and the conclusions at which he arrives in his message are, first, that "at this time many considerations might be urged for its total repeal"; but, in the second place, if this is not considered desirable, he thinks that

> "It will not be seriously questioned that those portions of said act providing for what is called involuntary bankruptcy operate to increase the financial embarrassments of the country. Careful and prudent men very often become involved in debt in the transaction of their business, and though they may possess ample property, if it could be made available for that purpose, to meet all their liabilities, yet on account of the extraordinary scarcity of money, they may be unable to meet all their pecuniary obligations as they become due, in consequence of which they are liable to be prostrated in their business by proceedings in bankruptcy at the instance of unrelenting creditors. People are now so easily alarmed as to monetary matters, that the mere filing of a petition in bankruptcy by an unfriendly creditor will necessarily embarrass and oftentimes accomplish the financial ruin of a responsible business man. Those who otherwise might make lawful and just arrangement to relieve themselves from difficulties produced by the present stringency in money, are prevented by their constant exposure to attack and disappointment by proceedings against them in bankruptcy; and, besides, the law is made use of in many cases by obdurate creditors to frighten or force debtors into a compliance with their wishes, and into acts of injustice to other creditors and to themselves. I recommend that so much of said act as provides for involuntary bankruptcy on account of the suspension of payment be repealed."

Now, it will be seen that the feeling underlying these recommendations is that it is a very disagreeable thing to be obliged by creditors to pay our debts. The President says, indeed, that the bankrupt act has increased the financial embarrassments of the country, and that this "will not be seriously questioned," but the only argument by which he supports this proposition consists in saying that prudent and careful men often involve themselves in debts which the scarcity of money renders it difficult for them to pay. This is no new discovery. The year 1873 is not the first year in the history of the world in which money has been scarce. It has been scarce every autumn in this country since the issue of greenbacks began, and if the arguments which the President advances are sound, they have been sound for the last ten years, and were sound even so late as June 30, 1870, when he approved the amendment to the original law, providing that any one "who has stopped or suspended and not resumed payment of his commercial paper within a period of fourteen days," may be proceeded against as a bankrupt. It is certainly true, as the President says, that when people are in a timid and nervous condition, they frequently injure a trader's business-standing by filing a petition against him, and that if no creditors ever took any proceedings whatever against their debtors, there would be no bankrupts in the country. It is also true that any law for the enforcement of debts may be made use of by "obdurate creditors" to "frighten or force debtors into acts of injustice to other creditors and to themselves," but what has all this to do with the question?

What the President says—and it is a very good résumé of the current arguments on the subject—is in reality directed against any kind of an insolvent law which authorizes proceedings against debtors in cases where they have not committed acts of fraud. The only difference between a bankrupt law and an insolvent law—other things being equal—is that one is "uniform" and gives a discharge of debts through the whole country, while the other is local and applies to a single State. The President probably had no intention of going to the length of maintaining that careful and prudent men who become involved ought to be able on proof of "due diligence" to be relieved from the obligations imposed by law on the rest of the community. There are a great many other statutes besides the bankrupt law which in times like these are a serious embarrassment to "careful and prudent men," as for instance the laws relating to attachment, execution, and sale under foreclosure.

It is very much to be hoped that there will be some intelligent discussion of the matter somewhere, and that, before the act is repealed out of hand, some light will be thrown on its actual operation. For example, we should like to know whether it has not had a very good effect on railroads, in creating an increased sense of responsibility where it is so much needed, and in facilitating the enforcement of debts against them created by mortgages. When five or six years ago there was some doubt whether a railroad could, under the provisions of the act, be adjudged a bankrupt, the companies in every test-case made the most strenuous efforts to resist it, though without success, and they were wise in their generation. The large debts which all railroads owe are mostly secured by bond and mortgage; but this security to the ordinary bondholder is not by any means what it seems to be on paper. The mortgage is usually made out to three trustees, who are supposed to represent the bondholders' interests, and to take steps for foreclosure if the interest is not paid; but these trustees are not the servants of the bondholders, not their representatives, not even selected by them. They are mere agents of the road, closely connected with its management, and in case of trouble their interests are opposed to those of the bondholders for whom they act as trustees. Let any one who holds a railroad bond look at the names of the three gentlemen to whom it runs, and ask himself whether they will be very likely, in case of a default of interest, to take steps to foreclose the mortgage, when foreclosure will destroy the stocks, put an end to the nice contracts, and, in a word, overturn the régime by which they live. But let a petition in bankruptcy be filed, and there is a wonderful difference in the appearance of the scene. If the road is really insolvent, its affairs are wound up under the superintendence of a committee of the creditors, appointed not by the railroad but by a court; while, if the road is solvent, heaven and earth will be moved to make some arrangement by which its debts can be paid and bankruptcy averted; for bankruptcy, as the President says, is unpleasant. Here we have a distinct advantage secured to a large class of the community by the act, and one which could not, it seems to us, be secured in any other way. At any rate, these facts about railroads make it evident that the matter ought to be discussed in a spirit quite different from that which dictated the paragraph in the President's message which we have quoted, and we trust that before the matter is disposed of this will be done.

THE ORGANIZATION OF CONGRESS.

WASHINGTON, Dec. 6, 1873.

THE two Houses of Congress are once more in working order. For some time it looked as if the Cuban difficulty would become the all-absorbing subject of discussion until Christmas, but at the present moment the prevailing sentiment seems to be, the less said about that, the better. Con-

gress is, a few Senators and Representatives excepted, not at all in a warlike mood, and the same may be said, I think, of several members of the Administration. The Secretaries of War and of the Navy, indeed, seized this occasion to blow themselves up into new importance, to indulge in bellicose bluster, and to spend large sums of money in preparation for emergencies. A war would undoubtedly have been welcome to them, as an inflation of the currency would be to business men in doubtful circumstances. But the Secretary of State wanted peace, and, if I am correctly informed, he would have conducted the negotiations with Spain in a much more moderate and cautious spirit, had not, at the beginning, the impression prevailed here that the "excitement and indignation" in the country were genuine, and that the Administration would not be able to sustain itself in Congress and before public opinion without a war-whoop. It was probably this fear, which was not allayed until a large number of Senators and Representatives had arrived here, which prevented a calm consideration of the question, and led the Secretary into a position with regard to the status of the *Virginius* as an American ship, and the right of Spain to arrest and take her, which he otherwise might not have chosen, and would have been sorry to maintain by force of arms. As matters now stand, it is not unlikely that a discussion of the subject in Congress will be avoided unless the volunteers in Cuba should refuse to deliver the *Virginius*, and thus open the whole question once more. What turn things would take in that case it is impossible to predict. I know that the position taken by the *Nation* in this matter is shared by a very respectable number of influential men in both Houses; but many of them might feel compelled to stand by the Administration in insisting upon the execution of the agreement once made between the Governments of Spain and the United States, while others would probably discuss the question on its real merits.

It was at first expected by many that the President, as well as those of the Republican leaders with whom party success is the supreme object, would eagerly seize upon a foreign war to divert the attention of the country from the Crédit-Mobilier disclosures, the back-pay business, and several other untoward occurrences which had so seriously embarrassed the ruling party, and also to neutralize the evil effects which the financial crisis had produced on the popular mind. The opportunity seemed indeed very seductive. It is interesting to observe the curious reasoning by which the party leaders, especially those who think of themselves as possible candidates for the Presidential succession in 1876, arrived at the opposite conclusion. A war with Spain, they argue, would probably not be a very long one. Even if successful, it would produce very serious financial embarrassments. If it closed a year or two before the next Presidential election, the evil results would have disclosed themselves just in time to affect the popular mind, a reaction would set in at the most critical moment, and the party which conducted the war would be placed in a very precarious situation. There is certainly much good sense in this, and for once partisan shrewdness may have been of service to a good cause. The President himself, who has never devoted much attention to international law, is said to understand at least this feature of the case, and to prefer in this instance a diplomatic to a military triumph.

The defeats of the Republican party at the late State elections, as well as the farmers' movement and the financial crisis, have created an impression among the faithful that after all the party is mortal, and that something must be done to keep it alive. Honesty, economy, virtue generally, and "statesmanship" are in great demand. The eagerness of members of Congress to commend themselves to the good opinion of their countrymen by a vigorous condemnation of the "salary grab," and the repeal of the obnoxious law, is almost ludicrous to behold. In the Senate, Mr. Conkling made haste to vindicate himself by the introduction of a bill providing that the back-pay which had been drawn and turned over to General Spinner, or which had been left in the hands of the Secretary of the Senate, as Mr. Conkling had left his, subject to the disposition of the Senator or Representative entitled to it, be covered into the Treasury, beyond the reach of such Senator and Representative, as well as their respective heirs; and in the Republican caucus of the House, there was all the excitement of a race as to who should be ahead in moving the repeal. This is well as far as it goes. But the appointment of the committees exhibits the majority in both Houses as much in the old party "ruts" as before. It is true several Republican Senators decided that, in order to reunite all who had been Republicans on a common ground, it was time to throw off the narrow partisan spirit which had prevailed last year, and to invite the Liberals, especially Messrs. Sumner and Schurz, to the Republican caucus. This project, however, was defeated by the strict disciplinarians, especially, as rumor has it, by Chandler and Conkling, who insist that, according to the good old rule, "deserters must be shot"; but the reconciliationists succeeded at least in prevailing upon the caucus to assign the Liberals to positions on the committees instead of leaving them at the mercy of the Democrats. Thus the Liberals were put on committees between the Republicans and the Democrats, as a sort of middle party, and, as the irony of accident would have it, Mr. Sumner's name figures near the bottom of the Committee on Education and Labor, at the head of which stands Mr. Flannagan of Texas as chairman—the very caricature of a Senator, who can neither spell nor speak correctly, and whose ignorance and buffoonery are the amusement of the galleries. But Mr. Flannagan is a strict party man. It may have been intended as a concession to public opinion that the Committee on Civil Service and Retrenchment was revived, but upon the list of its members we find not a single active friend of civil-service reform, while almost all of them are experienced whitewashers who have already given ample proof of their proficiency in the business. No less significant is it that Mr. Stewart, who has more than once been taunted on the floor of the Senate with being the attorney of one of the Pacific Railroad companies, remains Chairman of the Committee on Pacific Railroads.

In the House no changes have been made that would materially alter the character of the committees. Neither the Crédit-Mobilier nor the back-pay scandal was permitted to affect their composition or the distribution of the chairmanships, and, in fact, they could not, without completely disorganizing the party. The Ways and Means Committee has a majority of protectionists; the Committee on Banking and Currency, more important than ever, is about equally divided between inflationists and advocates of specie payments, and General Butler remains chairman of the Judiciary, to expound the law to the House of Representatives. Evidently it requires more than a sudden impression that virtue is a necessity to reform an old party organization that has fallen under the control of bad elements. What legislation we may expect of this Congress nobody can predict. There is an unusually large proportion of new and inexperienced men in the House, many of whom will be apt to be handled like chess-figures by the old tricksters, unless an intelligent and vigorous pressure of public opinion upon them be kept up. In that way the success of jobs may be avoided, and the present fit of virtue may be prevented from exhausting itself in the repeal of the salary law.

As to the most important question, that of the currency, the cry for "more money" will undoubtedly be very strong in the House. There is some danger of the success of the inflationists there. The confused recommendations in the President's message have rather aided than weakened them, for they have been taught how to put forth loud professions in favor of specie payments, while practically advising an expansion of the currency. But, judging from present appearances, I think the inflationists will have to meet the most determined resistance in the Senate. That body has, as far as known, not yet been canvassed with regard to that question, but the opponents of expansion think themselves strong enough, even if no positive measure in the direction of specie payments can be carried, to prevent the passage of any inflation scheme. But there does not seem to be any probability of financial legislation being hurried through before Christmas, although the inflationists may make an attempt in the House. The Senate will have to take up the Louisiana case again—Mr. Pinchback, the late Governor, demanding admission as the Senator-elect of the Kellogg faction. The party whip will probably once more try its power on that occasion, as it has already done in the House. But I hear that the Kellogg faction in Louisiana will urge a new investigation, in which they expect to show up more clearly the fraudulent practices of Warmoth in conducting the election. In case the investigation is granted, some time may elapse before the Pinchback case is ripe for final decision.

THE MARSHAL AND THE ASSEMBLY.

PARIS, Nov. 20.

LAST night, at two o'clock, the powers of Marshal MacMahon were prolonged for the term of seven years, on the following conditions: The Marshal is now and will remain the mere delegate and servant of the Assembly, so long as the constitutional laws are not made. Among these laws there will be one on the powers and prerogative of the executive; and when this law has been voted, the Marshal will enter immediately upon the prerogative as defined by the Constituent Chamber. The national sovereignty is therefore intact; the representatives of the people are free to make the constitutional law or the executive as they like. The talk about a dictatorship seems therefore quite idle. The powers of MacMahon are defined in the present and will be defined for the future.

This solution will perhaps surprise many people out of France. It will not be well understood by those who start from abstract theoretical principles, and who do not take into consideration the very peculiar state of

France and the composition of the French Assembly. The most natural solution, in a logical sense, would have been this: Keep the Marshal in power on the actual terms of his tenure of office; during the *statu quo* make the constitutional laws; and, these laws once made, proceed to a presidential election, on the terms marked out by the law on the executive. This solution was advocated by moderate republicans like M. Laboulaye, on constitutional grounds, and was desired by M. Thiers and by M. Gambetta, because both expected that a presidential election, whatever rules might be devised for holding it, would not turn in favor of Marshal MacMahon. In ordinary circumstances, and admitting that the country was determined to establish republican institutions, the constitutional work was the only thing of importance, and there was no necessity of immediately trusting any man with the executive power for a number of years. But let us consider a moment what was the situation of the Chamber and of the country when the session began. The Comte de Paris had made his visit to the Comte de Chambord on the 5th of May; the fusion was complete between the two monarchical parties. They had adopted the same platform—representative government, equality of rights, the tricolor flag as a symbol of the abandonment of all privileges of the *ancien régime*. The monarchical party was conscious of its preponderance in the Chamber, and saw no further obstacle to the re-establishment of the monarchy. In the country, the expectation of the monarchy was only counterbalanced by the fear of the Comte de Chambord's disposition. His name was certainly unpopular, and the partial elections which took place turned in favor of republican candidates, less on account of any progress of republican ideas than because the electors thought it necessary to reinforce the Liberal element in a Chamber which was on the point of treating with the pretender. The negotiation began, and you know all its vicissitudes. At the very moment when everything seemed arranged, when the accord seemed complete between the representatives of the monarchical party and Henri V., the country was informed that it was the victim of an illusion, and the negotiations were broken off. Henri V. abdicated morally, if not formally. The country, notwithstanding its instinctive fear of the Bourbons, had become reconciled to the idea of the restoration, chiefly because it was thoroughly worn out and tired of political agitation. The uncertainty of the future, the dread of the Commune, the necessity of reorganizing the army and of placing France in a situation in which she could form alliances and resume her station in Europe—all these causes combined had rendered a solution of the political problem imperative.

During the last three years, not a step had really been made towards definitive institutions. In a country like France, so centralized, where everything depends on the executive, where there is no political force outside of the Government, incertitude is almost unbearable. It must always be borne in mind that France has no semi-independent states or provinces; that she is governed and administered by eighty-six prefects, who are the obedient agents of a Minister of the Interior; that this minister, politically speaking, is almost all-powerful. This organization has been the work of centuries. It was the historical task of Tocqueville to show that the great Revolution of 1789 really followed, in all administrative matters, the traditions of Richelieu, of Louis XIV.; that the prefects of Napoleon were only the successors of the intendants of the *Grand Roi*. Represent to yourselves in imagination a country where all the relations of life, with the exception of the family relations, are more or less controlled by the authority of a prefect. "Who is the new prefect?" is the great question asked in the provinces after each revolution. He comes from Paris (and under Louis XIV. it was already a rule not to send intendants to the provinces where they were born), unknown to the inhabitants. He is generally a lawyer; he is poor—that is to say, he has no fortune of his own; he enters the palace of the prefecture, generally the largest and handsomest building in the town; every office-holder of the department comes to pay him court; the general is under his orders; the bishop owes him the first call; the judges, the municipal officers, the gendarmes, the engineers of the Ponts-et-Chaussées, the professors of the university, the telegraph agents, surround him all the year round. He is more than a man, he is the law; he represents a new ideal, the *administration;* and in France, the tendency has always been to give to the state the superintendence of every department of social activity. The railways themselves will some day belong to the state, as they have not been conceded in perpetuity. The telegraphs, the high-roads, the schools, the hospitals, the public libraries, everything belongs to the state. I will not here compare the two systems—the system of self-government and the French administrative system; both have their advantages and their disadvantages. I will only say that, in the French system, the tenure of the executive power becomes a vital question for the country. As everything depends on what is called the administration, and as the administration is chosen by the executive, every change in the executive is a sort of revolution in the country. It is for this reason that so many Liberals in France would prefer a monarchy. Even under a monarchy, a change of cabinet has too disturbing an influence in the country; but a dynasty might become popular enough to allow the provinces more independence, and it is doubtful if the Republicans will ever consent to any diminution of the powers of the state. They have always been the most determined centralizers. After the 4th of September, the government of Gambetta would not even hear of elections. Gambetta felt that he represented the "République une et indivisible." He would have no one speak for Brittany or for Lorraine. The monarchy is impossible for the present; but as the monarchical hopes were chiefly a craving for the consolidation of the executive power, the prolongation of Marshal MacMahon's term was decided.

The idea originated with the Duc de Broglie; it was not altogether a new one. The friends of M. Thiers, while he was President, had at various times spoken of giving him a fixed tenure of office for three years; but the Assembly, even at the time when M. Thiers was its delegate, was always deaf to such a proposition. It was not so in the case of MacMahon. The Marshal, since the 24th May, had never made his appearance in the Chamber, he had never interfered personally in the debates; he had in reality played the part of a constitutional king, and given all the reality of power to the Duc de Broglie, keeping only for himself the duties of a reorganization of the army. If France could have no constitutional king, the thing which resembled it the most was MacMahon. Once in power for ten years or seven years, he would be, with the name of President, a real Regent or Lieutenant-General of the kingdom. The large majority which has been found to vote for the prolongation was ever ready to hinder the return of M. Thiers and of the Republicans to power. This majority is essentially conservative. This will explain to you why, after the letter of the Comte de Chambord, no attempt was made to recommence legally, so to speak, 1830—to place the Comte de Paris directly on the throne, or even to give the Regency to him or to some other member of his family. In the great agitation which followed the rupture of the negotiations with Henri V., these extremities were thought of for a moment, but they never were seriously entertained. There was a savor of revolution in them which displeased the greater part of the majority. The prolongation was a milder form of protest of the majority against the folly of the king. The time is past when a king was seized, shaven, and thrown into a monastery. Every Legitimist of common sense understood that the Comte de Chambord had destroyed himself. The Royalists, who were in the majority in the Chamber, who are honestly convinced that the triumph of the Republic in France can only prepare the triumph of the Commune and the dismemberment of the country, could not change all their ideas in a night and become converted by a sort of miracle to republicanism. The scheme of the prolongation became a sort of resting-place for all uneasy and disturbed minds. It was clearly stated in the message of Marshal MacMahon that the prolongation would be an extension of the truce of parties. Republicans and Monarchists can and will continue, under the stern government of a loyal soldier, who will be a servant of the law as he always was of his duty, to preserve their hopes for the ultimate triumph of their doctrines. If the Comte de Chambord should die, or should abdicate, the Monarchists would probably bring forward a proposition for the re-establishment of monarchy. It is confidently expected in the monarchical party that, in such a case, Marshal MacMahon would resign his functions, and would not offer any obstacle to a restoration. It is, perhaps, idle to make such suppositions; the Comte de Chambord is not likely to abdicate, and he is much younger than the Marshal.

Practically, the situation of France is now this: Marshal MacMahon will be a sort of constitutional king; he will preserve order with the greatest rigor, and order is the chief necessity for a country which has been deprived of two provinces, and convulsed by a civil war. The Chamber will continue to exercise its legislative and its constituent rights; it will constitute an Upper Chamber, and probably give an important part in it to the representatives of the departmental councils-general. This innovation will, in my opinion, have the most beneficial effect on the future of the country; it will stimulate the formation of local and provincial influences, while it will add lustre to the central government. The Chamber will also frame a new election law, and probably disfranchise all the electors who do not appear in the lists of the tax-gatherer, even for the trifling sum of three francs, which represents what is called the personal tax. A new municipal law will also be made. When all this is done, the Constituent Assembly will dissolve; and even if the electoral body return a Radical Chamber, which is very unlikely, the President, with the help of the Upper Chamber, will be able to counteract its action. It must not be supposed that MacMahon can be deposed by a new Chamber; he has been called to his new function by a constituent law—that is, by a law which cannot be changed during the term for which it has been made.

Correspondence.

THE ATTORNEY-GENERALSHIP.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: We all look to your paper for speaking the truth and for correct notions, and are shocked at your saying the nomination of Mr. Williams for Chief-Justice is "respectable." No lawyer who has ever encountered him considers the nomination anything but discreditable, and it is made at a time when Mr. Williams's feebleness as a lawyer has been conspicuously demonstrated by his appearance in the Crédit-Mobilier suit, where he not merely failed to argue his own side tolerably, but did not know, and showed that he did not know, enough to appreciate the positions and arguments of the defendants, or to understand their force.

Your paragraph was a blow to your legal readers here; hence these lines, which I hope you will take kindly.—Yours truly, T. H.

Boston, December 5, 1873.

[We discussed Mr. Williams's appointment simply as the alternative of Mr. Conkling's, and supposed we had made this sufficiently clear. But we confess we are satisfied, from the remonstrances we have since received, that, little as we said for him, we said too much. We admitted that he was neither learned nor able, but we now believe he is not "respectable" in the best sense of that term, and that his appointment would be scandalous. We ought to add that Mr. Conkling has postponed the study of finance for the present, and is busily "working" for Mr. Williams's confirmation. The Administration papers still continue to hint that there *is* a subject on which Mr. Conkling could speak with authority. If they will only mention what it is—provided it is not mixed metaphor—we shall be all ears. "Authorities" are nowadays very scarce, and the public is eager for guidance.—Ed. Nation.]

CHURCH DISCIPLINE.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: The *Nation* is almost invariably accurate and reliable, but the article in last week's issue on "Church Discipline" is based upon a singular misapprehension of facts. Neither Mr. Beecher nor Plymouth Church "hold that it is none of the church's business what a member's way of life is," nor that "enquiries into his morals and manners with the view of making him the subject of ecclesiastical discipline are futile and mischievous." It was not deemed advisable to exercise discipline in the particular case you refer to for several reasons, one of which was that the person had practically ceased to be a member four years previous; but the church made no such declaration of principles as your article attributes to it. The church merely asserted its own independence. The readers of the *Nation* have so much confidence in it that the article on "Church Discipline" is likely to mislead those not conversant with the facts. A. A. H.

New York, Dec. 8, 1873.

[We attributed no "declaration of principles" to the church. We commented on Mr. Beecher's speech, and pointed out what we conceived to be a legitimate deduction from his definition of the church's duty in the matter of discipline, as illustrated by its practice. We explained our position as well as we could without citing cases, which was not necessary for our purpose. Our article will "mislead no one who is conversant with the facts," and will enlighten, we hope, a good many who are not. It was written in aid of the great work of expelling canting knaves from organizations designed to promote religion and morality—a work which we hold to be the principal part of the reform movement of the day. We may add that, while believing Mr. Beecher to be seriously mistaken as to his duty in dealing with the wretched creatures who have been pestering him during the last year, we have no feelings to express towards him, under present circumstances, but sympathy and respect.—Ed. Nation.]

WHAT MAKING THE CURRENCY "ELASTIC" MEANS.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: The popular fallacy of the day in the treatment of the currency question is the theory that if a new issue of legal-tender notes is made by the Government, convertible at the pleasure of the holder into bonds bearing interest at $3\frac{65}{100}$ per cent. and *vice versa*, the quality termed elasticity will be imparted to the currency.

In order to exhibit the entire futility, or worse, of the proposed method of imparting elasticity to our legal-tender currency, it is only necessary to recur once more to the true nature of the legal tender note. It is, as has so often been said, only an instrument by which the Government collected a forced loan. It is the dishonored promise of dollars forced into circulation by law in order that the Government might obtain the means to carry on war. It is to-day a lie and a fraud: a lie because it promises what the Government does not perform, and a fraud, because it is continued in forced circulation on the plea of necessity, after the need has ceased. The plan now proposed is to issue more legal-tender notes—that is, to collect a new forced loan. There is no pretence that the Government needs to borrow (its income is more than its expenditure), yet it is proposed that it shall borrow say one hundred millions, and force new legal-tender notes into circulation to that extent.

But how will it force these notes out? The revenue is ample and meets all expenses. The Government cannot lend these legal-tender notes; it wishes to buy nothing that it has not now the means to pay for. Then it can only get these proposed new notes into circulation by purchasing the five or six per cent. U. S. bonds now outstanding—there is absolutely no other possible course. The theory, therefore, is that the present six and five per cent. bonds will be sold to the Government at or about the present moderate premium by some one who wants legal-tender notes bearing no interest more than he wants bonds bearing five or six per cent. interest in gold; he is then to make use of these notes as money for a time, and it is to be presumed that such use will be at a rate of profit of more than five or six per cent. gold, else there will be no conversion; next, it is assumed that the rate of interest or profit will fall not only to 5 but even to $3\frac{65}{100}$ per cent., and the notes will return to the Treasury. If such a course were possible, all the recent successful and unsuccessful attempts to fund our six per cent. bonds at five per cent. have been useless, since on this new method it has needed only a moderate additional issue of dishonored promises, and the debt to the extent of such issue would either bear no interest at all or convert itself from six and five per cent. even down to $3\frac{65}{100}$ per cent. The very rate of interest proposed is evidence that the project is one that presumes ignorance, not only of the effect of the cheat, but also of the common rules for casting interest, for no people capable of estimating interest *except* at the rate of one cent a day on each hundred dollars could be tricked by such a device.

Let me repeat the process as it must work, if it works at all, in a business formula. Bear in mind that the new notes can only be got into circulation through the purchase of outstanding bonds (unless, indeed, the Secretary of the Treasury concludes to buy and store away a large sum in gold).

A wants money to pay debts with, and has or can obtain 10-40 five per cent. bonds, on which he cannot borrow legal-tender notes now in circulation, as money is scarce and the market rate of interest is high. He takes these bonds to the Treasury and sells at market price, say 108. For $10,000 of 10-40 bonds, bearing interest at 5 per cent. in gold, he gets $10,800 legal-tender notes bearing no interest; and these notes he forces upon his creditor B, under due process of law. This creditor B (or we may presume to call him B. F. B., the chief promoter of this fraudulent device), having been forced to accept these new notes thus added to the volume of the currency, passes them to D, a distinguished New York banker, also an advocate of the plan; and as D can no longer find a use for the notes, either in building railroads or selling dry-goods, and cannot find any one to whom he can lend them at over $3\frac{65}{100}$ per cent. interest in currency, he takes them to the Treasury and converts them into bonds at that rate!

The course of the new notes may be short or long; they may be funded by D, or they may be paid out by him upon some railroad enterprise, and finally get into a savings-bank, and thence into the Treasury; but they cannot get out of the Treasury except in exchange for a five or six per cent. gold bond; and they cannot get in except by conversion into a $3\frac{65}{100}$ currency bond. In other words, if the thing is done at all, it will be done by the Government issuing, at the present market rate of its five per cents, evidence of debt for $10,800 for each $10,000 of debt bought in, and then converting this evidence of debt for $10,800 into another form for the same amount at $3\frac{65}{100}$ per cent. interest. Every such issue will increase the aggregate amount of debt, and it can only diminish the burden of interest upon the supposition that the community consists entirely of knaves or fools—knaves who will authorize or promote the issue of more lying and cheating promises of a dishonored Government, and fools who would reconvert them into other promises of the same Government at a lower rate of interest than has ever prevailed in the United States on the safest mortgage of real pro-

perty. The fact would be that any such new issue of legal-tender notes would be at once absorbed by the rise in prices sure to follow; and as such a breach of trust as the collection of a forced loan in time of peace would impair if it did not altogether destroy confidence, the rate of interest would rise instead of falling, since every owner of real capital in land or merchandise would refuse to part with it except he charged, in addition to the interest for its use, a full guarantee against further fraud or ultimate repudiation on the part of the Government.

This scheme is nothing but the old greenback device in a new form, promoted by the same advocates, and as sure to result in making the rich richer and the poor poorer. It is another proposition to pick the pockets of the people under due process of law, and to cheat the ignorant under the false pretence of making money plenty and cheap. If such an act is done, it will prove that the late panic has ended too soon and has not been severe enough. It has been apparent for many months that this nation is not to be taught the need of using good money by any teaching except the disaster which surely follows the use of bad money, and that Congress will not cease from reissuing counterfeit dollars until the mass of the people have learned that they have been cheated by the hard pinch of want. If the lesson of the last two months has not been severe enough, it may be our fate to have another legal fraud perpetrated upon us before the final retribution comes.

NEW ENGLANDER.

BOSTON, December 1, 1873.

Notes.

G. P. PUTNAM'S SONS will add to their 'Handy-Book Series' a volume containing a detailed record of the administration of our Government from 1776 to 1873, and entitled 'Hand-Book of Statistics of the United States.' It has been compiled by Mr. M. C. Spaulding. To their series of 'Popular Manuals' they will add a plain account, partly historical, of 'Women before the Law,' by Prof. John Proffat.——J. B. Lippincott & Co. will shortly issue the 'History of English Institutions,' by Philip V. Smith, and 'The Border-Land of Science,' by Richard N. Proctor.——L. W. Schmidt, 24 Barclay Street, announces that, after January 1, he will add to his customary importations of books from England, Germany, and France regular weekly shipments from Italy. This is, we believe, the first attempt on the part of our foreign booksellers to keep the reading public *au courant* with Italian literature as with German and French, and we hope it will be sustained.——Karl Knortz is publishing in *Der Deutsche Pionier*, of Cincinnati, extracts from David Zeisberger's journal, from the original MS. in the possession of the Ohio Historical and Philosophical Society. The journal has never been edited before.——The Surgeon-General's Report, U.S.A., states that the second volume of the 'Medical and Surgical History of the War' is rapidly passing through the press, and that the edition of the first volume has proved insufficient to supply the demand for it from ex-medical officers who served through the late war. The library of the Army Medical Museum now contains about 25,000 volumes and 15,000 pamphlets, and is rapidly growing in importance.——J. W. Bouton will publish the work on which the late Mr. J. C. Hotten was engaged at the time of his death, namely, 'Original List of Emigrants, etc., who went from Great Britain to the American Plantations, 1600–1700.' Also the following: 'Lost Beauties of the English Language'; 'Ireland's Shakespeare Forgeries'; and 'The Story of the Stick, in all Ages and Lands.'——Rev. Thomas Vickers has, after a sharp contest, been appointed Mr. W. F. Poole's successor in the Cincinnati Public Library.

—John H. Carmany & Co., San Francisco, have nearly ready for publication a book of some importance and interest to naturalists, on the natural history of the whale, by Captain Charles M. Scammon, of the Revenue Marine. The title of the book is 'The Marine Mammals of the Northwestern Coast of North America; together with an account of the American Whalefishery.' It is in shape a large quarto, which has enabled Captain Scammon to give lithographic representations of the different varieties of whales and seals, drawn to scale; and these are very carefully and admirably done, and will present to the view of naturalists probably the most perfect representations of these immense mammals which have ever been made. Captain Scammon has been for many years engaged in the collection of material for the work, and has brought together a large quantity of new and valuable information concerning the habits of whales, of which but little is generally known, as well as of their food, their diseases, etc. The book is to be sold by subscription only, we understand, and it will make its way into the libraries of lovers and students of natural history as one of the few scientific treatises on its subject, and the most complete and correct of the number.

—The New York *Independent* has just been celebrating its twenty-fifth anniversary, and, for a paper of its venerable age and its religious turn of mind, some of its conduct on its birthday was peculiar. Its treatment of the Rev. Justin D. Fulton, for instance, appears to reveal a settled conviction that branding on the forehead and subsequent deportation to a desolate island are the treatment best adapted to the case of that divine. The closing sentence of the article devoted to the doctor is not the severest thing in it, but even that is as follows: "Just why a man of Mr. Saunders's self-respect has withdrawn from Dr. Fulton's paper Mr. Saunders has not informed us; but we can surmise." The reader, it will be seen, has liberty to surmise too; but not many of the persons who put themselves to that trouble will frame the hypothesis, after reading the *Independent's* remarks, that Mr. Saunders's real reason for withdrawing from the paper was his belief that Dr. Fulton is far too good for mere man to associate with. According to the writer's assertions in the preceding part of his article, Mr. Saunders probably withdraws for a cause very remote in character from the one suggested: "We do not wish to insist," he says, "in any hypercritical spirit that the eminent pastor of the Hanson-Place church should always confine himself to the truth. That, indeed, would be requiring altogether too much." That Dr. Fulton came into these parts from Boston is dimly alluded to in the following words: "There is in this region a vulgar prejudice in favor of veracity which must sometimes be conciliated," and in view of this fact the writer suggests to his Massachusetts friend "that he should be careful not to make statements which everybody knows to be the reverse of true." As for the facts about the Mr. Saunders above-mentioned, they turn out to be something like this: Saunders withdraws from Fulton's paper, taking with him, unless the *Independent* is mistaken, "the single element of respectability which that journal has hitherto possessed." Upon this Fulton remarks in what seems rather irrelevant language that Saunders greatly disliked one Pentecost, Fulton's predecessor—and, as we are led to suspect, a heretic—but that Saunders is very fond of Fulton by reason of Fulton's superiority to Pentecost in matters of doctrine. But, to use the language of the *Independent*, Fulton, in making this statement, speaks "the thing that is not," and the fact is that it is Pentecost and not Fulton who has Mr. Saunders's sympathy. "Close communion" or "open communion" is, we believe, the question at issue between Dr. Pentecost and his opponents. So the thing goes on, and a pleasant sight it is to see. It is with envy, by the bye, that we note one weapon in use among religious journalists—who often are clergymen—which secular members of the craft do not possess, although they have one like it. But our clerical brethren have this and another beside. They can not only charge each other with editing a paper which is rapidly falling off in circulation—a time-honored device constantly in use—but they can also add that the reverend slanderer on the other side, the more he preaches on Sundays, the more he empties the pews: "The pew-rental of the society," says the *Independent*, "has been reduced by about one-half since the resignation of Dr. Pentecost," and since Dr. Fulton came in. Clearly the lay editor is here at a disadvantage. The enemies of Deacon Richard Smith, the Cincinnati editor, might, in consideration of his hybrid condition, he being a deacon, perhaps make some use of this engine; but, in the nature of things, it cannot be employed by the profession generally.

—So many old stories of heroic phrases and death-bed utterances have been exploded by the researches of modern criticism, that it is pleasing to find at least one the truth of which is even better than the current fiction. American coin-collectors are generally familiar with the copper tokens which, in the pre-nickel days, passed in the currency as cents, bearing, some one inscription, some another, and issued, in most cases, we believe, from no regular mint, or, at any rate, not issued in the usual way. Among these tokens was one which bore the inscription, very impressive to the non-adult population, "Millions for defence, not one cent for tribute"—an inscription which seemed in those days to describe with happy accuracy the position which the American citizen ought to take with regard to taxation for certain purposes. The story was that General Pinckney, Minister to France from the United States during the Administration of John Adams, was approached by M. de la Croix, who wished to have it understood that certain diplomatic questions then at issue between the two Governments could be more easily settled by the payment of a sum of money than in any other way. Upon this, according to the tradition, General Pinckney very melodramatically drew himself up and cried: "Millions for defence, not one cent for tribute." It seems, however, that what he did say was, "Not a penny, not a penny"; a reply better every way. This, at least, is the way in which he himself told the story, being asked long afterwards for a correct version at a meeting of a club to which he belonged in Charleston. It seems singular that the truth of the matter should not have come out before. In "Millions for defence, not one cent for tribute" an eagle-scream makes itself audible which would have sounded

strangely enough in the ears of the gentlemen of General Pinckney's generation.

—There has been some talk recently in England of a suit for libel against the *Pall Mall Gazette* by Mr. Gilbert, author of "Pygmalion and Galatea," "The Palace of Truth," and the "Wicked World." The action is for libel in permitting the publication of some remarks characterizing the "Wicked World" as a play of doubtful decency. The plot of the "Wicked World," which has recently been acting in New York, is pretty, and if there is anything of an immoral tendency in it it must be put there by the actors—an easy thing for even the most unskilful performer to do. The plot is this: The fairies of both sexes, inhabiting an abode of their own in cloud-land, are happy and good. They are apparently coeducated, but coeducation in fairyland leads only to the happiest results, for neither *Darine, Selene, Phyllon, Ethais,* nor any of the others, are tormented by human love, or indeed by any human feelings, except such as are good. They lead harmless lives, knowing neither hate, nor fear, nor jealousy, nor revenge, nor ambition; but only filled with a pure affection for one another, and pity for the wicked world beneath them, with its suffering, struggling, and unhappy inhabitants Each of the fairies is the antitype of some one on earth who bears the same name, and resembles him or her in everything save virtue. The fairies have the power of summoning among them the human beings who bear this resemblance, but if they do so they entail upon themselves certain consequences of the most lamentable kind. They will then know what human love is, and, knowing this, they will cease to be happy. Of course their discussion of the subject ends with a summons, the fairies having convinced themselves that they will be able to do the mortals whom they summon much good by the example of their own goodness. The result is easy to anticipate. *Phyllon* and *Ethais,* who are represented as mediæval knights, ascend from the earth, and, true to their instincts, as soon as they appear in fairyland begin to brawl, bluster, and fight. The fairies at once fall in love with them, and hence ensue jealousy, hate, tears, revenge, quarrels of the most internecine kind. In the end, the two knights, who care for nothing in reality but fighting, and regard woman, even when she is a fairy, as "a mere toy," suddenly return to earth, and leave the deserted fairies, for the moment, heart-broken. They recover their spirits in a measure, however, before the curtain falls, and vow that they have had enough of human love, and will hereafter remain faithful to the institutions and principles of fairyland. Although the plot is so unlike, the sentiment resembles that of "Pygmalion and Galatea," and although the plot is astonishingly unreal, the success of the play as a whole—for it has been very popular both in England and in this country—is a striking proof how very sentimental people remain at bottom notwithstanding all our talk about realism and the disinclination of the age for anything which carries it an inch aside from the beaten path of progress and the nineteenth century. It would be well for those playwrights who spend their time in devising means for making the stage more and more a facsimile reproduction of an age whose prominent features are not picturesque, but decidedly prosaic, to ask themselves seriously what is the reason that such plays as "Pygmalion and Galatea" and the "Wicked World"—with all their faults and their unreality—interest the public.

—In our recent notice of Mrs. Grote's memoir of the gentleman whom she habitually describes as her "partner," considerations of space prevented us from paying due attention to the lady herself. The work, in fact, may fairly be called an autobiography of Mrs. Grote, interspersed with anecdotes of the historian of Greece. There is an old dictum of Aristotle's that "the magnanimous man thinks well of himself because he deserves to be well thought of." Each part of the definition exactly applies to her. There is, it is true, no direct, vulgar vaunting of her virtues; but she lays her merits calmly, honestly, and without any reticence, before the reader as things which ought to be known in order to understand the life of the historian. Thus, she frankly communicates to the public the details of Grote's courtship, with a freedom with which such matters are not often told to intimate friends. She prints, without a word of comment, a letter of George Grote's, in which he states that "she looked lovely beyond expression; her features still retained the same life and soul which once did so magnetize me; I never have seen it, and I never shall see it, on any other face"; and pours out all those expressions of admiration which lover after lover has written, but which are not commonly published for the edification of cold and unimpassioned readers. In the same way, the wretched baseness of a certain Mr. E., described as a "monster" who attempted to separate the lovers, is painted with an animation which reminds one strongly of the pages of a novel. We doubtless owe these details, not to vanity, but to the interest which Mrs. Grote feels in everything concerning herself, and which is so genuine that she contrives to communicate it to her readers. Her affection and admiration for her husband, her zeal in promoting his success, and the keen sympathy which she felt in his triumphs, are made as clear as day. But, at the same time, it is impossible not to feel that the lady has the most ardent desire that the public should recognize her share in his achievements. The different forms in which this tendency to self-assertion comes out are amusing and characteristic. There is, for instance, every reason to suppose that Mr. and Mrs. Grote, being throughout life warmly attached to one another, arranged their domestic affairs much after the manner of other affectionate husbands and wives; but the tone Mrs. Grote takes suggests the idea that every arrangement was the result of distinct negotiations between friendly but independent powers. In 1824, "George Grote consented to take his sister to Scotland, and his wife being willing to accompany him, they all made the voyage by sea," etc. "Mrs. Grote," again, "had numerous friends and connections among the aristocratic portion of society, and her inclination would fain have led her to cultivate their sympathies by frequenting their houses; but the aversion, at this early period of his life, to everything tinctured with aristocratic tastes and forms of opinion which animated George Grote's mind, obliged his wife to relinquish her intercourse with almost all families of rank and position rather than displease her somewhat intolerant partner." This sentence is in many ways typical of Mrs. Grote's manner. Throughout the book there are clear intimations that, unlimited as is her admiration for the historian, she yet feels that there are matters which she understood far better than he did, and that she was constantly a sacrifice to her sense of duty.

—That Mrs. Grote, however, deserves to be well thought of there can be no doubt. What makes her remarkable is neither cultivation, nor subtlety, nor originality, but an extraordinary amount of vigor, and what, for want of a better term, may be designated as individuality. It is to this vigor of life that her successes, both as a wife and an authoress, must be ascribed. In both capacities she achieved great results. To her is due the suggestion of the work in which Grote's powers found their real field. In the year 1823 Mrs. Grote, hearing the subject of Grecian history frequently discussed, and being well aware "how attractive the study was in her husband's eyes, thought it would be a fitting undertaking for him to write a new history of Greece himself. Accordingly she propounded this view to George Grote: 'You are always studying the ancients whenever you have a moment's leisure; now, here would be a fine subject for you to treat; suppose you try your hand?'" No one can wonder that Mrs. Grote announces with a certain solemnity her suggestion, which "seemed acceptable to the young student," and, in fact, fixed his intellectual career. No one can doubt that Mrs. Grote has a right to ascribe to herself, in great part, the credit of this suggestion being carried out with success. What were the value of her literary criticisms we have no means of judging, but a very little reflection on the great risk to which the labors of a highly cultivated scholar are constantly exposed of being rendered abortive by his own diffidence and intellectual squeamishness, will suggest that Grote owed a great deal to the fact that he had constantly by his side a companion whose warm interest in his fame made her absolutely determined that his labors should produce a definite, tangible result. In 1831, Mrs. Grote was already resolved that the "History of Greece *must* be given to the public before he can embark in any active scheme of a political kind." In 1833, she was obviously alarmed because "Grote did not apply himself, as I earnestly besought him, to the furtherance of his history during the winter, but permitted himself to graze all the field of letters." She further carried through all the negotiations with the publishers, and in every way relieved her husband from any unnecessary burdens which might interfere with his undertaking. When, in 1855, the twelfth volume was published, and the bowl of punch brewed at "History Hut" in celebration of the *opus magnum,* one can easily understand how Grote himself sipped the "delicious mixture with great satisfaction, whilst Mrs. Grote sat by and descanted on the happiness of our living to see this day."

—The excavations and discoveries by Herr Schliemann on the site of ancient Troy have attracted much attention, and few are unaware of the alleged discovery of the very ornaments and regalia of Priam. A letter from Athens in *Im Neuen Reich* (No. 41) casts doubt, not upon the discoveries, but upon Herr Schliemann's interpretation of them. Many of us, no doubt, have considered that it was hardly likely the substructions were labelled "Troy," or that the gold ornaments bore the name of Priam or Hecuba. This writer scouts altogether "der ganze trojanische Spuk"; says that the localities do not correspond at all with Homer's descriptions; and that the objects of art mostly belong to a later period, probably not before the time of the Diadochi. Another paragraph in the same number speaks of the German enterprise for excavations at Olympia, where valuable remains must exist, as it was for centuries the great repertory of works of Grecian art, and very little has been attempted there in modern times. The foundations of the temple of Zeus, discovered by the French in 1829, will afford a sure starting-point.

HADLEY'S ESSAYS.*

FEW books have as much in them to praise and as little to find fault with as Professor Hadley's 'Essays.' Not that they are so very brilliant or so very profound for these times of evolution and revolution, when your critic kills me three or four systems of the universe at a breakfast. One may read almost any of these articles with quiet interest and pleased assent without thinking it anything great. But the scholar who is competent to judge will be impressed, as he reads one after another, with the wide range of reading and reflection and the sound sense and comprehensive judgment which are everywhere shown in them. He will recognize a judicial mind of the best type, with no prejudices, clear, bright, penetrating, able to weigh the finest grain of evidence, able to set in luminous order the most complicated collection of facts and arguments, and, withal, kindly and cordial, glad to see merit and prompt to praise it. Most of these essays were prepared for some learned society or periodical; but they are, if not exactly popular, certainly very pleasant and easy reading. One reason is that they are so elementary. Whatever Professor Hadley discusses, he begins at the beginning, and supplies all the facts as he goes along which are necessary to understand him. The profound article in which he announced a new general law of the Greek accent to the American Philological Association, and which has been translated and printed in Germany by G. Curtius, begins with such full elementary statements and goes on with such simple illustrations that any one may read it with intelligent interest, though he had not before so much as heard of accent. So, when he speaks of consulting Ulfilas, he specifies "the translation of the Bible made by Bishop Ulfilas in the fourth century for his Mœso-Gothic countrymen"; and speaking of the seven wonders of the world, he names them all. Then, in his diction and the structure of his sentences, he is quite simple and pure, and flows along as though he had never read a Greek book, or perhaps we should say as though he never read anything but Greek, and Xenophon at that.

Many of the essays are summaries of the state of the question on some important point of scholarship. They are full of matter as an egg is of meat. They abound especially in clear and authoritative solutions of the difficulties most familiar to teachers of language. These are by no means confined to the Greek language. Great Greek scholar as Professor Hadley was, he seems to have studied English and its antecedents even more than Greek. The "Brief History of the English Language" which he contributed to the Webster 'Dictionary' is as perfect in its kind as his 'Greek Grammar,' and has more original research behind it. Certainly no teacher or student of English can afford to be without this book of essays. Here, for example, is an article of twenty pages on the English possessive case. Observant readers of our older literature often think that they know the ending *'s* to be a contraction of *his*; they have seen it printed in full, "*John his book*, "*Vincentio his son*," in the 'Spectator,' Shakespeare, and all the way back to Chaucer. Those who know a little Anglo-Saxon, notice that its genitive often ends in *—es*, like the Latin *—is* and Greek *—os*, and they pronounce the *his* theory ridiculous. Both should read Professor Hadley. The contemptuous Anglo-Saxon especially, though right in substance, may be benefited by learning how common the separate *his* was in late Anglo-Saxon or Semi-Saxon, and how often the colloquial dialects of Germany have formed similar collocations of undoubted pronouns: *dem Mann sein Name* for *des Mannes Name*, the man's name; *Frau Wolf ihre Töchter*, Mrs. Wolf her daughters, and the like. Professor Hadley had not observed that similar forms now and then occur in Anglo-Saxon proper, and with other pronouns than *his* in old English: *Gode his name cigdan*, they called on God his name (Ps. xcviii. 6), *Pallas her glass* for *Pallas's glass*, in Bacon.

Professor Hadley was, above all things, a philosophical grammarian and philologist, a worker in the scientific history of speech. He had, of course, made a special study of the growth of inflections. Besides the article on the English possessive just referred to, there are similar essays in this volume on "the Greek genitive as an ablative case," "the formation of Indo-European futures," "passive formations," and "the Latin subjunctive," all of them admirable illustrations of the use of the historical method by a thoroughly logical mind. One who has mastered them will have a good knowledge of the nature of inflections, and of a large number of the most noteworthy forms in the Indo-European languages, with occasional specimens from the tongues of all the outlying barbarians. In the interesting and learned essay on "passive formations," the new continued passive in English is discussed.

"In one auxiliary formation," he says, "this double use as active or passive belongs to the established idiom of our language. We say 'he is building the house' and 'the house is building'; 'while he was doing these things' and 'while these things were doing.' It is in order to avoid the ambiguity of this form that men have latterly begun to say 'the house is being built,' 'these things were being done.' These forms of the continued passive have had to undergo much severe criticism, and it can hardly be denied that they are somewhat illogical, and perhaps yet more unwieldy. Still, they have their convenience. Probably there is no man who, if the fear of the grammarians were taken from him, would not occasionally use them. Like other things which are homely and useful, they will be likely to maintain themselves against all opposition, at least in the language of conversation and extemporaneous speaking, and may possibly gain a place at last even in polite literature."

This was written in 1867, and the form has already gained a place in polite literature. It has crept into the 'Earthly Paradise,' and is quite at home in Froude and the whole generation of growing celebrities in England. And, now that it has lost the uncouthness of a new fashion, one of the new time may venture to say that, when compared with our other auxiliary formations, it is not markedly ungainly, and that the steps by which we have arrived at it have been quite natural and logical. It is the habit of our times to think much of action as continuous, to study development and progress and the like. This habit of thought leads to habits of expression discriminating continuous forms, passive no less than active. When people came to be saying at every breath, "they are entertaining him," "they are tormenting him," and the like, they were sure soon to say, "he is being entertained," "he is being tormented." The participle "being entertained" is, to be sure, a modern form, and has not in its most familiar uses fully attained the expression of continuous action which is so prominent in the active "entertaining"; but that expression belongs of right to the ending *-ing*, and the verb *be* has a hereditary claim to be associated in the expression, not only from its Indo-European meaning of *growing, becoming*, but also from its Anglo-Saxon use as a future in distinction from the stricter present, *am, is, are*. The so-called ambiguous form, according to which we are to say "he is entertaining," when we mean "he is being entertained," "receiving entertainment," never has been in familiar use, except in a few phrases. The passive form of thought in other cases was idiomatically expressed, or suppressed, by circumlocutions of one sort or another, or by changing the verb altogether. The new form is a great gain to our language.

The attention of Prof. Hadley was long and strongly drawn to those laws of speech which depend on the nature of sound and voice. He had a sensitive ear and flexible organs of speech, with every aptitude for this kind of investigation, and his work in it is the most original and fruitful which is recorded in this volume. There are articles on "Ancient Greek Rhythm and Metre," "The Nature and Theory of the Greek Accent," "The Byzantine Greek Pronunciation," "Indo-European Aspirates," "Bekker's Digammated Homer," "Ellis's Early English Pronunciation," "English Vowel Quantity in the XIIIth Century and the XIXth," "English Orthography." Some of these are in the main learned summaries, but others are work on fresh facts. The most conspicuous are those on "Greek Accent" and on "English Vowel Quantity." The former presents a comprehensive classification of the well-known rules of Greek accent, stated in the form of a causal law, which also serves as a hypothesis to connect the Sanskrit accentuation with the Greek. The hypothesis leaves a distinctively Greek "fondness for a particular succession of tones at the end of a word" as the cause of the prevalence of that succession. Such a "fondness" needs a detailed demonstration of its development, or historical grounding from some other source, to be admitted a *vera causa*, and Professor Hadley, had he lived, might well have continued and completed so important an investigation. His belief that stress did not accompany the change of pitch on the accented syllable in Greek is hard to accept, strong as is the negative evidence in favor of it. The changes of sound, especially of vowel-sound, produced by the accent in Sanskrit and Latin, and the known stress-accent in other Indo-European tongues and in modern Greek, make it seem almost certain to us that pitch and stress were never completely separated, even in Greek, however strongly pitch may have at one time predominated.

The article on English vowel-quantity is an exposition of the relations between the language of the 'Ormulum' and our present English. It shows that the quantity of the Anglo-Saxon words in our language has been preserved during great changes in the vowel sounds, thus suggesting the most subtle questions as to the nature of speech. Is time a more constant quantity than articulation? How about the Romanic side of English?

The study which Professor Hadley had given to these subjects makes his judgment worthy of the most serious consideration on all points connected with English orthography. Our popular writers, and some makers of schoolbooks who ought to know better, still go on making prejudice in behalf of our "shocking" spelling, as Professor Hadley calls it, by repeating the sayings of literary amateurs in its favor. The great philologist speaks of it more than once.

* 'Essays Philological and Critical, selected from the Papers of James Hadley, LL.D., Professor of Greek in Yale College; President of the American Oriental Society; Vice-President of the American Philological Association; Member of the National Academy of Sciences, etc.' New York: Holt & Williams. 1873.

"Franklin used to say that what we call false spelling of the vulgar was really true spelling. I do not know that I should say that, for vulgar spelling is sometimes most ingeniously absurd. But I certainly feel a good deal of hesitation about saying in regard to any man that he spells badly; I say that he does not spell like most of us; he spells singularly, peculiarly; but I do not see, on the whole, that he spells worse than the spelling-books and newspapers," p. 354. "The objections commonly urged against a new system of phonography have in my view very little weight." "But I will go further, and say that the wants of the philologist require a different system. What is important for him is that he should know the condition of a language at any given period of the past, that he may be able to trace it through its successive changes to its latest form. Now, in doing this he must depend mainly on the spelling, the writing; if this be maintained invariable from age to age amid all mutations of spoken words, the philologist is deprived of his most serviceable guide," p. 356.

Professor Hadley's scheme for printing an edition of Chaucer for popular reading may perhaps attract the attention of editors and publishers. The leading thought is to spell all words in the modern way, but when the metre requires a letter now silent to be sounded to put two dots over it, and if a word has a syllable not printed at all in modern spelling, denote it by an inverted apostrophe. The 'Canterbury Tales' would begin thus:

> "When that April' with his shower's sweet
> The drought of March hath piercëd to the root,
> And bathëd every vein in such liquór,
> Of which virtüe engendered is the flower."

This, he says, would be treating Chaucer as we do Shakespeare. It is worth trying in books of extracts and literary lectures; but it would not answer for the careful study of Chaucer and other Early English which is becoming common in our schools and colleges, and brings with it urgent need of a uniform phonetic spelling of the early texts at once reasonable and historical, like that used by Mr. Ellis. And, indeed, any extension of the use of our shocking modern orthography is much to be deprecated.

There are more articles, twenty in all. One is on the theory of E. Curtius, that the Ionians were Asiatics, whose central hive and real headquarters continued to be in Asia, while their colonies settled at Athens and elsewhere on the shores of Greece. One is on the number seven, a playful and, at the same time, really learned and interesting discussion of the prevalence of this sacred number. It contains an enumeration of the sevens in the Iliad and Odyssey, a description of those in Sanskrit, the hundred sevens of Persia, the three hundred and eighty-three of the Bible, the sevens of the Mohammedans, the sevens of Shakespeare, and then reasons as plenty as blackberries, chronological, physiological, arithmetical, astronomical. One is on Tennyson's Princess, appreciative throughout, though rather apologetic, the best part of which is the discussion of the metres and the labored diction of the poet. There are also articles on the chronology of the Hebrews, and the language of Palestine at the time of Christ, and a number of decisions of college class disputes. The last are admitted to the book as a memorial volume "in response to wishes warmly expressed from various quarters," though they were written "*currente calamo* and without special preparation, and in no case revised or corrected. Their author, doubtless, would never have thought of such a thing as making any of them public." We confess we turned to them the first thing, in the hope of finding the free expression of many delightful personal traits. It was not, perhaps, a reasonable hope in view of the nature of the exercise. At any rate, we were somewhat disappointed. The papers on Byron and that on vegetable diet have a biographical touch or two, and we find some evidence in the talk on day-dreaming that Professor Hadley's surpassing accuracy was not due to any mysterious memory, but was a matter of caution and love of truth, as with other men; it contains a familiar quotation from Wordsworth misquoted, not very badly, and which would not have been misquoted if he had read the proofs. But in general these lighter papers are valuable mainly for the same traits as those which are more labored, for the truth and sound sense which they contain. Professor Hadley was so absorbed an observer, and saw things so clearly, that he speaks merely as the mouthpiece of the truth; all personal categories seem foreign to him; he is dry light, pure, sweet—sweetness and light, if ever a man was.

We should have liked to find minute accounts of the traits and habits of study and teaching of our great scholar and instructor. A memorial volume seems hardly complete without them, and without his portrait. The appreciative preface of Professor Whitney tells us that he died on the 14th of November, 1872, in the fifty-second year of his age, that he had been for twenty-seven years an instructor in Yale College, and that "he was, in the opinion of all who knew him most fully, America's best and soundest philologist." Men of sovereign judgment, who live in the midst of great libraries, are apt to ripen slowly to public utterance. A look at the later papers of this collection makes it plain that Professor Hadley had just entered on a new period of pleasant publication of original investigations. The ripe fruit was beginning to drop freely. And then he died. No philosophy can keep such a death from seeming sad and strange.

CHILDREN'S HOLIDAY BOOKS—III.*

IT is eight years since 'Hans Brinker' was first published, and there is no good reason why it should not be in active circulation eight years hence. The story is, as we remarked at the time of its appearance, appropriate to the holiday season, yet independent of it. It will always furnish wholesome reading to the young, who will find in the skilful and natural development of character something to admire and to imitate, and for whom the descriptions of scenery and manners in Holland, and the tales from heroic Dutch history, will have an abiding charm. We should be troubled, indeed, to name any child's book written in this country which better deserves to be counted a classic. For this reason we make bold to reproach the publishers with putting at the front so bloodthirsty an illustration as that representing the capture by the boys of the robber at the *Red Lion* inn. It relates, of course, to one of the incidents of the narrative, but precisely the one which least needed illustration; and as frontispiece it conveys a false impression of the character of the story. And if we may grumble a little more about the pictures, we would point out how inferior they are in value (and would be, even if intrinsically of far greater artistic merit) to as many photographic illustrations of life in Holland. We hope that the success of 'Hans Brinker' under its new imprint will be such as to justify the publishers in preparing next year an edition somewhat more attractive typographically, and adorned with autotype views of dykes, and canals, and windmills, and skaters, and town-halls, and perhaps a portrait or two of the old-time Dutch worthies whose deeds are recounted by Mrs. Dodge.

Perhaps we ought not to class 'Buzz a Buzz' among the books intended for children, though we observe that this has been done by others, remembering, probably, Herr Busch's 'Max and Moritz.' The latter is not in our opinion, a fit child's book, and 'Buzz a Buzz,' of which the humor is even coarser, still less. There is a certain grossness of exaggeration in Busch's designs which grown folks occasionally find it hard to stomach, even when the incidents are not inherently vulgar. Some of the incidents in 'Buzz a Buzz' are of this description, and parents of ordinary refinement, if they smile at the representations at all, will be careful not to do so in the presence of their children.

Of quite a different character are the designs in 'Good Little Children,' 'Maggie's Mistake,' and 'Little Laddie,' from the sympathetic pencil of L. Frölich. The style of this artist is now so familiar to every one that it is hardly necessary to speak of it, except, perhaps, to observe that, while it retains all its old spirit and excellence of conception of children, it shows a tendency to exaggerate in drawing, making the heads immense and the necks and chests painfully small. But he is, as usual, a large part if not the chief attraction of the books he illustrates. In 'Good Little Children,' the only text is the titles underneath the pictures—each of which occupies a page—which run: "Good little children never say 'No' when they ought to say 'Yes,' nor 'Yes' when they ought to say 'No.' It is a dreadful thing to tell stories." Or, "When good little children are asked to repeat a little poem or a little fable, they say it prettily, at once." Or, "Good little children finish their soup to the last spoonful, but they never tilt their plates in this way." The whole thing is very pleasant and attractive, and ought to be a complete seduction into the paths of virtue for the most abandoned infant.

'Davie and Dot' is a companion piece to 'Good Little Children,' the text being rather more extended and equally happy; the pictures rather fewer, and, to our taste, not so attractive. The simplicity of the little ones in these designs is studied instead of instinctive, and the posturing and dressing are too theatrical. A picture freest from these defects is the one described beneath: "This is the best way to do it. Dot holds the nail, and then Davie can take both hands to the hammer. Now for a good blow right on the head of the nail."

'Maggie's Mistake' is an admirably conceived school-girl's story. Its autobiographical form, instead of being a drawback, as it is apt to be in

* 'Hans Brinker; or, The Silver Skates. A Story of Life in Holland. By Mary Mapes Dodge. Illustrated by Darley, Nast, and others.' New York: Scribner, Armstrong & Co.

'Buzz a Buzz; or, The Bees. Translated from the German of Wilhelm Busch. By Hezekiah Watkins. With the original German illustrations, and 28 original designs by Park Benjamin.' New York: Henry Holt & Co.

'Good Little Children. Adapted from the French of P. J. Stahl. With thirty-two illustrations from designs by Lorenz Frölich.' New York: Pott, Young & Co.

'Davie and Dot: their Pranks and Pastimes. Adapted from the French of P. J. Stahl. With twenty-four illustrations from designs by E. Froment.' New York: Pott, Young & Co.

'Maggie's Mistake: A School-girl's Story. By the author of 'Aunt Annie's Stories,' etc. With twenty-four illustrations by L. Frölich.' New York: Pott, Young & Co.

'Little Laddie. By the Author of 'Little Mother,' 'Little Rosy's Travels,' etc. With twenty-four illustrations by L. Frölich.' New York: Thomas Nelson & Sons.

'Sketches of Natural History; or, Songs of Animal Life. Written by Mary Howitt, and illustrated with upwards of One Hundred Drawings by H. Giacomelli, illustrator of 'The Bird,' by Michelet.' New York: T. Nelson & Sons.

'Rhoda Thornton's Girlhood. By Mrs. Mary E. Pratt.' Illustrated by C. G. Bush. Boston: Lee & Shepard.

'The Life of a Bear. His Birth, Education, and Adventures. With twenty-four Illustrations.' New York: Pott, Young & Co.

children's stories, here adds to the naïveté of the confessions and the liveliness and naturalness of the narrative. The author knows the small schoolgirl character well, and remembers with delightful accuracy the "ways that are dark and the tricks that are vain" of that class of little intense human beings. "Maggie," who tells the story, prides herself on being a "high-spirited" child, and thinks people don't know how to "manage" her. She is sent to the small and select boarding-school of Mrs. Comfort, who abandons the charge of her pupils to Miss Careless. A fine crop of bad habits springs up under this popular teacher, when she is deposed to make way for Miss Power. Under Miss Power things are very much altered. The girls determine in a body not to submit to the new rules, to remain "high-spirited," and not become like the good little girls in books—like Ellen, for instance, in the 'Wide, Wide World,' or Fleda in 'Queechy,' who used "to cry whole bucketsful of tears." So they cultivate the female capacity for small and ingenious worrying—a quality which has its analogue in the petty cruelty of boys—and endeavor to worry Miss Power from the school. The task of reforming these torments and delivering an instructive lesson through the lips of the chief sinner is very skilfully done, the interest of the story not in any way flagging, nor the human nature ceasing. The close of the book finds Miss Power loved as well as respected, while the reader will particularly like her, as she is a lady of few words, no moralizing, a discerning disciplinarian, and one who has the capacity for turning the experience of her scholars into their best teacher.

Another good book this year is 'Little Laddie.' It is for very small people, the hero being a Johnny who cannot talk plainly. There is just a trifle too much of this baby talk—"I've got somesing so nice for 'ou, 'ickle birdies," being the style which, once begun, the author feels bound to stick to consistently all through. The incidents are sprightly and interesting in spite of the extremely young public addressed, the language is simple, and the print large and fair—all recommendations to beginners in the art of reading. Johnny has an elder sister, one of those motherly little girls who make so large a part of the comfort of a poor family. May is Johnny's teacher and playmate, and her gentle spirit and sage management form the most attractive feature of the book. The religious teaching at the end is very literal and of decided orthodoxy, so that 'Little Laddie' will be more acceptable in Church than in "Liberal" circles.

'Mary Howitt's Poems of Natural History' is one of the handsomest and most covetable Christmas books for young people we have ever seen. The workmanship of the volume is in the highest style of printer's and binder's craft, while the pictures by Giacomelli are more than a mere adornment—they are exquisitely finished little works of art, quite worthy to be embellished by poems. Of Mary Howitt's writings, nothing need be said; she has long ago taken rank as one of the first writers for the young, as well as a versifier of taste and culture and high moral tone. Much of her poetry is already as "household words" here as well as in England, and there must be many people who, familiar with it in their young days, would be glad to place it in the hands of their children. Two or three of the poems here included are written by William Howitt. Five of those by Mrs. Howitt appear for the first time in this work.

'Rhoda Thornton's Girlhood' is prefaced by a pleasant little note of praise from Mr. Whittier, who had read "some chapters" in it "with great satisfaction"; so that the reader begins the story with an agreeable prepossession. Nor is he, or she—for it is more particularly a girl's book—likely to be disappointed. She may possibly be even better pleased with it than she had expected, for young folks sometimes care more for the narrative than they should, and less for the "local coloring and characterization" of which Mr. Whittier makes complimentary mention. Fortunately for this youthful taste, Mrs. Pratt has plenty of "story" to tell, and does not digress into any impertinent "sketching"—a clever accomplishment much in fashion now, but which interferes with the progress of a story, and causes disturbance in the immature mind.

In Rhoda, we have again the motherly little girl, taking care of her small brother as well as herself on a New England "poor-farm." They are orphans about whom nobody knows anything. By-and-by, Rhoda gets a "place" on a typical New England farm, where she manages to take Jimmy with her. They continue to live with Miss Deborah Nichols several years, until it is discovered in a curious way that they are related to a very rich family in the neighborhood, and are themselves heirs to wealth. This is only a rough outline of a really well-conceived, well-told tale. It reminds one, in its descriptions of New England life, of some of the chapters in Miss Wetherell's popular books. The style is simple and direct, and there is a pleasant humorousness throughout. There is, to our taste, a little too much wealth and "aristocracy" at the end; the sterling virtues of Rhoda's character, strengthened by her peculiar experiences, seem to find a niche where they have no play. Independent and generous she is shown to be through all; but generosity is a pleasant pastime when money is plenty, and independence comes as natural as breathing to "first families." Still, 'Rhoda Thornton' deserves to be well recommended. Church-going people, and those who choose a special kind of reading on Sunday, will particularly approve of it, while others will not find religious opinions unpleasantly obtruded.

'The Life of a Bear' is a nice story in big print and big pictures for small boys. The kind of story is familiar to everybody: a family of animals with human names and human feelings, and a mixture of human and animal attributes, going through a series of adventures more or less consistent with probability. It is only necessary to say of this one that it is a good specimen of its kind, and as likely to be popular with boys not too old for it as any of its predecessors. There is not much natural history to be learned from it, and perhaps not much *unnatural* history that will have to be unlearned.

Gift-Books.—It is not so easy as it once was to distinguish this class of publications from the ordinary sort, but we believe the title may properly be applied to the works we are about to enumerate. First in those qualities of paper, print, and binding which suggest the Christmas present, is Taine's 'Tour through the Pyrenees,' translated by Mr. J. Safford Fiske in what seems a skilful manner, and illustrated profusely by Doré (Henry Holt & Co.) The author's descriptive powers have seldom had a finer field, and he has not kept them in check. Scraps of history and philosophy, here a legend and there an extract from the old chroniclers, mingle with the narrative of travel, if narrative it can be called, when we have, rather, a series of photographic impressions of place after place, without much thought how the tourist got there; a disconnectedness favorable to desultory reading, and, therefore, quite in keeping with a holiday gift-book. But M. Taine is always interesting enough to be read continuously, and the present case forms no exception. The illustrations, which are largely of landscape, only now and then suggest the best-known and the least attractive side of Doré's genius; though the stories of Pé de Puyane and, after Froissart, of the Count de Foix, give scope for some touches characteristic of the satirist of 'La Sainte Russie.' The Spain described, by the way, is the Spain of twenty years ago.

Another work which bears the stamp of the season is Mrs. Eliza Greatorex's 'Summer Etchings in Colorado' (G. P. Putnam's Sons). The scene of this lady's artistic and literary labors was the vicinity of Colorado Springs, and chiefly at the sanitary settlement of Manitou (some seventy-five or eighty miles south of Denver), which enjoys an altitude about equal to that of Mt. Washington. Pike's Peak, the Ute Pass, the Garden of the Gods, and other romantic and charming resorts are close at hand, to which Mrs. Greatorex made excursions in quest of sketches and adventures, and now has made a book of the whole. We have found her chapters agreeable reading. They convey the impression of a truthful realism, much as do the etchings themselves. These, if not the highest efforts of their kind, are certainly praiseworthy, and all the more because of the neglect which this particular art suffers in our country. We judge from her own statements that Mrs. Greatorex drew first pen-and-ink sketches from nature, which were afterwards elaborated at her convenience under the graver. Their appearance confirms this view. They are generally over-elaborated, and lose the atmospheric effect which a freer handling might have ensured. In this respect they may be instructively compared with Mr. Hamerton's plates, executed entirely in the open air, in his 'Unknown River.' However, it is, as we have said, more proper to praise here than to criticise, and all these "summer etchings" are interesting.

'Art Culture' (John Wiley & Son) is, in the words of the sub-title, "a hand-book of art technicalities and criticisms, selected from the works of John Ruskin, and arranged and supplemented by Rev. W. H. Platt, for the use of schools and colleges." It is, besides, a very appropriate gift for any young person having an artistic temperament, whether or not a teacher is at hand to enforce its lessons. We need not enquire if this orderly digest of Mr. Ruskin's doctrine has been ideally well done; it is enough to praise the design, in the certainty that want of skill in arranging, or even of perfect intelligence in selecting, will detract little from the value of extracts from an author remarkable for always talking not only to the point, but to *a* point. On the other hand, it cannot but be an advantage to have Mr. Ruskin's best thoughts on composition, tone, color, perspective, sketching from nature, etc., brought together systematically as here, with a due proportion of the original illustrative designs—wood-cuts, lithographs, etc. Such a compendium is of course an excellent introduction to the further study of Ruskin, as well as of art; and for this a list of his works would have been helpful.

The plates of 'Pictures by Old Masters of the French, Dutch, and Flemish Schools' (T. Nelson & Sons) bear marks of previous usage and even of hard usage, and the imprint is without date. Mr. Dafforne's histo-

rical and critical descriptions might have redeemed these imperfections, but, in fact, they are commonplace in style and, as criticisms, of little worth. A certain number of facts and dates; some idea of the personal appearance of the artists under discussion, and of the subjects of sundry of their paintings, are all that the purchaser of this showy volume need expect.

The American edition of Mr. Edward A. Freeman's 'History of the Norman Conquest of England' (Macmillan & Co.), although reduced one-half in price as compared with the English edition, forms still, in all respects, a handsome series for the book-shelf. To the present four volumes a fifth and final volume will be added as soon as published on the other side, together with an index to the whole five. All the maps are here, and as for the text, Mr. Freeman states that he has carefully revised it, corrected such mistakes as he has found, and incorporated the additions and corrections to each volume in their proper places in text, notes, or appendix. We have mentioned no work better suited for a holiday gift, whether as regards the outward dress or the contents.

Sub-Tropical Rambles; or, The Land of the Aphanapteryx. Personal Experiences, Adventures, and Wanderings in and around the Island of Mauritius. By Nicholas Pike. (New York: Harper & Brothers. 1873. 8vo, pp. 509.)—We may premise, to save our readers the trouble of searching the maps, that Mauritius is a charming island in the Indian Ocean, lying some 300 miles east of Madagascar, and in 20 degrees south latitude. It was discovered by the Portuguese in 1505; was held by the Dutch from 1644 to 1710; then, with the neighboring island of Bourbon, belonged to the French for a century; and, lastly, for some sixty years, has been a British colony. For many years, it has been one of the great sugar-producing centres; for, though its size seems insignificant, being only 39 miles long by 34 miles wide, it has exported as much as 130,000 tons of sugar in a year. It has also for a century been of considerable importance commercially as a port of refuge for all vessels engaged in the East India trade, being midway between the Cape of Good Hope and the main Eastern ports. Of late years, too, it has been the rendezvous of whalers, the ocean in that latitude being the habitat of the sperm whale.

Although so long a British colony, very few books have been published concerning its history, and this most recent and comprehensive volume is the work of the American consul at Port Louis. As his book is especially devoted to the natural history of the island, we will first attempt a slight sketch of its political history. The French East India Company, in 1734, was the owner of the island, and in that year most fortunately chose as Governor Mahé de Labourdonnais. He introduced the sugar-cane and various grains and plants into the agriculture of Mauritius; he built arsenals, forts, quays, shops, aqueducts, and canals; he transformed the island into a colony; and yet his immense labors and successes are forgotten, while the trivial occurrence of the wreck of the *St. Géran*, transformed in the romance of 'Paul and Virginia,' will remain for centuries as the chief event connected with Mauritius. The colony was naturally supported by slave-labor, and was as naturally Royalist at the time of the Revolution in France. The decrees of the home government for the abolition of slavery were disregarded, and when Napoleon, in 1802, re-established the slave-trade, his government was cheerfully acknowledged. In 1809 and 1810, incessant sea-fights occurred between the French and English fleets, and finally an English expedition landed on the island and compelled its total surrender in October, 1810. In 1814, on the restoration of Louis XVIII., Mauritius was definitively ceded to England, and Bourbon was restored to France. The island has, however, remained French in language, laws, race, and sentiment. In 1834, slavery was abolished in all the British dominions, and Mauritius received compensation for 68,613 slaves, at a rate averaging about £70 apiece. This period we have often heard described by the older inhabitants as the "flush times" of the colony. The money paid to the slave-owners was spent in luxury; the slaves refused to work during the five years remaining of nominal apprenticeship. At the end of the time, the colony found itself without capital or laborers, and a period of corresponding depression ensued. The control, however, was in English hands, and a scheme was matured for the importation of coolie labor from India, which resulted in placing the prosperity of the island on a sure basis for a number of years.

The ill-timed leniency of England in giving the natives control of municipal affairs has been the great error to which recent misfortunes can be traced. The population is about 300,000, of which over two-thirds are Indian coolies, 60,000 are descendants of the slaves, and the rest are whites of French descent, with a very small admixture of English residents. The Indians, of course, count for nothing politically, but the city of Port Louis was given up to the control of its inhabitants, ignorant blacks and almost equally ignorant Creole whites. It had a population of 74,128 crowded within the limits of ten square miles. In 1866, '67, and '68, a local fever ravaged the island, and it was directly owing to the total lack of sanitary laws. There was not a drain in Port Louis, and the city government would not authorize the construction of any. The fever commenced in Port Louis, then spread to other parts of the island, and the deaths amounted to 12,548 in 1866, 41,100 in 1867, and 19,011 in 1868. From such a crushing blow it will take the colony years to recover. Yet with any regard to the ordinary rules of health, Mauritius must always be prosperous, and must be an important dependency of England. The climate is delightful; the country is charmingly diversified; access to other countries is sufficiently easy; nothing is wanting to render it an earthly paradise but submergence for fifteen minutes, a sufficient time to wash out its present inhabitants.

Consul Pike's book is one of great interest to the naturalist, as his rambles were chiefly made in the pursuit of plants and shells. He has set an admirable example to those of our fellow-citizens who have been rewarded for political services by honorary exile. We wonder while reading his pages at the chance which gave our Government such a representative. If, indeed, in this review we have seemed to have little to say about Mr. Pike, we shall plead that we have followed his example. This group of islands has been famous for a race of wingless birds, of which the extinct dodo is the type. Mr. Pike calls Mauritius the land of the Aphanapteryx, from another species of bird, but in his preface he says, "A full description of this bird will be given in a future volume," and so omits any further reference to it. When that volume appears, we will devote ourselves exclusively to Consul Pike and the aphanapteryx.

Love's Meinie: Lectures on Greek and English Birds, given before the University of Oxford. By John Ruskin, LL.D., etc., etc. (New York: John Wiley & Son. 1873.)—Extraordinary contempt for accuracy, as well as for the usual methods of attaining it, is a striking feature of this treatise. Perhaps a majority of the statements of fact are simply incorrect, while the inaccuracy of many others shows offensively in connection with a sneer at the means by which such glaring errors might have been avoided; and again, some of the erroneous statements are an uncalled-for attack upon a large and powerful class of thinkers—we mean scientists. Mr. Ruskin remarks, without qualifying context: "No English gentleman in recent times has ever thought of birds except as flying targets or flavorous dishes. The only piece of natural history worth the name in the English language, that I know of, is in the few lines of Milton on the Creation" (p. 7); and holds the literature of his subject up to ridicule in a manner that mainly serves to display his ignorance of it. In fact, he unintentionally avows this ignorance: saying that he "has looked wholly in vain through all his books to find some account of the muscles a bird uses in hopping" (p. 25); the fact being that these muscles have been often described in elaborate detail, and their peculiarities made the basis of one of the fundamental divisions of recent birds in a now generally received classification. He speaks of "the vile industries and vicious curiosities of modern science" (p. 51) with the singularly pointless accusation that they, "while they have robbed the fields of England of a thousand living creatures, have not created in them one." His count against the theory of evolution is couched as follows (p. 27):

> "Nay, we might even sufficiently represent the general manner of conclusion in the Darwinian system by the statement that if you fasten a hair-brush to a mill-wheel, with the handle forward, so as to develop itself into a neck by moving always in the same direction, and within continual hearing of a steam-whistle, after a certain number of revolutions the hair-brush will fall in love with the whistle; they will marry, lay an egg, and the produce will be a nightingale."

This is neither wise nor witty. But as much cannot be said of the description of a swallow (p. 53): "It is an owl that has been trained by the Graces. It is a bat that loves the morning light. It is the aerial reflection of a dolphin. It is the tender domestication of a trout." Coming from an unknown pen, this would have been dismissed as bosh; and we doubt if there are many, even among the admirers of Mr. Ruskin, who can honestly say they see the point of it. It is unfortunate that a great artist's idiosyncrasies should have led him into such extravagances—most of all, that they should have committed him to the mistake of treating of matters his unfamiliarity with which is evident (we mean the scientific, as distinguished from the artistic, aspects of his subject) with manifest confidence in his ability to treat them well. It was, for example, unwise for him to castigate the authors of certain theories of the flight of birds before propounding one of his own—entirely such a one as was to have been anticipated.

Nor are we, viewing Mr. Ruskin merely as an artist, prepared to change the tenor of our criticism. Surely we had reason to expect that his stand

here would be firm, despite his slips as an amateur ornithologist. He remarks (p. 70), showing a Holbein: "It is entirely disgraceful he should not know what a wing was better— I don't mean it is disgraceful he should not know the anatomy of it, but that he should never have looked at it to see how the feathers lie"; and presents (p. 67) a drawing of his own which shows, as parts of a single figure, half the upper surface of a right wing joined with the other half of the under surface of a left wing, just for want of seeing "how the feathers lie" himself.

Admiration of Mr. Ruskin, or the reverse, is necessarily a matter of individual taste, since he refuses, with what we may call wilfulness, to be rated by any standard susceptible of general appreciation. But it is improbable that many of his admirers even will believe that this treatise will either add to his reputation as an artist or give him any claim to the title of naturalist. The subjects of his lectures, by the way, are no more "Greek and English" than they are French, German, or Italian birds.

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The following is a comparison of the averages for the past two weeks:

	Nov. 29.	Dec. 6.	Differences.
Loans	$247,922,300	$252,014,100	Inc...$4,091,800
Specie	19,968,700	21,320,300	Inc.... 1,351,600
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Deposits	174,467,200	182,143,100	Inc... 7,675 900
Circulation	27,238,800	27,186,400	Dec... 52,400

Money has continued easy throughout the week to parties in good standing at 7 per cent. and under, while mercantile paper has passed more freely at 9 to 12 per cent. for prime names, and at 15 to 18 per cent. for names less favorably known.

The $44,000,000 "legal-tender reserve" had been drawn upon up to Saturday to the extent of $13,000,000—the outstanding amount was then stated to be $369,000,000, against $356,000,000, the amount authorized by law.

The stock market has been very active, and a regular "bull" campaign seemed to have been inaugurated upon the opening of business on Monday, ever since which time a gradual advance in the prices of speculative stocks has taken place. The market has been healthy in tone, and seemed to be influenced by legitimate causes, such as the increasing abundance of money; the strong probability that more currency will be added to the amount already in circulation, at least to the extent of legalizing by Congress the reissue of the $44,000,000 legal tenders retired during Mr. McCulloch's administration of the Treasury Department; and the important fact that the greater number of the stocks dealt in at the Stock Exchange have been, and many of them are now, selling below their real values. On Saturday, the probability that the Grinnell estate would be settled up and released from the control of the Bankrupt Court imparted a very buoyant feeling to the market, and when it was announced this morning that Judge Blatchford had signed the order so releasing it, the rush to buy was nearly as great as it was to sell during the recent panic. The amount involved in the failure of Grinnell & Co. was about $13,000,000, and nearly a corresponding amount of stocks had been privately sold out by the creditors during the last week, so that this large block no longer hangs like a cloud over the market. The advance to-day carried Central and Hudson to 95½, Lake Shore to 76½, Rock Island to 97⅛, Wabash to 53⅝, Western Union to 74½, Northwestern Common to 54½, Saint Paul common to 40¾, etc. The investment stocks shared in the advance, New Jersey Central going to 98, Delaware, Lackawanna, and Western to par, and Harlem to 121.

The following shows the highest and lowest sales of the leading stocks at the Stock Exchange for the week ending Saturday, December 6, 1873:

	Monday.		Tuesday.		Wed'day.		Thursday		Friday.		Saturday		Sales.
N. Y. C. & H. R.	90⅞	91⅜	91⅜	92⅜	92	93⅛	92½	93¼	92	93⅛	92⅜	93½	56,300
Lake Shore	70⅜	73⅜	72	73½	72⅛	73½	71½	72⅝	71⅝	73	72⅝	73⅜	111,200
Erie	46¼	47	45⅞	46⅜	46⅛	47⅜	45¾	46⅜	45	....	....	....	10,800
Union Pacific	24⅞	26¼	26	27⅜	27	28	27⅜	28¼	27⅛	27⅞	27¼	28⅜	206,600
Chi. & N. W.	47	48½	48⅛	49¼	49	50¼	48⅛	50⅜	48⅜	49⅞	49⅜	51⅜	35,500
Do. pfd	69½	70	69⅜	70	69¼	70½	70¼	70⅞	69½	70	70¼	70¼	5,500
N. J. Central	95	....	96	96	96	96½	96	97⅜	95	95½	95½	95¾	1,100
Rock Island	92	93½	93	94	94	95½	94⅛	95	93	94	94¼	95¼	14,300
Mil. & St. Paul	34⅛	35⅜	35⅛	36⅛	35¾	36¼	35½	36⅛	35¼	36⅜	36⅛	36⅞	31,500
Do. pfd	58½	59½	59⅛	59⅞	59⅜	59⅞	59	59⅜	59¼	61	60⅛	60⅞	3,400
Wabash	45⅞	47	47⅛	47⅞	47⅝	48⅛	47⅛	48¼	47⅜	48⅛	47⅝	50⅛	50,200
D., L. & W.	95⅜	97	97⅛	97½	97⅛	97⅞	96½	97⅛	96⅜	97	98⅛	98⅜	6,600
B. & H. & Erie	1½	1⅝	1⅜	1⅜	1⅜	8	2⅜	8½	2⅜	3½	2⅞	3½	18,400
O. & M.	25¾	26½	26¼	27⅛	27	28¼	27⅜	28⅜	27⅜	28⅜	28¼	28⅝	44,800
C., C. & I. C.	23	23¾	23½	24⅜	24¼	25⅞	25⅜	26⅜	25⅜	26	25⅝	26½	66,500
W. U. Tel.	66⅜	67⅜	67¼	69½	69¼	70⅜	69¼	70⅞	69¼	71½	71¼	73	250,800
Pacific Mail	31⅜	32½	32⅜	36	35½	39½	37½	39⅜	37½	40½	39	40⅜	167,000

The Government bond market has been very strong since the publication of the President's message. Prices have advanced nearly 2 per cent. on the more active issues of the 5-20's, such as July 65's, 67's, and 68's. The demand for bonds has come mostly from home investors, but great difficulty is experienced in filling orders, owing to the scarcity of supply. 67's closed on Saturday at 116¾, and July 65's at 116, against 114⅞ and 114 respectively, the closing prices of the week before.

The gold market has remained quiet, and the fluctuations by no means wide, considering the Cuban news at times being quite warlike, and the danger of Congress passing some law tending to inflate the currency. The range of quotation has been between 108⅛ and 109½, closing at 109½ on Saturday.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 18, 1873.

The Week.

THE agreement between Mr. Fish and Admiral Polo has been fully confirmed by the Madrid Government, and by the time this reaches our readers the *Virginius* and the surviving prisoners will have been delivered to an American man-of-war. The Volunteers in Havana were at first a little obstreperous on hearing the news, but on learning that, if they went to war, they would have to fight the United States single-handed, they judiciously cooled down. One riotous demonstration was made in front of the Captain-General's palace, but it was readily suppressed, and indeed that functionary is showing himself unusually courageous. The "excitement" has accordingly died out here also. A feeble attempt to revive it in the interest of the Cuban insurgents was made on Monday by a sympathy meeting at which the Reverend Mr. Hepworth was the principal speaker. He, and another Reverend over in Brooklyn, named Talmage, have for a week or two been rampant for war, and showed evident signs of a determination not to be taken alive. They both wanted to liberate Cuba by reading in their "study" accounts of slaughter in the morning papers, and then praying and preaching over it to their "flocks." This mode of fighting Spain they doubtless feel they could stand as long as anybody. It is, in fact, pleasant to improve an occasion with other people's wounds, and pray for the chastisement of the enemy when other men have to stand his fire and storm his works. Mr. Hepworth, at the meeting in question, expressed a strong wish that our message might be sent to Spain in a "bombshell," and then went on to utter a libel for which he ought, if the law was what it should be, to receive thirty days in the county jail, together with a first experience of useful industry, by alleging that Mr. Fish and his son-in-law took bribes from the Spanish Government.

Very little has been heard during the past week of the whereabouts of the owner of the *Virginius*, Mr. Patterson. It will be remembered that it was the ownership by Mr. Patterson which gave the vessel her American character, her right to carry American papers and to fly the flag of the Union; gave our Government the right to demand her back from Spain, and to threaten to prepare for a bloody though glorious war. It was indubitably due to Mr. Patterson that we shouted aloud through our newspapers, and through our mass-meetings, and through our pulpits that the *Virginius* must be given up; and, indeed, if there had been no Patterson, she never would have been given up at all. Yet it is now said that Mr. Patterson will make no claim upon the vessel—by some persons—because he is afraid if he does he will be proceeded against under the neutrality laws. But if he does not, others say, own her, who does? If she is owned in Venezuela or Chili, it is the Venezuelan or Chilian Government which has a case against Spain. If she is owned by the Cubans, she will have to be sent back, after which international law would probably require the sinking of a coal-barge between her and the open sea. Meantime, there are urgent enquiries for Patterson throughout the country, and what the people desire to know is whether he takes no interest in his property, what is his address, why he is not heard from, why he does not "come to the front"?

We presume most people are a good deal humiliated by the financial situation at Washington. We mean nothing particularly disrespectful when we say that the finances of a great commercial country have not, since the practice of publishing Government accounts began, been in such inexperienced hands as those of the President and Mr. Richardson. The Treasury is nearly empty, in spite of the $44,000,000 of "reserve," and the Secretary and the Committee of Ways and Means are at loggerheads about the best means of replenishing it. Mr. Richardson has given "his reasons in writing" for desiring an increase of taxation, which are: that there has been during the last two months and a half a falling-off in the receipts from customs, which is likely to last for some time longer; that the public debt has increased $9,000,000 during the month of November, and that it will be increased "many millions" during the present month; that the $18,000,000 of "what has been called the reserve" has been issued, and consumed by the current expenses of the Government; that, therefore, there ought to be increased taxation, and that tea and coffee, spirits, gas, railroad and steamboat receipts, and express, insurance, and telegraph companies are the best subjects for it, inasmuch as they can be reached with the least amount of interference with the general business of the country.

We greatly admire the calm with which Mr. Richardson speaks of the $44,000,000 as "what has been called the reserve," inasmuch as we believe that name was given to it for the first time either by himself or by his chief, Mr. Boutwell. They began calling it a "reserve," instead of a bundle of cancelled notes, as soon as they took it into their heads to issue it to "move the crops." Their right to issue it was doubted by everybody but themselves; but they paid no attention to any doubts. Now, however, when nearly half of it is out, Mr. Richardson asks Congress to define his power with regard to it. He should have got Congress to do this before he touched it. No man should think of issuing irredeemable paper money, and thus altering the price of people's property, without express and unmistakable authorization. We must say one thing more. A political financier ought to know by this time that a panic causes a fall of prices, and therefore stops imports and stimulates exports, and that as long as its effects are felt there is sure to be a diminution of revenues derived from customs duties. Therefore he should, when the symptoms of a panic show themselves, either begin to lay up money to meet the deficiency, or stop the panic resolutely at the outset by Government aid. In other words, he ought to understand the law of foreign exchange and have a policy of some kind.

The Committee of Ways and Means, on the other hand, are very unwilling to increase taxation, as if they do so it will naturally bring the Republican party into discredit. They have therefore reported to the House a resolution, in which the Committee on Appropriations has concurred, requesting the President and heads of departments to revise the estimates with a view to their reduction, so that every resource in the direction of economy may be exhausted before any measure of increased taxation is entered on. This led to a debate, in which Ben Butler, called euphemistically by Mr. Dawes his "distinguished colleague" and his "weighty colleague," expressed a strong dislike to taxation, and a desire for the issue of more non-interest-bearing promissory notes to meet the deficit, and great indifference as to what the "Jew bankers of Europe think about our credit," and called the proposal to cut down the expenditures "a picayune business." Mr. Dawes declined to "antagonize" with his "distinguished colleague," and was followed by Mr. Kelley of Pennsylvania, who produced a plan of filling the Treasury by the issue of new bonds bearing a low rate of interest and redeemable in United States notes; but a discussion of it was prevented by adjournment. The "3-65" plan is still in the field. There are two or three plans for a return to specie payments, one brought forward by Mr. Sumner, based on the redemption-by-instalment principle. Mr. Pratt, a member of the House from Indiana, whose bumps ought to be carefully examined, desires to have enough greenbacks issued to keep the rate of interest down.

The debate on the salary grab has ended, for the time being, in the passage of a bill repealing the Salary Act, and making the repeal take effect from March last. The debate has been rather remarkable as having developed a determination on the part

of the members not to sacrifice their salaries to morality altogether, as they seemed at first inclined to do; and it has also opened a fine field for speeches, taking the form of biographical and autobiographical narration. Judge Lawrence of Ohio distinguished himself in this debate by making a vigorous speech denouncing all salary acts of any kind as iniquitous; the three great crimes of the age, he said, were the Missouri Compromise, the firing on Fort Sumter, and the Salary Act. His speech was pitched in a war-key and offended his hearers, who showed in reply that the judge, in 1866, had advocated the back-pay act of that year, had received $4,000 back-pay under it, and also had maintained that it would be unconstitutional not to take it. At one point the continuance of the debate was objected to by a member, on the ground that the Constitution forbade cruel and unusual punishments, and at another a parliamentary proceeding was resorted to which, we believe, is not laid down in any of the books—that of exhibiting a picture of a ram bearing the name of the objectionable member. The Judiciary Committee under Butler has reported and carried a bill repealing the Bankruptcy Act altogether, though the Committee was defeated on some of the minor details of the measure; and the House has passed a bill granting universal amnesty to the two or three hundred persons who have not been amnestied already.

Washington is a place in which new customs spring up quickly. The newspapers have been for a long time in the habit of taking judicial cognizance of the practice prevalent among members of Congress of making long and elaborate speeches on finance, taxation, foreign relations, or anything else—not with the old-fashioned design of influencing their hearers, but for the purpose of sending these same speeches through the mails to their constituents, thus impressing them with a sense of their Representative's importance. The abolition of the franking privilege must, however, have taken from this time-honored custom a great deal of its pleasure, and, whether for this or some other reason, another device seems to be coming more and more into vogue. A member who wishes to influence the minds of his constituents now finds that it is not necessary to make real speeches about real bills. All that is necessary for him to do is to give evidence of activity, and this he can accomplish by the introduction as well as by the discussion of measures. Eight hundred and fifty bills have been introduced already in the House of Representatives, and we are glad to say that, according to a Washington correspondent who seems to be well informed, nine-tenths of these bills are brought in for the simple purpose of being printed with the member's name in full, and marked copies of the official paper containing the record sent home. Of course, the simple-minded, rural constituents see with amazement that their Representative, whom they always took for a plain sort of man, has developed, now that he has got to Washington, ideas of the most comprehensive kind on almost all the subjects within the range of legislation, and they are naturally proud of him. The transmission through the mails ought to cost very little, because an active member can get a dozen or two dozen bills in on one day, and they are probably printed in small compass, merely by the title.

Gen. O. O. Howard, of the Freedmen's Bureau, has been for some time laboring under charges of a very grave nature. There has hardly been a time since the close of the war when there has not been some scandal attaching to his name, either relating to the Bureau or Howard University; and now the Secretary of War says in a message to the Speaker of the House of Representatives, that an examination into the records of the Bureau carried on in the War Department (to which the Bureau was not long ago turned over), reveals a strange disappearance of papers and money of which no account can be found. The Secretary says that the late Commissioner, General Howard, was at once informed "of the absence of important records," and "of the apparent exhibits against him," with a view to his "offering explanations and supplying the missing records." With regard to "one item, stated at $121,000, not accounted for," he says: "It will be seen that the accounts cannot be produced, and no attempt has been made to prove what has become of the money. Accounts covering the amount in part are now alleged to have existed, but the disbursing officer, George W. Balloch, has stated that, as they were not considered of much importance, they were not kept in the cases with the other accounts." The Secretary has deemed it best to "submit the entire subject to the House of Representatives."

A cheap-transportation caucus of Southern and Western Congressmen was held in the hall of the House of Representatives on Saturday evening. Fifty or sixty Representatives and one or two Senators were present, but the meeting was a failure. What with the Fort St. Philip Canal, and the James River and Kanawha Canal, the St. Lawrence route, and the Atlantic and Great Western Canal, and the Galveston Harbor Improvement scheme, and some dozen more, it was found that nothing could be done by the caucus except pass a resolution in favor of "unity of action"—a very difficult kind of unity to attain without unity of intention. Meanwhile, there is, among others, the Fox River plan; and the President wants the country between the Missouri River and the Rocky Mountains improved by irrigation. A Colorado correspondent of the *Tribune* very conclusively shows that this is nonsense, because, in the first place, there is not enough water to do it with; in the second place, it would saddle the Territory with a very large debt; in the third place, the farmers, in convention, after a long discussion in which both sides were patiently heard, voted almost unanimously against the scheme; and, in the fourth place, it would drain and turn into a desert a very large tract of cultivated country. Besides these difficulties, Messrs. Dawes and Garfield have sent word to all the departments that estimates must be cut down, so that altogether the horizon of the cheap transporter, the canal-deepener, and the irrigationist is black indeed.

The Illinois State Grange has held a meeting at Chicago, and resolved that what it seeks is the elevation of the farmers, morally, socially, and intellectually, by just and equitable means; that it is gratified at the growth and prosperity of the order, but regards its "educational influence in inculcating the rights and duties of citizenship" as its most valuable and durable work; offers fraternal co-operation to all organizations of similar character engaged in advancing the good cause; deplores the rapid destruction of forests, and insists that any laws tending to produce this result should be modified or repealed; declares that the laws relating to banking and the currency should be so modified as to favor "a general distribution of the money supply," to break up "banking monopoly," and to check the "immense concentration of capital for speculative purposes"; favors some permanent financial policy looking to a return to a specie basis; denounces the Salary Act, and earnestly requests its repeal; declares that the opprobrium sought to be cast upon the farmers' movement, as being responsible for the panic, is a compliment to that class, which has perhaps done something to expose fraud and corruption; declares that Congress has control over inter-State commerce, and ought to exercise it; that the "prohibitory restrictions laid upon foreign vessels which would otherwise engage in the transportation of Western products between different parts of the United States, are a tax upon Western industry, and ought to be repealed"; that the present "transportation facilities" are entirely inadequate, and that the country requires more canals, more railroads, liberal charters, under certain circumstances Government aid, and in the last resort a Government freight-railroad; that the "right to control chartered monopolies" is an inalienable right in the people; that the Illinois Railroad Law ought to be tried and not repealed; that the civil service is a "school of political corruption," and that our statesmen ought to study its evils and discover some remedy.

These resolutions were much more moderate in tone than those which filled the newspapers two or three months ago. In Iowa, too, the Grange has held a meeting, and its proceedings show a much

more agricultural, if not quieter, state of mind among the Grangers. What they did in Iowa, among other things, was to denounce the Illinois manufacturers of agricultural implements and discountenance the purchase of their tools, and to listen to the report of a committee, which informed the Grangers that education was the most important thing for them, and recommended that, "as no steps have yet been taken by the order of the Patrons of Husbandry to educate its members in those branches which especially relate to agriculture or horticulture, we should immediately take such steps as may seem best to secure such a modification of our school laws as will introduce into our rural districts such branches. That the farmer needs more education for the intelligent performance of his duties than is required in any other calling is no less true than the painful fact that his acquirements average less."

We have had a workingman's meeting in New York during the week, at which some very stern measures were proposed as a remedy for existing social and financial troubles. The resolutions laid it down that every man who was a law-abiding citizen, and paid taxes when he was able, was in hard times entitled to support from the Government, and that this claim was strengthened in the present case by the fact that the Government had "sanctioned speculation by a few individuals" without the consent of the people; and that the meeting would therefore supply themselves and their families with the necessaries of life; and send the bills to the city treasury. Their plan for the prevention of panics was to fix a maximum of wealth which no individual should be permitted to exceed—we presume, without special popular consent. No mention was made of the amount of this limit, but we presume that fixed by one great economist of this school, Mr. Wendell Phillips—$300,000—would not be unacceptable. Whether this would prevent panics is somewhat doubtful, however. It might do so eventually, for there are no financial panics in Africa or Central Asia; but not until one big panic at the outset was fairly over. In like manner, the peace men in Europe want peace after one great war, in which the wicked would be chastised and justice done on all sides. A "Committee of Safety" was appointed to carry these resolutions out. Whether the bills are coming into the city treasury we are unable to say. We ought to add that there is more excuse for this sort of talk than appears on the surface. The relations of the city government, in all its works, to the laboring population are thoroughly communistic. We venture to assert that there is not a single piece of work carried on by the city to-day in which laborers are selected on ordinary business principles, or paid market rates, or retained for efficiency, or discharged for incompetency. A great many people flatter themselves that this was a Ring abuse, but that under the "Reform" government there is a better state of things. We affirm, on the contrary, that the state of things is exactly the same, except that other people's dependents and protégés are employed instead of Tweed's.

The week has been marked by the deaths of two men of unusual eminence, Professor Agassiz and Judge Nelson. Of Agassiz we have spoken elsewhere. Judge Nelson was less known outside professional circles, and he had already retired from the bench, and his work was done, so that his death cannot be spoken of as a loss, as Agassiz's may be. He ascended the bench fifty years ago, and only left it last year—a long service in the judiciary of this State being succeeded by a still longer one in that of the United States. He was a member of the Supreme Court from 1845 until his death, and from 1860 was a trusted adviser of the Government on difficult questions of international law. His last conspicuous service was rendered as a member of the Joint High Commission which made the Treaty of Washington and closed the *Alabama* case. But his whole judicial career was, in the highest and best sense of the word, distinguished. He belonged to the class of judges bred by the old system of tenure during good behavior; he had its tone, its independence, its courage and integrity, and if the wealth of a country be in its morals, and conduct be a large part of life, he did more for the United States than many dozens of "self-made" operators and financiers. For half a century he administered without sale, denial, or delay, justice at which no man cavilled, and presented by his life an example out of which American boys could get a great deal more than common-schools afford. We wish it could be said that our present mode of filling vacancies on the bench promised to keep up the ideal of the judicial character which Judge Nelson did so much, if not to create, to maintain.

Full details of the loss of the *Ville du Havre* have been received in the letters from the survivors, which completely exonerate the officers from all blame as regards their conduct after the disaster. In the awful ten minutes which followed the collision, there was apparently no time or occasion for discipline. Nothing could have been done that was not done. But we are just as much in the dark as ever regarding the cause of the collision, and probably shall never receive much light about it, as the officer in charge of the deck has been lost. It appears plain, however, that the ship was seen from the steamer a quarter of an hour before she struck. In short, the accident seems to be one of those appalling ones for which the only precaution of much value is a good provision of life-preservers and rafts, to which too little attention is paid. There is a good deal of talk about life-boats and methods of lowering boats, but the fact is that no steamer accident ever occurs at sea in which the ship's boats save even a large proportion of the passengers. Those who are lost are lost for want of some simple means of keeping afloat in the water until assistance can come, and this a good life-preserver or raft would supply. The boats are apt to capsize, or be smashed in the lowering, or be overcrowded, and, in the meantime, people perish by the score for want of some small support in the water. The life-preserver at present in use is rarely found by the passenger; when found, he does not know how to use it; and those who have tried it say that it has an unpleasant tendency to turn you head downwards, which makes it practically worthless.

Marshal Bazaine has been found guilty of capitulating without doing all that honor and duty required, and condemned to degradation from his military rank and from the Legion of Honor, and to death. The court-martial unanimously recommended him to mercy, and Marshal MacMahon has commuted the sentence to twenty years' seclusion and confinement in a small island off Cannes, and exempts him from the formal deprivation of his insignia and decorations. The verdict has been variously received; the Republicans approve of it, because it explains Gambetta's failure in the war, and the Legitimists because it condemns Bonapartism and helps to redeem the national military honor. There is a general disposition on this side of the water to pity the Marshal, mainly, we think, because he has been condemned by a monarchist tribunal. He himself evidently relies on some new turn in the political wheel to rehabilitate him, and the wheel turns so fast that death is the only punishment for political offences which now possesses any terror in France. It will probably serve as a useful lesson, however, and must make the Lebœufs and De Faillys shake in their boots.

The treaty made by General Kaufmann with the Khan of Khiva has been published, and it is certainly as complete an act of submission as a vanquished enemy has ever signed. The Khan acknowledges himself to be the Emperor's slave, and binds himself to enter into no direct relations with any other prince or potentate, and cedes to him all Khivan territory on the right bank of the Amu; concedes the free navigation of the river to Russian ships, and agrees to ask a Russian license for his own; gives the Russians liberty to construct as many piers and harbors as they please on the left bank, and to allow Russian colonists to settle around them; to open all the Khivan towns and villages to Russian trade; to allow Russian subjects to hold land in the khanate; to allow no persons to enter it from Russia without Russian passports; and to pay an indemnity to the Russian Government of 2,200,000 roubles.

THE SHAME OF INFLATION.

IT is both interesting and instructive to watch the attempts to push the movement for inflation as well as to disguise its real character. A complete literature of inflation, containing matter which has not been seen in print within the present century, and which seems to contradict the whole current of American thought and feeling on the subject of currency, is rapidly making its appearance in the shape of newspaper articles, "interviews," and pamphlets and speeches. Behind these, and prompting and producing them, both in Washington and elsewhere, there is, as everybody knows, a powerful body of gentlemen, whom the late panic has badly damaged, and left either with a large quantity of unsold goods or bonds on their hands, or else a heavy burden of what it is now the fashion to call "floating debt," which stands sorely in need of "funding." These, owing to their repute as "operators," and their familiarity with the handling of large sums, are, in the eyes of a great many members of Congress, and not a few editors and reporters, financial authorities of the very highest standing, whose dicta it is dangerous to dispute and whose guidance it is not wise to refuse. If they who use so much money do not know how much is needed, who does know or can be expected to know? Accordingly, we have now a daily shower of their "views," showing how to give the currency an "elastic end"; how visionary and unpractical Smith and Ricardo and Mill and Say were in their treatment of the currency; what an exploded humbug the "specie basis" for currency is, and how unsuited it is to a young and growing country like ours; how well the greenbacks have worked; and what marvellous effects a fresh supply of them would have in "developing our resources," or in otherwise facilitating the "placing of bonds," "funding floating debt," "meeting paper," and in other ways making the world look brighter to gentlemen in difficulties.

When these ideas get into the head of a Western financier or editor who feels that he represents "the debtor class," they undergo slight modifications in order to suit them to the new latitude. He does not exactly advocate inflation, but he furiously denounces contraction as a device of Eastern "monopolists," to enable them to purchase other people's goods low and hold them for a rise, and of money-lenders who want to pinch people into high rates of interest and to foreclose mortgages. Capital, he says, is unfairly accumulated at the East, in which the talk of contraction is loudest. What the times call for is its diffusion under some equitable rule over all parts of the country; and if this distribution requires more greenbacks, more he would have. In short, his monetary system would be based upon hostility to large banking-houses and money-dealers at home and abroad. When the Workingman or the Friend of the People takes the matter up, he gives inflation a still nobler and loftier mission. He makes it one of the great instruments for giving the poor a "larger life" and wider opportunities. He therefore maintains that the Government ought to issue the currency, and that it ought, on true democratic principles, to issue enough for *all*. This is substantially the doctrine known to the European socialists as "gratuitous credit," by which is meant a system under which the state ought to establish banks where anybody could get his bills discounted, instead of as now only the rich and successful, who were thought likely to be able to pay. In France and other countries in which paper money is or was until recently redeemable, it is natural that the plan should take this shape. Here, where we have the working of a cheap irredeemable currency under our eyes, it is natural that it should resolve itself into a demand for more paper money.

Now, we do not believe that these doctrines are really taking serious hold of people's minds; but they are obtaining vogue enough to excite the surprise of those who remember what the course of public opinion in the United States on the subject of currency has been almost ever since the formation of the Government. When the Constitution was adopted, there was a widespread and well-grounded horror of irredeemable paper. Congress was, as every candid man believes, strictly forbidden by the Constitution to issue it. The great Democratic party, which sprang up so soon after the Government came into existence, and did most of the work of moulding the political habits of the country, was from the beginning the firm and unfaltering advocate of "hard money." It would not allow anything to be called money but gold and silver coin, and indignantly tore to pieces the sophisms by which every now and then attempts were made to build up a system of paper credit. Nevertheless, the Democratic party is not to-day a hard-money party. Some of the most determined foes of specie payments are to be found in its ranks, and it hugs the greenbacks with all the affection which, in its earlier days, it bestowed on the precious metals, and fills the land with windy metaphysical essays on the possibility of giving value to unlimited quantities of pulp by making black marks on it—essays over which its founders in their day roared with indignation.

Now, what has wrought this change? Why is it that the better class of newspapers and orators have to begin once more to teach the rudiments of financial science with a painstaking and elaboration which forty years ago would have seemed ridiculous? The reason is that, for forty years or more after the Revolution, the experience of the Continental paper currency, and the paper currency of the various States, was fresh in people's minds in all its sorrowful ludicrousness. The dangers of irredeemable paper and its probable consequences were familiar to every school-boy. The people knew as much about it as an economist. Moreover, they had before their eyes the experience of France, which was fresh from a grand plan of "basing" currency on unsalable lands. The story of the assignats was known in every household. Everybody laughed over the idea of "basing" promises to pay on goods which you cannot sell when the notes fall due. He held his sides when he read that a bushel-basket of paper money, secured by the pledge of vast estates, would not buy a pair of pantaloons in Paris, and he could tell you where the weak point of the system lay as well as M. Say himself, perhaps better. The rise of the wild-cat banks in the West enforced the lesson taught by the assignats. Their bills were very good until people began to question their value; that moment they were reduced from "wealth" or "capital" into pieces of dirty paper. If you had asked the men of that day whether anybody, no matter who he was, or any government, no matter what it was, could be trusted to issue paper money without being bound to redeem it in coin on demand, they would have answered unanimously, no. They knew better. They were less familiar than we are with ignorance, presumption, and rascality in high places, but they knew that the temptation was one which human virtue had never in any age or country been found able to bear.

Now, there is no doubt that an enormous mass of ignorance and credulity has been added to the voting population of this country within forty years, and that this increases the danger which many people see, or think they see, that we shall not get out of the irredeemable-currency slough without going through again the experience by which in other countries the vices of this currency have been found out; in other words, the danger that, owing to the lowering of the average of our civilization, we shall have to learn on this subject as the savage learns, not by the records of other men's experiments, but actual experiments of our own; that we shall never get back to specie payments until we shall have put out enough greenbacks to destroy their purchasing power altogether, and force us to get back to coin in the absence of any other species of money.

It ought to be borne in mind that there is perhaps no higher test of civilization than a nation's mode of dealing with a question of this kind. Want of foresight and disinclination to endure present inconvenience are the distinct mark of the savage. He gorges himself when he has food, and starves when it is exhausted. He "loafs" in summer and nearly perishes in winter. The first indication of progress is provision, however small or rude, for the future, if it be only building a hut or sowing corn; and, as he goes on, the future occupies more and more of his thoughts. Among civilized men, degrees of civilization are measured in the same way. In the

lower stages, government falls naturally and inevitably into the hands of that portion of the nation which has most capacity for looking forward; the masses are ruled because they live from day to day, and cannot be got to think of government as a thing which is to last. A desire to pillage the rich and have an equal division of goods, is simply a relic of the same improvidence which prevents an Indian from laying up stores for the cold weather; and so, let us add, is the desire to get out of present difficulties by issuing more paper money. It is not pleasant to contract, any more than to hoe corn. It is pleasant to inflate, just as it is pleasant to kill a deer and wash down the venison with whiskey, and go to sleep under a tree. All inflationists have, in fact, a strong touch of the savage in them.

Our present crisis is the more interesting because, if our Government goes back calmly, rationally, and *honestly* to specie payments, we believe it will be the first popular government that has ever done so. Nay, more, it will be the first government of any kind, except England, that has done so. The temptations of paper money have always proved too strong hitherto for any body of persons who had the power of issuing it and whose duty it was to withdraw it. The usual escape from the embarrassments caused by this mode of raising the wind has been repudiation. First, paper was issued, and it was found very agreeable, and answered its purpose. Then people said, why not have a little more? and more was issued. This was found pleasanter than ever, because everybody began to feel that he was growing rich, and further additions were made. Then, as confidence began to decline, specie was so far off that nobody wanted to travel back to it, and the general reluctance carried the day, and the paper was finally "wiped out" as worthless. In England, when it was proposed in 1819 that the Bank should be forced to resume, there was precisely the same opposition there that there is here, and the same arguments were used against it. Any one who will give himself the trouble to read the debates on the Report of the Bullion Committee, and the evidence taken by it, will find all the Kelley, and Butler, and Phillips nonsense set forth in masculine language. He will find that irredeemable bank-notes were "the best currency, sir, the world ever saw." He will find that they had "the entire confidence of the people, sir," and that the hard-money men were leeches who wanted to precipitate a crisis and buy up the people's substance cheaply. He will find that it was not the paper which had depreciated 25 per cent., but gold which had risen to that amount in value. Mr. Ricardo's ablest paper was written to refute this very proposition, set forth by a violent opponent of resumption. He will find also a great deal of drivel about foreign exchange and other matters which would not in our day be listened to at all, coming from bankers and merchants of high standing. The Bullion Committee was, however, composed of men who knew how to study and reason, and who had no "floating debt" to "fund," no goods "to work off," or bonds to place; they had weight enough to resist "pressure," made a report which is an exhaustive treatise on the principles of currency, and brought resumption about. If the people of the United States compel their Government to pay its paper debt in hard coin, they will do something which no community of the same size and character has been civilized enough to do, what no monarchy has been honest enough to do, and will afford the most striking illustration of the advance of foresight and self-respect among the race which we have yet seen.

THE CONDEMNATION OF BAZAINE.

THE conviction of Marshal Bazaine of the crime of having capitulated without having done all that honor and duty required, whether justified by the evidence or not, will serve a good purpose in soothing the wounded susceptibilities of the French people, and in reviving, in however slight a degree, the sympathy which during the early part of the war united men of all parties. One of the marked characteristics of sentimental politics is the powerful part played in it by "traitors." Politics is, perhaps, nowhere so sentimental as in France and Ireland, and we accordingly find that, in the history of both countries, the influence of spies, informers, and corrupt generals and statesmen upon the march of events has been great, and often disastrous.

The Sentimentalist does not reach his conclusions, either in the council or in the field, through a calm weighing of facts, but through a species of afflatus, to which he gives various names, but the source of which he secretly believes to be supernatural. He is accordingly fully prepared to attack the strongest and best disciplined army with a crowd of excited peasants, or to march through a hostile territory with a small band of right-minded volunteers, and can never wholly rid himself of the belief that an unseen power is fighting on his side, and will turn the scale in his favor by suspending the rules of strategy and tactics. When things go wrong with him, therefore—when his army is arrested by the police and taken to the lockup, as happened to the Fenians, or his singing volunteers are scattered like chaff by the remorseless advance of a trained and silent battalion, as so often happened to the French during the late war—he is forced either to give up his theory that Providence takes special care of excitable people who are sure they are right, or to fall back on the hypothesis that some bad man has sold his secrets to the enemy—and he naturally chooses the latter. When he enters on a campaign, one of his first steps, after having concluded his speeches and sung his battle-hymn, is to hunt for "spies," which he does with about as much discrimination as his forefathers displayed in hunting for witches, and, when the fighting begins, he keeps a lynx-eyed watch on his generals, to prevent their being bribed by the enemy. In the first Revolution, the Jacobins had detectives called "commissaries" with the various armies, looking after the commanders, to prevent their betraying their own government. And during the late siege of Paris, the Reds clamored in vain to have the officers of the various corps accompanied by armed representatives of "the people" outside the walls, in order to prevent the corrupt intercourse with the Germans which they were sure was carried on.

It is not wonderful that with this tendency of the national temperament in active operation, the principal army officers should, after the fall of the Empire, have become objects of deep suspicion to the Radicals of the towns. In nearly all the great cities of the South they were, through the most of the war, in constant danger of being mobbed, and M. Gambetta rather encouraged than repressed this frame of mind. He had himself come out of Paris literally on the wings of the wind, and was full of the divine afflatus, and believed in it. He thought that nothing but will was necessary to victory, and saw treason or cowardice in the sighs and shrugs and hesitation with which the real soldiers received the plans by which he proposed to crush Prince Frederic Charles, and overwhelm Werder, and throw Moltke into the English Channel. As the fortune of the war after the surrender of Sedan really turned on Bazaine's ability to hold Prince Frederic Charles at Metz, while new levies were organizing at the South, the Marshal of course became from the first moment an object of uneasy scrutiny. If he gave way one minute before Gambetta's new army was ready to march on Paris, he was certain to be accused of treachery, even if he had lived for weeks on leather and fought a pitched battle every Monday. His surrender led to the total collapse of the Southern attempt to relieve the capital, and Gambetta, whom this collapse overwhelmed with ridicule, at once accused him of treason, and the whole nation, in the agony of despair and humiliation, seized on the accusation as the one bit of comfort left them. It was hard to believe that a "Marshal of France" could surrender unnecessarily with 150,000 men, but it was easier than to acknowledge that France, the foremost military nation in the world, as they fondly thought her, had been fairly conquered in one campaign by a single enemy.

Unhappily, there appears to have been plenty of reason for believing that at least he did not do his best. Much of the evidence received against him on the trial was preposterous or incredible, but it was plain enough that he had not done all that he might have done, and that, whatever the condition of his heart, his defence of Metz brought him within the purview of the military law. It was at best a feeble

defence, conducted by a man who clearly did not believe that it would seriously influence the result of the war either way, and that to conduct it to the point of desperation would have been a useless sacrifice of life and material. But then, he was on the trial the victim of a good deal of epigram and phrase-mongering. For instance, when he said, what one can readily understand his thinking without the slightest want of patriotism or honor—after he had heard of the revolution, of Sedan, and of the appearance in the Provinces in a balloon of a flighty young Radical lawyer as the sole representative of the civil power—"that there was no Government, there was nothing," the Duc d'Aumale easily knocked him down, and excited deep sensation in court by exclaiming, "What! did not France still exist?" Probably the Marshal half lost his cause through this clever repartee; and yet nobody who tries to put himself in his place at Metz, with his training and antecedents, can feel that there was anything in the Marshal's own remark beyond *gaucherie* in expression. What he meant was that France was not represented by any organized body capable of directing a war or concluding a peace, which was strictly true, as an Assembly had to be elected in order to treat with the Germans. A soldier of the highest type would have none the less fought on, and fought well. But it is hardly fair to shoot a man for not having reached the summit of devotion, or for not having flung himself into the gulf for the mere honor of the flag.

This brings us to what was Bazaine's real defence, though it was one which of course he did not dare to offer. He was a fair product of French political life; in other words, French society was responsible for him. His defence of Metz was the defence which it was natural for a soldier to make who had passed the last forty-two years in the French service. During that period, he has witnessed four revolutions, and served four governments, each of which claimed legitimacy, and has seen four sets of soldiers and statesmen, who on Monday were honored and respected, flying as criminals on Tuesday. The natural and proper consequence of this is to shake the sentiment of allegiance to country in the breasts of state servants, and to lead them to look out for their personal interests by attaching themselves to whichever régime seems to them most likely to prove stable, without reference to its general merits. Fidelity to Louis Philippe's Government was treated as a crime by the Republic; fidelity to the Republic as a crime by the Empire, and so on. No patriotism is entirely proof against ordeals of this sort, and they are especially trying to coarse and sensual natures, such as Bazaine's undoubtedly is. Moreover, the Empire, which it must be remembered the French people twice solemnly adopted and approved by universal suffrage, used all its influence and patronage to raise to the front rank the class of soldiers to which Bazaine belonged. The French army, when the war broke out, was almost wholly in their hands, and Bazaine was not by any means the worst of them; he was simply the most conspicuous. Indeed, the only Imperialist favorite who issued from the war with untarnished reputation was MacMahon. These adventurers, too, with the Emperor at their head, had reached the age when campaigning becomes distasteful, and had attained all the honors and rewards that campaigning could give. The influence of this circumstance on French strategy was mournfully recognized by the first Napoleon in his later wars, when his Marshals had grown old and rich, and shrank from flinging away the few years of well-won repose that remained to them. It is, indeed, only long-settled governments, which are deeply rooted in men's hearts, and which they have learnt to love in childhood, that can exact from the old the eager devotion which shrinks from no danger and welcomes the weightiest responsibilities. From fortune-seekers, to whom the existing government represents nothing but pay and place, and any other may mean poverty and obscurity, it is impossible to expect the disinterested remembrance of country which Bazaine has been condemned for not showing; and this class the Napoleonic régime was extraordinarily successful in producing and rewarding.

There is one ground on which, perhaps, more than on any other, his condemnation may be, and even his execution would have been, justified. A country which changes its government as often as France does, and in which no one system or régime or dynasty has more hold on the popular imagination than another, in which all political traditions have been uprooted and political habits destroyed, and which nevertheless is forced to keep up a large standing army, either for defence or police, must, in order to save itself from ruin, sternly prohibit the meddling of soldiers in politics, or the exercise of any option by soldiers between one government and another. The *de-facto* government must be the only government the general knows anything about; and to secure this result, the killing of any number of generals would be a low price to pay, because if the army once gets the habit of deciding between rival candidates to power or recognizing any claim to authority but possession, politics resolves itself into a struggle for the support of the army through corruption, and the army becomes a lazy or licentious Prætorian Guard—useless in war and dangerous in peace. France has been saved thus far from the degradation of Spain and Mexico by her success in maintaining military discipline through eighty years of revolution. That this success has been largely, if not mainly, due to the triumphs of the army in foreign wars during the early part of the century, and the strong traditions of discipline thus bred, nobody can doubt. If, now that its prestige is gone, it should seek compensation for reverses in the field by taking charge of the government at home, social order itself would be put in serious peril. Bazaine's course at Metz undoubtedly, even if unconsciously to himself, had the seeds of this awful disease in it, and to arrest such a plague no treatment can be too severe. When the Duc d'Aumale, therefore, reminded him that though governments might come and go, France herself was the soldier's only concern, his words were more important as the utterance of a great political truth, which it was the business of military men to heed, than as a crushing retort to the unhappy old prisoner. For, unhappy we must call him after all. Forty-two years of danger resolutely faced, and of duty on the whole well done, by day and by night, in all forms of danger and distress, must, as long as men are men, go far to cover even worse sins than he has committed.

THE TRUE HISTORY OF A GREAT MINING ENTERPRISE.

IN the Little Cottonwood Cañon, in the Territory of Utah, on the Wasatch range of mountains, and about sixteen miles from a station called Sandy, on a branch of the Union Pacific Railroad, is a little spot of ground whose fame, though the growth of only a few years, has already spread far and wide over the surface of the earth, and promises to be handed down to future generations, if not in song, at least in the records of financial and political ethics, as one of the most remarkable places on the surface of the habitable globe. In 1868, two prospecting miners, of the names of Woodman and Chisholm, wandering about through the cañon, suddenly became aware that on the side of one of the hills there were evidences of silver ore, and being, like most prospecting miners, though rough in manners and appearance, of an imaginative turn, they determined to consider their discovery a mine, and to name it after a lady with whom one or possibly both of them had been illicitly consorting in San Francisco, and whose Christian name was Emma. This they did, but, having no capital to work their discovery, it seemed at first that the christening of the mine might be all that would ever happen to it; when, very fortunately, one fine day there appeared on the scene a certain Mr. James E. Lyon, whose business was that of a mining speculator, who agreed to join Woodman and Chisholm, and advanced them money, he receiving a one-third share in the mine as an equivalent.

During 1868 and 1869, one hundred tons of ore were got out, and Mr. Lyon, not being much pleased with the prospect of his enterprise, went back to New York on other business; first, however, having satisfied himself that the lode ran in a northwesterly direction—a fact which we must beg the readers of this article to remember; for though the direction of a lode seems to be one of those things which would not be apt to escape the memory of any one interested in it, it will be observed throughout this strange tale that the business of silver-mining, at least in the Wasatch range, seems to impair the mnemonic almost as much as it improves the inventive faculties of the mind. To New York, then, went Lyon, having first made up his mind that the lode ran in a northwesterly direction, and, singular as it may seem,

no sooner had he disappeared than the Emma became suddenly productive, a large body of ore was struck, and Messrs. Woodman and Chisholm, not caring so much for the niceties of partnership law as for silver, took in some new partners, and came at the same time to the conclusion that it was necessary to oust Mr. Lyon, on the ground that the vein now opened out was running in a different direction from what it was when the original shaft was sunk. Into the Emma Silver Mine of Utah these gentlemen had now organized themselves, and between Lyon and the Emma Silver Mine a suit raged for three days in the District Court of Utah, in which were engaged no less than seventeen lawyers, and among them, as Lyon's principal attorney, the Hon. W. M. Stewart, Senator for Nevada. What Lyon desired was an inspection of the mine, in order that the defective memories of his former partners might be refreshed as to the direction of the lode. He gained his suit, and, on the inspection, it proved that Lyon was right, and the direction of the lode was northwesterly. His suit was thereupon compromised; but, to understand the nature of the compromise, it is necessary to turn to other scenes and introduce new characters.

Vermont of late years has been the cradle of great men. From Vermont came Fisk; from Vermont came the gentlemen who have lately organized the Vermont Central Railroad; from Vermont, too, came Trenor Wm. Park. Originally a country lawyer in that State, he came early to the conclusion that the confined life of New England was too narrow for a man of his metal, and he went to practise in San Francisco—a city in which the practice of the law has the great advantage of including, among its legitimate and recognized weapons, what are still considered in the less progressive communities of the Eastern coast the crimes of champerty and maintenance. Like most of the gentlemen who have begun their careers as country lawyers in Vermont, and then emigrated to develop wider spheres of usefulness elsewhere, Mr. Park first really obtained distinction as a Receiver. It was the celebrated Mariposa Estate which he received, and so well did he perform his duties that he is said to have acquired the name among his friends and admirers of the "Great Exhausting Receiver." It may be inferred from this that Mr. Park had acquired no small knowledge of mining law; and when we say that about March, 1871, he and one General Baxter made a careful inspection of the Emma, it is tantamount to saying that they came at once to the conclusion that the mine had been badly managed. To improve the property they purchased one-half of the mine, and when Mr. Lyon's compromise came to be arranged, it was found that such had been their energy in developing its resources that they had already spent $1,500,000 upon it, with no returns. In any comprehensive scheme of improvement it was necessary that this money should be restored to them, and as neither Mr. Lyon nor Messrs. Woodward and Chisholm had that amount of money on the spot, development could never be complete without a sale of the mine. But to place the mine on the Little Cottonwood Cañon market was difficult, for the same reason that in the old English song the gentleman who put a rope round his wife's neck and took her for sale to the market town found it difficult to dispose of her: in the Little Cottonwood Cañon the population were "all of them sellers." There were a dozen mines within easy reach, but there were no quotations in the Cañon. To people who were really interested in a comprehensive scheme of development, there was but one thing to do. The mine must be sold—at a distance. The mine must be sold where money was plenty and the nature of cañons unfamiliar. The mine must be sold in London. The name was changed to the "Emma Silver Mining Company of New York," and Mr. Lyon was compromised with on the understanding that he should receive one-eighth of what the mine sold for, less the $1,500,000 (which Messrs. Park and Baxter had theoretically expended in their first attempt at development), in consideration of his, Lyon's, holding over his claim till the 15th of November following, while an United States patent was being got. Before Mr. Park and Senator Stewart went to London, however, there were one or two matters to be attended to. There must be an inspection and report upon the value of the mine by an expert, and, in order that this report should be all that it ought to be, there must be some preparation of the mine. Mr. Silas Williams, it seems, is admitted by Mr. Park to be about the best man in his acquaintance to prepare a mine, and Mr. Williams was sent for. In the month of September the number of men working on the mine was reduced from a hundred to a dozen. No one was allowed to go into the mine without a written order, and armed men were stationed as guards at the entrances, while Mr. Silas Williams occupied himself in plastering and engrafting silver ore on to the limestone rock. The mine was now nearly worked out; there were 1,500 tons of ore raised and on hand, and the value of the mine was, in Mr. Park's opinion, at that time expressed, about $250,000. The details of the preparation being arranged, Mr. Park and Senator Stewart sailed for England. Professor Silliman of Yale College had been through the mine, had seen the plastered walls, and made a very interesting and instructive report, for which he is said to have been promised $5,000, and a second sum of $45,000 if the sale in England was accomplished.

The scene changes now to England, where we find Mr. Park and Senator Stewart, armed with Professor Silliman's report, trying, at first without success, to float their scheme. To investors, silver mines seem a little speculative, and the history of investments in Erie had not tended to strengthen public confidence in new and unknown American securities, promoted by old and well-known American speculators, even when reported upon by the "Sir Roderick Murchison of the United States." If Mr. Park had not been a man of real genius, the scheme might never have been floated to this day. But Mr. Park was a man of genius, and it occurred to him that if the new English company were headed by General Schenck, the American Minister in London, it would probably acquire a reputation at once. General Schenck having little or no money, it was arranged that money should be provided him, and that he should thus enter the company as a *bona-fide* investor. This was no less important than the preparation of the mine by Mr. Silas Williams.

On the 9th of November, 1871, the Prospectus of the Emma Silver Mining Company, Limited, appeared, announcing the formation of the new company with a capital of £1,000,000, in 50,000 shares, of which 25,000 shares were offered by subscription, the vendors retaining the other 25,000. The directors were announced to be: George Anderson, Esq., M.P., London, *Chairman;* E. Brydges Willyams, Esq., M.P., London, *Deputy Chairman;* Percy Doyle, Esq., C.B., London; E. Leigh Pemberton, Esq., M.P., London; The Hon. J. C. Stanley, London; Major-General Schenck, United States Minister, London; General Henry Baxter, Ex-President N.Y.C. Railway, New York; Trenor Wm. Park, Esq., President National Bank, Vermont; The Hon. W. M. Stewart, United States Senator, Nevada. The trustees were to be: George Anderson, Esq.; Major-General Robert Schenck; and J. H. Puleston, Esq. (of Jay Cooke, McCulloch & Co., American Bankers), London. These three gentlemen were to act as trustees for the shareholders until the property purchased was duly transferred; and until that was done, no part of the purchase-money was to be paid.

The property meanwhile had greatly increased in value. There was in the first place: cash, being the balance of accrued profits receivable from consignments of ore by the vendors to London and Liverpool, amounting to £46,300. There were 2,800 tons of first-class ore being forwarded to England, of the estimated net value of £70,000. There were 8,000 tons second-class ore, piled up at mine for smelting there, of the estimated net value of £64,000. There were 13,250 tons first-class ore, already developed in various parts of the mine, of the estimated net value of £357,750. And there were also 2,600 tons first-class ore from mine to London expected to arrive during January and February, and to produce, net, £65,000. It was stated also that the ore previously sent to England had realized an average of £37 19s. 3d. per ton. The cost of extracting the ore ready for shipment or sale had hitherto been under 15s. per ton, or only about two per cent. of its value, a fact unprecedented in the annals of mining. Judging by the profits of the preceding four months' working, the estimated net yield of the mine would be at the rate of £700,000 per annum; or if smelting works were erected, as the proper business way to do, then the total profit would amount to the enormous figure of £800,000 per annum. Furthermore, with a view to equalize and ensure the steady and continuous payments of dividends, the divisions of profits were to be restricted to 18 per cent. per annum, until £180,000, equal to twelve months' dividends, were in hand in London, after which time the whole of the earnings were to be divided among the shareholders.

Mr. Park received £500,000 in cash, settled with Mr. Albert Grant (an English speculator, as expert in rigging the market as Mr. Silas Williams had shown himself in preparing, plastering, and engrafting) for £100,000, and a further prospective sum of £60,000 or £70,000 more, which he seems to have got afterwards, while with Mr. Jas. E. Lyon, entitled to one-eighth of the purchase, less $1,500,000, a compromise was effected by which he got £30,000 for his whole claim, Mr. Park very kindly letting him know that a peculiar arrangement had been entered into, by which the whole of the London shares were locked up and inaccessible, in the hands of Mr. Grant, for nine months or more, and that before the expiration of that period, in all human probability, the "game would be played out" and the mine "bust up." Mr. Lyon being thus got rid of, the other old claimants renounced all their rights in favor of Mr. Park upon the payment of fifty dollars a share, and in consideration of an undertaking on the part of Mr. Park to make up to the new London company for any discrepancy between the actual amount of first-class ore and the 2,800 tons mentioned in the prospectus. It is hardly necessary to say that as there were only 1,800 tons of this ore in existence, Mr. Park at once paid over to the

London Emma Company £28,000, and the London Emma Company entered the payment in their books as received for "missing ore."

After this, everything went on beautifully. There was, to be sure, here and there an adverse rumor in circulation, and General Schenck was obliged to resign his position as director; but that was only a matter of diplomatic etiquette, and had nothing to do with the merits of the mine; and the 18 per cent. dividends now began to be paid, together with an announcement from the directors that they had "taken great pains to verify every statement in the prospectus," and were "confirmed in their opinion" that such statements were "strictly accurate." The production at the mine went on increasing, for on the 1st of February, with the monthly dividend, came a statement of "ore sold at Utah, 1,000 tons—£28,000," which was the same quantity *short* from the 2,800 tons which is referred to in the prospectus as "now at railway station, *en route* to London." On the 7th of March, a meeting of the company was held, at which Mr. G. Anderson, the chairman, stated to the shareholders that silver was coming out of the mine so fast that it seemed very likely that they would get "30 or 40 per cent. instead of 18." Meantime, to dispel the rumors which had sprung up about the Company, Mr. Park offered to pay the expenses of the whole of the Board if they would only go out to the Little Cottonwood Cañon—if they would only go out and examine the property for themselves. This they did not care to do; but Mr. Brydges Willyams did, receiving a check for his trouble of £5,000. With Mr. Willyams, as a personal friend, went Mr. G. A. Lawrence, better known as the author of 'Guy Livingstone' and other works of fiction; and the result of his connection with the enterprise is a very agreeable instance of how much any development of the resources of nature benefits not merely those directly interested, but all classes of the community. Mr. Lawrence, a literary man, and not skilled in mining, was much struck with what he saw in Utah, and on his return wrote a book called 'Silverland,' containing a chapter devoted to the Emma Mine, for which he received a thousand guineas from his publishers, while his expenses were paid by his friend Mr. Willyams. One of the malicious rumors about this trip was that Mr. Park sent word out that Mr. Willyams was to have a home provided for him both in New York and Utah, and that he was on no account to be allowed to go anywhere near a hotel or converse with suspicious characters. With Mr. Willyams went Mr. Stewart and Professor Silliman, and the reports received from the mine were so favorable that, on the 1st of April, 1872, the directors invited the stockholders to take the locked-up and inaccessible vendors' shares, the directors being desirous of getting a quotation on the Stock Exchange, and it being necessary for this that more shares should be held by the company itself. The only difficulty, they said, was about the price; but they had succeeded in inducing the vendors to dispose of shares at £23—the market price. The shares were taken, or taken in great measure, and everything went on even more swimmingly than before, although, strange to say, no quotation was granted. The papers stated that "the directors would be in possession of the £180,000 reserve in a few days, and would then immediately commence paying 36 per cent. dividend." A pamphlet by "Nummus" appeared, called 'Mining Enterprise in America, as illustrated by the History of a Great Investment,' which was printed by a respectable publishing house, Messrs. Cassell, Petter & Galpin, and in some way seemed to have been published by them, though it was not, and they knew apparently nothing about mining enterprise in America. Extracts from this were made in such papers as the *Mining World* and *Stock Exchange Review*, and sent free to every stockholder. On the 1st of May, the directors announced the return of Mr. Willyams with highly satisfactory accounts, and a meeting was held on the 7th of that month to hear them. Mr. Willyams, having lost his father, could not attend it; but a letter from him was read, in which he expressed the opinion that the property was "honestly worth more than double what it was three months ago," while Mr. Silliman's second report said that the recent discoveries were "a guarantee for the future of regular and satisfactory dividends"; and on a stockholder venturing to enquire if he might be informed "what amount of ore was actually in sight, seen, and measured," the chairman, Mr. Anderson, advised him to read the reports and he would find that Professor Silliman vouched for 32,000 tons. On the 1st of November, the directors announced the quantity of ore raised to date as 10,190 tons. The monthly dividends went on, the thirteenth being paid on the 2d of December, 1872, and, on the 10th of that month, Mr. Anderson made a report, detailing his visit to the mine, giving a glowing account of the property (the ore raised was 11,420 tons), and paying a high tribute to the loyalty and disinterestedness of Messrs. Park and Stewart.

With this gratifying tribute, the history of the Emma Mine may be said to close. To be sure, there is an appendix in the way of charges and explanations and balance-sheet and proceedings by stockholders, but these are proceedings relating to individuals, their private fortunes, their integrity, and so on. But, as a mine, the Emma on the 10th of December, 1872, ceased to exist. There were no more dividends, there was no more ore either in Utah, or in New York, or in London, or on the high seas, to arrive. The 32,000 tons vouched for by Professor Silliman had disappeared, so had the 11,420 tons raised, so had the £46,300 "cash on hand," which was an imaginary sum paid over first in the purchase-money to the vendors, and repaid the next day to the Company; so had £195,000 in dividends, the money for the last two of which it seems had been lent to the Company by Mr. Park, as it was itself insolvent; and, in fact, the mine had netted about £47,000 from the 8th of November, 1871, to the 31st December, 1872. Meanwhile, it appeared that the Company had been mining on ground not their own. It will be remembered that the mine ran northwest and southeast, but the company which got the patent discovered that in a northwest and southeast direction there were other claims, the Illinois, the Cincinnati, the San Francisco Emma, and the North Star, all working close by. So in order to avoid this difficulty the patent was taken northeast and southwest, while the mining was done northwest and southeast—in the true direction of the lode. By this arrangement they secured a good title in their patent, and at the same time it did not in reality make very much difference which way it was worked, for it would "bust up," as Mr. Park said, in a few months at any rate. In this way they mined their way into land of the Illinois Company, and the balance-sheet disclosed the fact that they owed the Illinois Company £18,000 on this account, which reduced the £47,000 to £29,000. As to the quantity of ore remaining in the mine Mr. Park says: "No one can tell as to the quantity of ore remaining in the mine, save Him who made it"; this being supposed to be a pious reference to the Creator of the Universe.

There are one or two more things which it is necessary to state in order to explain the nature of the source from which this information all comes. In November, 1871, one S. T. Paffard, having a little money to spare, and seeing a notice of the Emma Company in some newspaper, obtained a prospectus, and became strongly impressed with the statements contained in it, vouched for by such names as it bore, and especially by the name of Gen. Schenck, the United States Minister. Being desirous of adding to his income, he took such shares as were within his means, not on speculation, but as an investor. When the bubble burst, he determined to find out why it was that shares were worth £3 which had been worth £23, and he has spent much time and trouble in correspondence and examination, and has in the end got together the real history of the enterprise, in a little pamphlet dedicated "To the shareholders of the Emma Silver Mining Company (Limited), and to the shareholders in mines of a similar nature in Utah and Nevada." He gives, in an interesting and instructive appendix, his correspondence with the eminent gentlemen connected with the enterprise, and, with a hopefulness which is certainly to be commended in one who has bought his experience so dear, he takes as the motto of his True History of the Emma Mine "*Magna est veritas et prevalebit.*"

LOUIS AGASSIZ.

SELDOM, if ever, has the death of a man of science been so widely and deeply felt as in the case of Professor Agassiz, who departed this life on the evening of the 14th inst. He was born at Mottier, near the Lake of Neufchatel, in May, 1807, and was therefore in his sixty-seventh year. His father was the pastor of the parish. Early choosing the medical profession, probably because of its affinity with natural history, for which his fondness was manifest in boyhood, he studied in the schools of Lausanne and Zurich, in his native Switzerland, then at the universities of Heidelberg and Munich, taking the degree of Doctor in Medicine at the latter at or before 1830, having already taken that of Doctor in Philosophy at Erlangen. By this time, if not long before, under the stimulus and example of such teachers as Döllinger, Martius, and Oken, and with such student-companions as Schimper, Mohl, and Braun, his destiny as a naturalist was fixed, and his career opened. That Von Martius should have chosen his pupil (Spix having died) to work up the fishes collected in his and Spix's Brazilian expedition was natural, for young Agassiz probably even then knew more of the fresh-water fishes of Europe than any one else; and this, his first piece of systematic zoölogical work, probably impressed upon his mind a special interest in Brazil and its fauna, which was gratified in after-years under nobler opportunities than falls to the common lot, resulting in an accumulation of materials in all departments, and especially in ichthyology, which might satisfy in this respect even the largeness of Agassiz's mind. Would that his subsequent days could have been mainly devoted, as he once or twice essayed to devote them, to the elaboration of these and other unequalled ichthyological collections; that he might have rounded his life by a completed work in the department which first gave him fame, for which he re

tained a predilection, and in which so much remained for him to do. In the year 1832, or thereabouts, Agassiz accepted the chair of natural history in the college of Neufchatel, in which Guizot was one of his associates. Here, having secured in Baron Cotta a publisher able and willing to respond to his desires, he brought out his 'Natural History of the Fresh-water Fishes of Central Europe,' and the fourteen livraisons (with 311 plates) of his 'Researches on Fossil Fishes.' And from this base, with the range of the Bernese Alps towering in the horizon before him, he carried on those elaborate investigations upon *living* glaciers, and developed those views respecting their former overwhelming agency which are recorded in his 'Etudes sur les Glaciers' and his 'Système Glacière,' as well as in the publications of various learned societies, and which have made his name illustrious in the annals of geology also. The comparatively untechnical character of these investigations (except as to the intimate cause and process of glacier movement), adapting them to general apprehension; the leading part they have ever since played in recent geology in questions relative to the age, introduction, and distribution of species, and over the whole field aptly denominated in French *physique du monde;* the persistent ardor with which they were undertaken and expounded, yet without pretermission of his more recondite zoölogical researches; and the unfaltering courage and confidence with which they were at once carried out to their full legitimate consequences (a characteristic trait of their author's mind), naturally captivated no less the popular than the scientific world, who joined in assigning to Agassiz a place by the side of his friend and early patron Humboldt. The two had more than one point of resemblance, and it would be curious to trace the parallel.

In 1846, at middle age, he came to the United States on a scientific visit, with leave of absence and some assistance from the King of Prussia as suzerain of Neufchatel. He delivered in Boston a course of Lowell lectures, and other similar lectures in several cities. He was just the man to be fully appreciated here; and the field which he found, or saw the capabilities of, was most inviting to one of his zeal, ardor, largeness of view, bold and contagious hopefulness. He decided to remain, and he did remain, unswerved by flattering attempts to win him back to Europe. Under an endowment of the late Abbott Lawrence, he became professor of zoölogy and geology in Harvard University in 1847, and was fulfilling the duties of the office when the fatal illness seized him. Of his work and his influence here through this quarter of a century; of the great museum of zoölogy which he established and replenished, and upon which he lavished heart, and time, and means; of the zoölogical investigations he has here made, and those he has incited and promoted; of those four imperial quarto volumes of 'Contributions to the Natural History of the United States' which stand a memorial of what science, seconded by zeal and noble patronage, may accomplish, but may by the largeness of plan be unable to complete; of the exploration in Brazil, its princely outfit and ample returns; of the recent *Hassler* expedition round the continent, adding its proportion to the vast stores accumulated at the museum, but most of all, as we fondly deemed, the inestimable benefit of restored health and vigor to the naturalist, whose remaining days were now doubly and trebly valuable for science; of that fatal gift, the rock of Penikese, covered last summer with an admiring, active-minded throng, who little dreamed what life-blood they were consuming, now desolate and plashed by December waves that moan like dirges; of the characteristic traits, scientific and personal, of the naturalist and the man who is now lamented—of all these, we have not room to write. Nor, indeed, is it needful for our readers, for probably there never was another eminent naturalist so widely personally known.

Noble lessons and inspirations are to be drawn from Agassiz's example, and one warning. Probably the warning may not be much needed again in our day, for not many naturalists of the highest order have the gifts which cause them to be beset, or even the disposition to estimate at its proper worth the value of a popular appeal. Our ideal naturalist, in this regard, would be a cross between Robert Brown, whom his scientific compeers ranked as *facile princeps*, while very few even of his best-educated countrymen ever heard of him, and one who, like Agassiz, was "known and read of all men," and who longed that all should share in all he knew. But naturalists capable of large, original researches are few, and always likely to be overtasked, and their precious time should be jealously guarded. This is especially applicable to those who can not only investigate well, but shape and systematize. And here a brief remark may not be out of place—considering that perhaps the last printed words from Mr. Agassiz's pen, not yet issued, relate to it—upon his position in respect to a popular doctrine of the day. Agassiz early came in contact with the Naturphilosophie of Oken, which he much disliked, and one would say with fair reason. In philosophy he was a pupil of Schelling at Munich, after Schelling's conversion from idealistic pantheism. As a naturalist, although morphology was his *forte*, the school of Cuvier engaged him more than that of St. Hilaire. Purport and plan were more to him than ways and means, and physical cause and effect. Never was there a more thoroughly theistic philosopher. His iterated argument against doctrines of evolution, reduced to simplest terms, is this: 1. There is order and system in organic nature, such as indicates thought; 2. The evolution of species of plants and animals, one from another, by natural causation, is tantamount to a denial of this. 3. Therefore, doctrines of evolution are untrue. If the second term be conceded, most people will agree with him.

It was not badly written of Agassiz by one of his literary contemporaries, that "he is a scientific force, and no small portion of the immense influence he exerts is due to the energy, intensity, and geniality which distinguish the nature of the man. . . . He is at once one of the most dominating and one of the most sympathetic of men, having the qualities of leader and companion combined in singular harmony." His mark and rank were recognized by all appropriate scientific and literary honors. He received the Monthyon and Cuvier prizes in Paris, the Copley and the Wollaston medals in London, the LL.D. from Edinburgh, Dublin, and Harvard Universities; was elected into all the great scientific academies and societies, and, last and most prized, was one of the eight Foreign Associates of the Academy of Sciences at Paris. A peculiar plant which inhabits the southern borders of his adopted country, with deliciously-scented flowers, bears the name of *Agassizia suavis*. Mr. Agassiz early married a gifted sister of Professor Alexander Braun, by whom he had three children, who survive him: two daughters, married in this country, and a son, whose investigations in the zoölogy and comparative anatomy of radiate animals have already placed him very high in the ranks of scientific men. Of the surviving Mrs. Agassiz (*née* Cary), the ever-helpful companion and associate in voyage and travel, as well as in literary and scientific work, it would be superfluous to speak.

Correspondence.

PLYMOUTH CHURCH DISCIPLINE.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: I understand you, in your number for December 4, to state in substance and in various forms that Plymouth Church and their pastor have abandoned the theory of a distinction between the church and the world consisting in a change of heart and of life, as the basis of church organization; the church is represented as declaring that "church-members may or may not be Christians or good men—about that it does not concern itself. The one thing certain is that they like to come to the building on Sunday, and are strong in their devotion to philanthropic enterprises. In short, the church is not an institution. Its members are not held together by any visible bond. They are persons who like to expose themselves to spiritual influences, but have nothing to say as to the effect of these influences on their character." You naturally and properly express great sorrow at this result, regarding the Puritan Church as a very important conservative element of human society, and especially in these democratic ages.

Whether Plymouth Church has taken this ground or not is simply a question of fact. If it is a fact, then the evidence of the fact can be produced. What, then, are the sources of evidence in this case? I know of none but its fundamental constitutional documents, or some authentic public declaration of the church. Let us, then, first turn to the fundamental documents of the church, and see how men are admitted to this church and what obligations they assume. I refer you to page 17 of the 'Manual' of the church. The candidates are publicly addressed before the audience, and this address assumes, what is a fact, that they have been examined as to the evidence of a change of heart and life, and are now to profess the same. The pastor says to them: "You have been deeply convinced of your personal sinfulness; you have believed in the forgiving love of Jesus Christ; you have dedicated your heart and life to him; that dedication you are about to renew, in the presence of God and this congregation."

What, now, is the essence of the covenant into which they enter? It is to renounce a life of sin, and "to consecrate the whole soul and body to the service of God." What does the church covenant? It is "by all means in their power to advance those who join them in the divine life."

Can there be a more explicit declaration of the basis of the church in a professed change of heart and life? But now the question may be raised, Has not this basis been repudiated? Certainly this is a fair question, and it leads to the enquiry, How can such a constitution be repudiated? Is it by a single speech of a member, even if he were the pastor? Is not an action of the church essential to effect so fundamental a change? Has there been

any such action? It is not possible to produce any such action. But it may be said that the pastor's speech, sanctioned by the church, implies it. Does the pastor, then, in either of his speeches repudiate what has been to this time the original and perpetual basis of the church? To this I answer decidedly, no. On the other hand, in both of the speeches of the pastor recently delivered, he has emphatically reaffirmed it. But, it may be asked, did not the pastor say that "the door of entrance to the church should be as large as humanity"? He did. But he did not say that alone. He did not say that any could enter it without professing a change of heart and of life, for he proceeded immediately to say: "It was designed to give an invitation to all to come into the church who really felt a desire to come in through faith in Christ, for the purpose of a loving obedience to the Lord Jesus Christ, and to all persons who gave reasonable evidence of the sincerity of their purpose of holy living." In his second speech the pastor said: "I have said time and time again in your hearing that only those who were convinced of their profound sinfulness and of the need of divine help, and who accepted Jesus Christ as their Lord and Saviour, were invited to come to the communion table, no matter whether they were church-members or not. And that has been the ground on which I have stood at the door of the church and asked, 'Do you come because you are sinful and helpless—because you believe Jesus Christ has begun to help you? Do you come leaning on him into this Christian brotherhood? That has been the *only* ground on which men have come into this church.'"

That these reports of the pastor's speeches are correct I know, for I heard them both. What now can be said to rebut this evidence? Ought any one to affirm that Plymouth Church has forsaken her original basis, not only without evidence, but against such evidence as this?

How has it happened, then, that not only secular but even some religious papers have taken this view of the case? I answer, it is owing to a defective report of the first speech of the pastor and to a false construction put on what was reported. The statement "The door of entrance to the church should be as large as humanity," has been re-echoed and taken without the limitation immediately added by the pastor, that no one could enter it who did not profess repentance of sin, faith in Christ, and a sincere purpose to lead a holy life. But one would think that newspaper reports have not always been so full and so infallible as to warrant any man in bringing such a charge against such a church until he knew that the newspaper report was neither inaccurate nor defective.

But it may be said that the pastor disavows discipline. It is true that he does discountenance a frequent resort to *judicial processes* and a *litigious* spirit in the church, and a reliance on mere legal proceedings as a means of promoting a holy life. But he insists earnestly on that highest and noblest discipline which arises from the full development of the spirit of the Gospel, the spirit of love, and its application not merely to church services, but to the whole intercourse of life and to all the interests of human society. To this his sermons for years bear witness. He seeks to introduce all who join the church into some field of benevolent labor, and relies as far as possible on spiritual influences in the various fields of Christian action opened by the church, so to develop every man in the Christian life that he shall be a law unto himself, and not need constant legal scrutiny. Is not this right? Does not Paul say that a righteous man ought to be above such need of law? (1 Tim. i. 9.) Such a need of law indicates the childhood of divine life, and not the mature and fully-developed Christian. But when these means will not avail, the pastor does advocate judicial proceedings, and, if need be, excommunication.

But it may be said he makes it easy to leave the church. He does; and in this differs from those who, by a stringent covenant, make it impossible to get out of the church except by excommunication or death. Excommunication requires judicial proceedings, and thus the difficulty of getting a member out of the church is raised to the highest point. The tendency of this system is to retain in the church many who should be out of it, yet cannot be put out by judicial processes. The pastor regards this stringent system as unauthorized by the Bible and injurious, and opens the door for those to withdraw who, in Christian judgment, ought to be out of the church.

Is not this wise? Does it not tend to purity in the church? True, it may not remove all who ought to be removed, but it is a step towards it. Every one who has had a wide experience of churches knows how hard it is to get out unworthy members by judicial processes after they have been once received. But the policy of the pastor tends towards the purity of the church, as far as it goes, and therefore deserves decided approval and not censure.

To conclude, the avowed end of Plymouth Church, and of the pastor, is to promote holy living to the highest degree, and their whole system is deliberately adapted to that end. If all unworthy members are not removed, it is because there is no known process by which it can be effected in this world. That such would be the fact our Saviour foresaw, and referred us to the final judgment-day for the complete removal of all of the elements of evil from his church. EDWARD BEECHER.

THE VIRGINIUS CASE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

In your number of Dec. 11, I read the following words:

"The theory . . . that if the *Virginius* was a mere pirate we might not be able to call Spain to account for her summary mode of dealing with the crew, receives a severe blow from the following article of the Treaty of 1795 between that country and the United States: 'Art. VII. It is agreed that the subjects or citizens of each of the contracting parties, their vessels, or effects, shall not be liable to any embargo or detention on the part of the other, for any military expedition, or for any public or private purpose whatever.'" [The rest of the article, which has no bearing on what I wish to say, is omitted.]

Now, I wish to submit:

First, That what is meant here is the *embargo or detention*—the latter word defines the first—*of vessels already in port*. There is no embargo of any others. The article prohibits the exercise of what is sometimes called the *jus angariæ* and all other summary ways of treating vessels in port.

Secondly, if the *Virginius* were "a mere pirate," and thus the vessel of *hostes humani generis*, the ship of any nationality could have seized her, and the courts of any nationality tried her. Can you believe that the United States, in this article, renounced the right of seizing a Spanish piratical ship on the high seas? Being seized, such a vessel would come before our courts like any other similar vessel, and be tried and condemned. All her crew, of every nationality, would be equally amenable to our laws, as waging war against us. To this case surely *embargo* and *detention*, and subsequent treatment of persons on the piratical ship, could not be supposed to apply. W.

[The passage which "W." omits contains, however, the basis of our suggestion, viz.: that "in all cases of seizure, detention, or arrest, for debts contracted or *offences committed* by any citizen or subject of one party within the jurisdiction of the other, the same shall be made and prosecuted by order and authority of the law only, and according to the order of procedure usual in such cases. The citizen, etc., shall be allowed to employ such advocates, solicitors, notaries, agents, and factors as they may judge proper in all their affairs and in all their trials of law in which they may be concerned before the tribunals of the other party; and such agents shall have free access to be present at the proceedings in such causes, and at the taking of all examinations and evidence which may be exhibited in the said trials." It is not unreasonable, we think, to hold that American citizens, charged with piracy before Spanish tribunals of whatever nature, are entitled to the benefit of this provision, and it is certain that in the *Virginius* case they were deprived of it. The consul was denied access to them, and they had no assistance from agent, solicitor, or advocate. To "W.'s" interpretation of the treaty regarding embargo and detention we have no exception to make.—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

ON Tuesday and Wednesday, January 27, 28, Messrs. Puttick & Simpson, 47 Leicester Square, London, W.C., will sell at auction the books and pamphlets collected by the late John Camden Hotten, and relating chiefly to North and South America. It is not a very remarkable collection, though book-buyers of a great variety of tastes will doubtless find it to contain something necessary to their perfect happiness. There are several works from Franklin's press, and a unique copy of his 'Dissertation on Liberty and Necessity, Pleasure and Pain,' an octavo pamphlet of 32 pages, printed in London in 1725, which the author sought to suppress in his maturer years. It is numbered 274 in the catalogue. Mr. Hotten's collections of engravings and portraits; of ancient charters, deeds, and MSS. relating to English county families; and of autographs of eminent personages, will be sold by the same auctioneers at a later date.——We learn from the *Athenæum* that Macmillan & Co. will publish in the spring an account of Sir Samuel (Pasha) Baker's recent expedition to the Upper Nile, in two volumes. Also, that in May will appear a work on Central Asia, by Mr. Eugene Schuyler, who is perhaps reserving for it a reply to Prof. Vámbéry's rejoinder to his recent attack on that gentleman's good faith as a traveller and an author. One would naturally ex-

pect him at least to take some notice of Vámbéry's defence of his philological integrity.——The proprietors of the London *Vanity Fair*, which "there is no presumption in saying has been adopted as the special paper of good society," inform the public further that it has now been established on a very solid and permanent foundation; that from the 1st of January it will be considerably enlarged in size, and will have several new features introduced into it; that the weekly cartoons will be printed in an entirely new style of chromo-lithography, and on better paper; and that the annual subscription price will be raised to two guineas and a half. But the best announcement of all is that Mr. Pellegrini ("Ape" of the early cartoons) will hereafter be the exclusive artist of the paper—a permanent engagement having been made with him. The *Vanity Fair* gallery of statesmen, sovereigns, and other eminent personages includes now nearly two hundred portrait-caricatures. ——Mr. J. T. Trowbridge, hitherto the editor of *Our Young Folks*, informs its readers that he will transfer to *St. Nicholas* a serial story prepared for the former magazine. With three such admirable story-tellers for children as Mrs. Dodge (the editor), Mr. F. B. Stockton, and Mr. Trowbridge, *St. Nicholas* makes a strong beginning and can hardly fail to meet with general acceptance.——*Petermann's Mittheilungen* for October 28 offers a map of Southeastern Australia, showing the latest discoveries up to the present year, and also, by appropriate coloring, the distribution of population. Another map is of the rapids of the Madeira River, and marks the line of Col. Church's projected railway around them, one of the most important enterprises of the day. The *Polaris* expedition and the Khivan campaign are among the subjects discussed in the text.——Prof. W. D. Whitney contributes to the *College Courant* (New Haven) for December 13 an article on "Text-Books for the Study of Sanskrit," to which we would call the attention of all intending students of the language. He has been led to write it, he says, in consequence of the numerous letters of enquiry which he is constantly receiving, the writers being, "in great part, men advanced in life, or at least settled, as instructors or professional men, away from institutions where the study is taught, and where helps for it are to be found." Prof. Whitney furnishes the beginner all the aid possible in the selection of text-books and dictionaries, though he is obliged to confess at almost every turn that they are scanty, difficult to obtain, and defective.——To the gift-books noticed last week we must add the elegant work imported by Scribner, Welford & Armstrong, entitled 'History of the Ceramic Art,' and translated from the French of Albert Jacquemart by Mrs. Bury Palliser. It is illustrated by twelve exquisite etchings on steel by Jules Jacquemart; by 200 wood engravings, partly by the same hand; and by monograms, marks, etc. We shall endeavor to give critical attention to this work hereafter. Though especially attractive to collectors of pottery and porcelain, it will give pleasure to any lover of the beautiful. We should also indicate to Christmas buyers Mrs. Kate N. Doggett's translation of Charles Blanc's 'Grammar of Painting and Engraving,' published, in the best manner of the Riverside Press, by Hurd & Houghton; and Mrs. Clement's 'Hand-book of Painters, Sculptors, Architects, and Engravers,' published by the same house.

—The American Palestine Exploration Society has published a 'Second Statement,' bearing date of September. It contains an account of the efforts made by the Society to organize an exploring party, and of the difficulties encountered by Lieut. Steever and his associates in taking the field after their arrival at Beirut. The most serious obstacle was of course the want of money; and, "at last, the officers of the Society made themselves personally responsible for the letters of credit (for two thousand pounds) which, in March, opened the way to Moab. Nearly one-half of this sum, we regret to say, still remains to be raised." A letter from Lieut. Steever, dated March 29, narrates the adventures and observations of his command during the march from Beirut to Es Salt, across the Jordan. Subsequent despatches bring down the record to the end of August, but they are yet to be published. Prof. Paine believes "that he has fully identified the heights of Nebo and Pisgah." The rest of the 'Statement' consists of interesting papers on kindred topics; the first on "Discoveries at Nahr-el-Kelb" (the river Lycus of Strabo and Pliny), also made by Prof. Paine, and described in his own words. These relate to three archaic Greek inscriptions on the ancient road from the sea to Baalbec. The inferences drawn from them by Prof. Paine are decidedly shaken by Dr. Howard Crosby's critical queries at the close of the article. Mr. J. Augustus Johnson treats in the "Modern Canaanites" of a peculiar people inhabiting the mountains connecting Lebanon and Taurus; the Rev. Samuel Jessup contributes a light but interesting paper on "Husn Sulayman," with numerous illustrations of the general situation and antiquities of the place; and the Rev. Wm. Hayes Ward describes in a lucid manner the celebrated Hamath inscriptions, facsimiles of which accompany his article. Mr. Ward thinks the problem of deciphering these hieroglyphics is not very hopeful. The characters are not unique, however, being found on one or two badly preserved inscriptions in Aleppo, and on some gems from Babylonia in the British Museum.

—The recently published pamphlet containing the "Proceedings of the Fifth Annual Session of the American Philological Association," consists for the most part of abstracts of papers on the minutiae of linguistic science, and will, therefore, hardly be looked upon as "popular" literature. We find, however, on the 24th page, some facts which ought to interest the American people, especially if they have any respect for their aboriginal predecessors. These facts are furnished by Mr. Horatio Hale, of Clinton, Ontario, Canada, and therefore rest on excellent authority. Mr. Hale, in a visit to the Reserve of the Six Nations, near Brantford, procured a list of the founders of the celebrated Iroquois Confederacy, in which he found, to his surprise, the name of Hiawatha, the Indian hero "made famous by the genius of Longfellow," but in a form so disguised that he did not at first recognize it. Written according to the Mohawk pronunciation, on the Reserve, the name is "Ayunghwata"; but, taking the word as usually written, if we give to the first *a* a slightly nasal sound, like that of the French *an* or *en*, and separate the *t* and the *h*, we shall approach very closely to the correct pronunciation. The meaning of the word is "He who seeks the wampum belt." It appears from Mr. Hale's investigations that Hiawatha was not a myth, but a veritable personage, "as authentic as King Alfred or General Washington." He appears to have lived in the latter part of the fifteenth century. That part of his life of which the fullest account has been obtained has some romantic traits, not unlike Longfellow's hero. It was he who first conceived the idea of uniting the various tribes in a confederacy, and, with the aid of an influential Mohawk chief, named Tekanawita (sometimes written Deckanaweeda), succeeded in carrying it out. They held a convention, and planned a system of government somewhat in the style of the founders of our Republic. The names of those who took part in the convention are remembered, and even some recollection of their speeches is preserved by tradition. The motives of the leaders were much the same as those which actuated the framers of our Constitution, and their plan was a remarkably comprehensive one. Their purpose was not to confine the union to the tribes of their own stock, but to embrace in it all the tribes or "nations" known to them, so as to bring about a general and permanent peace. "It will seem almost incredible," Mr. Hale remarks, "that a convention of Indian sages and statesmen, actuated by these views, was held four centuries ago in Northern New York; and yet the evidence of it is very strong." There are still extant some of the songs composed at that time. They are held in recollection by means of strings of wampum, each string varying from the others in the collocation of the beads, and every string recalling a verse. The verses are in an archaic dialect, which differs from that of the present day about as much as the language of Chaucer differs from modern English. These songs are in praise of the confederacy, and are still chanted whenever a new chief is installed.

—Mr. Hale, who communicates the above facts, became favorably known to etymologists more than twenty years ago through his work on the 'Ethnography and Philology of the Wilkes Exploring Expedition,' which is a marvellous storehouse of materials for the use of scientific students. Although he has published but little besides this book, he has not been idle in his chosen field. In his successive visits to the Reserve near Brantford, Canada, he has collected valuable vocabularies of Indian languages and dialects, and made some important discoveries, which will probably be published ere long in a permanent form. His "Exploring Expedition" Report, which has long been out of print, is to be republished, with the permission of the Government, in a cheaper and more convenient edition. The Philological Association, whose opinion ought to be of some value in such a case, welcomed the work in advance of its reappearance by a warmly commendatory resolution passed at their last session, held at Easton, Pennsylvania.

—Mr. Bryce's 'Holy Roman Empire' has reached a new edition—we believe the fourth. To those already familiar with this work, as well as to future readers, we can recommend Dr. Carl Wolff's elaborate monograph on the territorial divisions of the Empire, which has just been published in Berlin (Carl Habel), and the already issued illustrative map. The German title of the former is 'Die unmittelbaren Theile des ehemaligen römisch-deutschen Kaiserreiches und ihrer früheren und gegenwärtigen Verbindung.' The author takes up successively the ten *Kreise* into which the Empire was divided, and follows them into all their numerous subdivisions, giving the situation, boundaries, title, arms, etc., of each fragment of territory, and its varying fortunes through all the changes in the map of Europe from 1521 down to 1870, or to the foundation of the new Empire. Dr. Wolff's Introduction will also prove a useful supplement to Mr. Bryce's general view. After a slight sketch of the rise and decay of the Empire, it presents a very clear summary of the organization of the Empire from the Peace of Westphalia to its ultimate extinction—the power and attributes of the emperor,

the elective body, the composition of the Reichstage, the imperial courts, the imperial revenues, the army, etc., etc. The index of places, in triple columns, occupies fifty pages, and facilitates reference to any given district, town, or city.

—The Cotta editions of Goethe's works wrongly print as his an essay with the title, "Die Herstellung des Strassburger Münsters" ('Sämmtliche Werke, Stuttgart and Tübingen,' 5 Bde., 1854-55, V. 409-411; 'Werke: Vollständige Ausgabe letzter Hand,' 60 Bde., 1827-42, XXXIX. 364-373). The essay, with remarks at the close on the Cologne Cathedral and other antiquities, was published originally in Goethe's 'Kunst und Alterthum,' and communicated by Sulpiz Boisserée. It was Boisserée's intention to furnish Goethe only with materials for an essay, but Goethe said that the article could not be improved, and published it as it was written. He appended, however, the initials "S. B.," but these, by an error, were omitted in the printing, and the essay, very naturally, has been considered Goethe's own. Anton Springer makes the correction in No. 27 of *Im neuen Reich*. Boisserée often, in conversation with Springer, claimed the essay, and his published correspondence with Goethe gives Goethe's explanation of the mistake. Readers of W. Rossmann's 'Vom Gestade der Cyclopen und Sirenen,' or those who know the *Academy's* mention of the work as a meritorious book of travels, will like to hear of a visit which Herr Rossmann made last year to Argos and the plain of Mycenæ. "Eine Wallfahrt ins Land der Heroen," as his articles are entitled (*Im neuen Reich*, Nos. 28 and 29), naturally says much of the importance of the House of Pelops to the Attic tragedians; its chief interest, however, is for the student of sculpture and the antiquarian. It gives probably as good an account as can be found of the design over the Lion-gate at Mycenæ. Lübke's 'History of Sculpture' has a wood-cut of the ornament, but is far from indicating the place which it holds in the history of the art. All copies of the relief, except those modelled after the Berlin plaster-cast, are inaccurate; even the Berlin cast fails by isolating the relief. Of equal interest in the history of Herder's intellectual development with other articles, wanting in the editions of his writings and made known by Dr. Suphan, is his review of the literary products of Germany for the year 1773. The review was written in Herder's Bückeburg period, and contributed at the request of his friend Hamann to the *Königsberg Literary-Political Journal*, of which Hamann was editor. The fact is noteworthy that the review, aside from being the product of a turning-point in Herder's spiritual and literary development, is taken from probably the only copy of the volume of the *Journal* for 1774 in existence. In its critical judgments, the essay shows the influence of Lavater. It is written in a somewhat abrupt and disjointed style, and has been republished with judicious comments by R. Haym in No. 40 of *Im neuen Reich*. The essay takes up about eight and a half pages, and Haym's remarks six. Dr. Suphan has had a critical edition of Herder's works a long time in contemplation, and has frequently called attention to little-known writings of Herder, especially in contributions to the *Zeitschrift für deutsche Philologie*.

—A dispatch by Nicolo di Favri, of Treviso (attached to the Venetian Embassy in London), to Francesco Gradenigo, son-in-law of Andrea Badoer, the ambassador of the Republic to King Henry VIII., dated London, 23d January, 1513, and received at Venice in February, is a document of singular interest, illustrating the English manners of the sixteenth century more minutely than any similar source with which we are familiar. We shall quote throughout Mr. Rawdon Brown's abridgment in his 'Calendar of State Papers and MSS. existing in the Archives and Collections of Venice':

"In England, the houses are all of wood, and both rooms and corridors are of the same material. Over the floor they strew weeds, called rushes, which resemble reeds, and which grow on the water. Every eight or ten days they put down a fresh layer, the cost of each layer being half a Venetian livre, more or less, according to the size of the house. In England, the women go to market for household provisions; if gentlewomen, they are preceded by two men-servants. Their usual vesture is a cloth petticoat over the shift, lined with gray squirrel's or some other fur; over the petticoat they wear a long gown lined with some choice fur. The gentlewomen carry the train of their gown under the arm; the commonalty pin it behind or before, or at one side. The sleeves of the gowns sit as close as possible; are long and unslashed throughout, the cuffs being lined with some choice fur. Their head-gear is of various sorts of velvet, cap fashion, with lappets (*coste*) hanging down behind over their shoulders like two hoods; and in front they have two others, lined with some other silk. Their hair is not seen, so is unable to say whether it be light or dark. Others wear on their heads muslins, which are distended, and hang at their backs, but not far down. Some draw their hair from under a kerchief, and wear over the hair a cap for the most part white, round, and seemly. Others again wear a kerchief in folds on the head; but be the fashion as it may, the hair is never seen. Their stockings are black, and their shoes doubly soled, of various colors, but no one wears 'choppines,' as they are not in use in England. [The chopine was a shoe with a heel over three inches in depth.] When they meet friends in the street, they shake hands, and kiss on the mouth, and go to some tavern to regale, their relatives not taking this amiss, as such is the custom. The women are very beautiful and good-tempered. The men are well-made, tall, and stout; well-clad, wearing gowns called doublets (*zuboni*), plaited on the shoulders, reaching halfway down the leg, and lined with several sorts of very fine furs. On their heads they wear caps with one or two ornaments (*una foza over con do*); with short hair like the priests in Venice, the hair over the forehead being cut away. In England, no one makes bread at home; but every morning all take it at the bakers', and keep tallies there (*tessera*); at present bread is dear, on account of the war. The price of meat has more than doubled, as a 'milizia' [probably meant for migliaja or thousands (of oxen)] has been salted for the army, and very great preparation is making to stand the brunt; and by day and night and on all the festivals the cannon-founders are at work. [The invasion of France was to be undertaken by England and Spain.] The Venetian ambassador is at great expense, as he daily receives visits from one nobleman or another, most especially now that the Parliament is sitting. The floors of the English houses are for the most part planked. Aloft at the window-sills (which are all of wood) they put rosemary (*osmarin*), sage, and other herbs. In England, it is always windy, and, however warm the weather, the natives invariably wear furs. At present it has not yet been cold there, nor is it rainy or muddy. The summers are never very hot, neither is it ever very cold."

—The succeeding paragraphs concern the martial preparations of the king. Presently the writer turns again to civil matters:

"On All Saints' Day the Parliament met. All the lords of the kingdom came; the Parliament being held in the king's palace at a place less than two miles from London, called Westminster, where all the nobility who come for the session have houses. They attend the Parliament every morning, and having thus to pass the door of the Venetian ambassador's house on the Thames, whether they go by land or water (there being a hundred boats, built in the fashion of the country, which ply between London and Westminster), they visit him. This custom is by reason of the love they bear him. They come each with sixteen servants, more or less; some to dinner, others to breakfast; and thus, according to the custom of the country, is breakfast served every morning. The ambassador is always very glad to see them, and everybody likes him, from the highest to the lowest; indeed, were he a peer of the realm, the king and the nobility could not love him more cordially than they do. This is owing to his mature age, and because he is as conversant with the manners and language of England as if born in the country. Some of the English noblemen have said that he rather than any other envoy is needed in England to effect the rupture with France; and when they knew that another ambassador was coming, they said the Signory did ill to change. The ambassador [Badoer] wishes to return home, as he has hard work. Every morning at daybreak he goes to mass arm-in-arm with some English noblemen, and, after walking up and down for an hour, they attend the council, and then he returns home. Scarcely is he within doors ere some nobleman comes to visit him, and if he is from home his visitors wait for him, and refreshments are served. The ambassador is always prepared, and has six sorts of wines, some paid for, others taken on credit, for he has no money, though his credit is good. He has pawned his plate, sold his gowns, but still remains much in debt. Were this fact known to the Signory, they would supply him with funds for his maintenance. The ambassador's house is half a mile from Westminster, a very fitting site, as the Lords of the Court live thereabouts, and an ambassador ought not to trade, but merely learn what is doing at the Court. The ambassador sleeps scarce two hours in the night; he goes late to bed, and rises early. . . . A tax of a tenth has been levied throughout the kingdom. The lords and great personages (*gran mistri*) pay according to their property; tradesmen, servants, and attendants one penny per head, equal to twenty-eight Venetian 'piccoli.' This tax will yield a million of gold, so that the king means to make war. The king is a young man of three-and-twenty; when he moves, the ground shakes under him; is well-made, tall, and stout, and very fond of the Venetian ambassador, whom he chooses to accompany him, so that the ambassador requires money for his outfit."

The letter concludes with reports of four great victories by the Spaniards over the French. It was evidently written for the Signory to peruse, for with all the familiar revelations in its earlier topics, the stinginess and mean economy of the Doge and Senate towards their representative are harped upon in the allusion to the ambassador's frequent and unavoidable expenses. Andrea Badoer was always short of funds, and, towards the close of his mission, was forced to write direct begging-letters to his masters for very food and clothing, and it was only with great difficulty that he finally obtained a sum sufficient to discharge his debts in London. The calendar edited by Mr. Rawdon Brown is throughout a valuable compilation for the student of history of the Tudor period. The ceremonies, fêtes, and receptions, as well as the public events, are narrated with a striking detail of information not to be found in any mere chronicle or memorial. Of the genuineness and authenticity of the documents there never, as Mr. Brown himself testifies, has been entertained the slightest doubt.

HOLLAND HOUSE.*

THERE are probably few visitors to London possessing any familiarity with English literature or politics who have not taken occasion to get at least a glimpse of Holland House from the Kensington Road. Even those who know nothing of its historic associations are struck by the look of peace and dignity and splendor which the noble old pile presents, as they come

* 'Holland House. By Princess Marie Liechtenstein.' Two vols. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1874.

upon it in the midst of the dreary wilderness of London brick, and embowered in its great trees. It is now the most famous dwelling-house in London, and perhaps *the* one the destruction of which by the march of "modern improvements" persons of taste would witness with most regret. How it came to be famous all readers of Macaulay's Essays know. A successful political adventurer, named Stephen Fox, who rose into royal favor after the Restoration, left a son, the first Lord Holland, who began life both needy and unscrupulous, made a large fortune, it was universally believed by foul means, as paymaster-general of the forces, and left four sons, one of whom was Charles James Fox, the orator; and the eldest, who died young, left Holland House to *his* son, the third Lord Holland, who gave it its celebrity. He was born in 1773, and died in 1840, so that his manhood covered one of the most interesting periods of English history, and that most fertile in great men and most crowded with great social and political movements. It produced the French Revolution and Empire, and the gigantic wars which accompanied them, the rise of the English middle-class into power, and the overthrow of the oligarchy, and the appearance of the modern novel, of the quarterly review, of monthly magazines, the newspaper, and of Byron and the Lake poets. In fact, no period of English history has been marked by so much social and literary brilliance. London society has at no time included so many famous or remarkable men, and it was still small enough for individuals to preserve their weight in it. Lord Holland found himself at the opening of this period with considerable culture, great charms of manner, great powers of conversation, and a mind which, if not of the highest order, was strong enough to stimulate all who came into contact with it, and, above all, with a brilliant and accomplished wife, in possession of one of the most attractive houses in England, surrounded by beautiful grounds, within a mile or two of the Houses of Parliament; and, during the remainder of his life, he and Lady Holland made it a resort which not only all the leading politicians of the Liberal school, but the greatest English wits, orators, poets, painters, were delighted to frequent, and remembered to their death as the scene of their most delightful hours. Macaulay's pathetic picture of the library in its best days is fresh in everybody's memory, and probably nobody has ever read it without an eager desire to know something more of the old mansion, described so briefly in his impassioned and well-balanced periods.

The Princess Marie Liechtenstein, an adopted daughter of the present Lady Holland, who was brought up in Holland House, and was recently married to a younger son of the great Austrian house of Liechtenstein, has sought to gratify this desire in the two handsome volumes before us. The book is mainly valuable, however, for its engravings. To the reminiscences of Holland House she has added little that was not already known. She gives a list of habitués of the place in its best days, which, however, is enough to make one sigh on thinking that no faithful Boswell was attached to the dining-room and drawing-room, to collect all crumbs of conversations which must have surpassed in interest anything the past two centuries has produced. The circle was bounded by no narrow lines of party, or creed, or pursuit, or nationality. Everybody was welcome who had distinguished himself, or was likely to do so. What other hostess that modern society has produced could say that men like these had sat at her table? Sir Philip Francis, the reputed author of 'Junius'; Dr. Parr; Lord Byron; Lord Jeffrey; Monk Lewis; Payne Knight, the scholar and antiquary: Dumont, the publicist; Thurlow, Eldon, Brougham, and Lyndhurst, the four great Chancellors; Sir Humphry Davy; Count Rumford; John Hookham Frere; Lord Macartney, of the Chinese Embassy; Charles James Fox; Henry Grattan; Windham, the great orator; Sir Samuel Romilly; James Monroe; Washington Irving; Pozzo di Borgo; Montholon and Bertrand, the faithful attendants of the first Napoleon; Lally Tollendal; the two Humboldts; the Duc d'Orléans, afterwards Louis Philippe; Prince Metternich; Canova, the sculptor; Tom Moore; Erskine; Banister and Kemble, the actors; Madame de Staël. We have omitted here all those less widely known. In fact, as the authoress says, "from 1799 to 1840 there was hardly in England a distinguished man in politics, science, or literature who had not been a guest at Holland House. Beginning the list with C. J. Fox and Lewis, and ending it with Lord John Russell, Lord Melbourne, and Monckton Milnes, now Lord Houghton, we shall have a goodly company in a net." And behind the general company of the salon, there was an inner circle, no less delightful, which contained Sydney Smith, Rogers the poet, Luttrell the wit, and Francis Horner, of whom Smith said, "the Ten Commandments were written on his face," and of whom Lord Campbell said, "that he was the first man who ever made the doctrines of political economy intelligible to the House of Commons"; and Brougham, in his best days; and Mackintosh, and Macaulay, and many, many others.

Few of the Princess Marie's anecdotes are new; but one or two will perhaps bear quoting. Mackintosh annoyed old Dr. Parr by calling O'Coigly, who was tried for high treason in 1794, "a rascal," and the Doctor replied, "Yet, Jimmy, he might have been worse; he was an Irishman, and he might have been a Scotchman; he was a priest, and he might have been a lawyer; he was a rebel, and he might have been an apostate," alluding to Mackintosh's early beginnings as a defender of the French Revolution. Luttrell was one day, when there was an unexpected addition to the dinner-party, told by Lady Holland that "he must make room." "It will have to be made," he said; "for it does not exist." Lady Holland ruled the brilliant throng with a rod of iron. She was beautiful, clever, well-read, and full of kindliness, but arbitrary power had spoilt her, and she became rather remarkable for her brusquerie and imperiousness. She has been known to stop Macaulay in the midst of an interesting anecdote with "Now, Macaulay, we have had enough of this; give us something else." Sydney Smith she ordered about without much consideration. Telling him one day in stern tones to ring the bell, he did so meekly, and then asked "whether he should sweep the room." Hearing that Tom Moore was writing about the life of Sheridan, which *he* expected to be lively and amusing, she remarked to him in full dinner-table, "This will be a dull book of yours, this 'Sheridan,' I fear." Sometimes she met her match, as in Talleyrand, who observed, on hearing some one ask why she dined as early as six, that "he supposed it was to inconvenience everybody." Seeing some politicians whispering together in the drawing-room one evening—"Ah, gentleman," he said, "you're whispering; we shall have to go to the club to find out what you're saying."

Lord Holland died, as we have said, in 1840, and all this brilliant society came to an end. Many of its lights had preceded him; a few, such as Sydney Smith and Macaulay, survived him a short time; but Holland House ceased to be the charmed spot to which for so many years so many willing feet were turned. His son lived until 1859, and the widow of the latter still occupies the old mansion. London society has, however, changed too much for any one woman to fill the place in it occupied by the third Lady Holland, and English literary and political life has grown too vast and various in volume to make any revival of the glories of Holland House possible.

MIRABEAU.*

MIRABEAU'S career is one of the puzzles of history. American or English readers are too little acquainted with the bare facts of his life to understand fully the problems which it presents. They know Mirabeau merely as a great speaker, and the author of two or three celebrated Revolutionary mots. They further know that letters published since his death have proved him to have been in the pay of the court at a time when he was supposed to be the leader of the Revolution. These facts excite the reprobation without exciting the astonishment of English critics. They are, in the first place, prone to believe that all the heroes of the Revolution were monsters whose characters combined all the worst traits of human nature. They know, in the second place, that speakers have often been venal, and see no great reason for wondering at the corruption of a democratic rhetorician. They content themselves with enquiring, like Mr. Senior, whether the discovery of Mirabeau's treachery has excited much surprise in France, or think that Macaulay's description of the greatest of French orators as a 'Wilkes-Chatham" will suffice to explain the extraordinary character of the greatest statesman produced by the Revolution. For even the peculiarity of Mirabeau's conduct cannot be recognized until the plain historical fact be admitted, that he was even at the opening of the States-General nearly the most conspicuous statesman, and certainly the most influential popular leader, of the time. Elected both at Aix and Marseilles in opposition to all the influence of the nobility, he exerted a kind of power in the south of France something like the moral authority exercised by O'Connell in Ireland at the very height of his fame. Demonstrations of popular violence which the Government could not control were more than once calmed and kept within due limits by the exercise of Mirabeau's authority. He was not an unknown man whom the accidents of the time had forced into prominence, but was a politician, the vicissitudes of whose life, combined with his extraordinary talents, had kept him before both the court and the people as a man certain to exert immense weight in the conflicts of the day. Whatever other mistakes the French made, they committed no error in believing Mirabeau to be a statesman, and a statesman of the highest class. Before the Revolution broke out, he had denounced with singular boldness the evils against which that movement was directed. He had written from a dungeon against *lettres de cachet;* he had devoted himself when in prison to the defence of a poor man, unjustly attacked by the Government officials; he had appeared

* 'Mirabeau et la Constituante. Par Hermile Reynald. Ouvrage couronné par l'Académie française. Deuxième édition.' Paris: Didier et Cie.
'Mirabeau, sa vie, ses opinions et ses discours. Par A. Vermorel.' Paris: Librairie de la Bibliothèque Nationale.

as protector of the patriots of Holland, and had, whether fighting his own battles or fighting the battles of others, constantly come forward as the assailant of despotism and bigotry. Of his statesmanlike insight the court itself must have had a high opinion, from his employment in a delicate diplomatic mission to Prussia; and modern students, who have before them his speeches, his memoirs, and his most private notes, can form even a higher impression of his sagacity than could his contemporaries. On more points than we have space even to enumerate, he showed a clear-sightedness which is almost miraculous in a man of his time, and is, unfortunately, after all the lessons of experience, hardly to be found in the Frenchmen of to-day. He, for example, was the first to point out that the best mode of disarming an opposition was to take their leaders into power. His maxim, "A ministry of Jacobins will not be a Jacobin ministry," is shown to be true by every line of English history, but is a paradox which has never yet been intelligible to any French political party. He, again, saw the full importance of allowing ministers to sit in the Assembly; and if his advice had been listened to, the Assembly, naturally enough misled by one of the features of our American Constitution, would have entered on the right course for founding a constitutional government, and would have avoided one, at any rate, of the rocks on which the Revolution made shipwreck. He saw, again, what every one can see now, but what was apparently hidden from the eyes of the generation among whom he moved, that the Revolution, though essentially opposed to the privileges of the aristocracy, was not in its essence inconsistent with the maintenance of a strong central power. "One part," he wrote, "and that the most considerable part, of the labors of the National Assembly is evidently most favorable to a monarchical government. Is it nothing to be rid of parliaments, of *pays d'état*, of corporations such as the clergy, the privileged classes, or the nobility? The idea of forming but one class of citizens would have pleased Richelieu. If this smooth surface suits liberty, it also facilitates the exercise of authority." This insight is seen further in his views as to the royal veto, the right of declaring war, the impossibility of restoring aristocratic privilege, and in all the discussions in which he took part. The superiority and real peculiarity of his genius are summed up in his contempt for words and respect for facts. "People," he writes, "are irritated that I am always for moderate courses, but I am so convinced that there is an untold difference between making a fancy journey on a map and a real journey over the world; I am so certain that my constituents care very little about our metaphysical discussions, however important they may be, and that we can only count on their support when it comes to a matter of bread and cheese; I am so sure that the best way to make the Revolution fail is to ask too much, that I shall for a long time deserve the honorable reproach of moderation."

The man who could write thus when all Europe was excited about the metaphysics of politics was at any rate no declaimer, but a statesman such as France needed in '89, and does not apparently possess in 1873. His career as a politician extended only over two years, *i.e.*, from the meeting of the Assembly on the 4th of May, 1789, to his death on April 2, 1791, and was, as far as his open acts were concerned, worthy of his reputation. His boldness gave spirit to the Assembly to resist the court. His sagacity constantly directed it into the path of sound policy. His vigorous assertion of unpopular measures—as, for example, in upholding the veto—if it offended fanatics and excited the suspicions of enemies, seemed to give a guarantee of his fearless independence. Many even of the facts which roused against him the charge of treachery are capable of being interpreted as signs of prudence and moderation. His endeavors to effect a union, first with Necker, then with Lafayette, his resolute opposition to the violence of the mob, and to the fanaticism of the Jacobins, whose "thirty voices" he silenced by his thunders, even his communications with the court, which were at any rate suspected by his contemporaries, are in themselves to modern readers rather the signs of patriotic prudence than of political treachery. No doubt his course, even looked at without reference to the information with which the correspondence with La Marck has furnished us, appears at times strangely devious. But a politician must turn and tack during the storms of a revolution, and a leader who pilots the vessel of state is easily pardoned any variations in his course if he is supposed to be intent upon guiding her into port. In spite of suspicions, in spite of denunciations, the French people almost believed at the moment of Mirabeau's death that the country had lost a true patriot. The court, the Assembly, the people, and the Jacobins, with one accord paid him honor. The chorus of lamentation and veneration which accompanied his funeral was broken only by a shriek of hatred from Marat, who denounced the popular hero as a traitor, and, in a spirit of a kind of psychical prophecy, foretold that his bones and Mirabeau's should never rest together in the same pantheon. Marat's execrations seemed at the time an honor due to Mirabeau's greatness, and they were probably the result not of insight but of that insane suspicion which led Marat to denounce to public odium every man who committed the unpardonable crime of exciting his envy. Yet, in this instance, Marat's admirers, if any such he still possess, may claim for him second-sight.

In 1861, La Marck's correspondence with Mirabeau was published to the world, which then discovered for certain, what even Mirabeau's bitterest foes had only suspected, that the great democrat, statesman, and patriot had, at the very time when he was receiving the homage of the nation, pocketed the bribes of the court. His venality, it is true, had for years been more than suspected, but La Marck gives the whole details of the transactions between Mirabeau and the court, and the exact terms on which the bargain between them was struck. His debts were paid, he received an allowance of 6,000 francs a month, and was promised a million of francs after the session of the Assembly if the court were satisfied with his conduct. "This," says Quinet, "was the price at which the finest genius of his age put himself up for sale." At first sight, Mirabeau's conduct appears even more incredible than it is base. A reader feels as he would feel if he suddenly discovered that Washington had been throughout his career in the pay of George III., that Cavour had accepted bribes from Austria, or that Bismarck had gained relief from pecuniary difficulties by accepting gifts from Louis Napoleon. Parallels may no doubt be found to the venality of Mirabeau in the tales told of Marlborough, but these stories, true or false, have always themselves seemed to require some explanation, and are, moreover, told of a general who was one of a body of politicians corrupted by a whole age of revolutions. We accept their venality as we accept the corruption and sycophancy of men such as Cambacérès, Sieyès, or Talleyrand, whose hopes and principles had been worn out by a succession of revolutionary changes. But Mirabeau came at the beginning, not at the end, of a great movement, and played the traitor at a time not of despair and corruption, but of passionate hopefulness and of moral exaltation. The mass of French writers have done little to explain the enigmas of Mirabeau's conduct. Whether Republicans, Moderates, or Royalists, they have regarded him with hatred, and, moreover, have displayed their ingenuity rather in the congenial task of turning epigrams and balancing antitheses, than in calmly investigating the true position and policy of a man whom no party could claim as their leader, and whose talents were as undeniable as his vices. The result of their criticism is best summed up in Quinet's dictum: "The first apostle of the Revolution was also its Judas." Gradually, however, a conviction is spreading that antitheses, however brilliant, can never afford a satisfactory explanation of any man's character, and, least of all, of the character of a man of genius. Such a man may be a hero or a villain, but he certainly cannot be a sort of double being, one side of whose soul is all darkness, and the other side all light. To himself he must seem to have some consistency, and of no person is this more certainly true than of Mirabeau. His last thoughts were of his fame, and, in a celebrated passage of his writings, he expressed shortly before his death the confidence with which he committed his reputation to time. His trust, moreover, in the judgment of posterity did not depend on the belief that he could dupe future ages by concealing the baser actions of his life.

His letters to La Marck are the main proof of his intrigues. Not only might he have destroyed these letters, and entirely omitted to do so, but he expressed great anxiety that they should be preserved, and grounded on the knowledge which future ages would possess of their contents his trust that time would do justice to his character. This confidence adds at first sight the last touch of perplexity to the enigma of his character, yet it is from his view of his own position that any one must start who seeks not to defend, for this is impossible, but to explain his conduct and motives. Time is, in a sense, fulfilling the great orator's expectations. The hatreds as well as the idolatries of the Revolution are losing something of their force. Year by year facts are becoming known which could be very imperfectly known or understood at the time they took place, and at last men are beginning to attempt a calm estimate of Mirabeau's career. The two works to which we have referred at the bottom of this article are neither of them brilliant compositions, but they are both attempts to give a clear account of the known facts of his life. M. Vermorel is a decided, though not reckless apologist, and any onesidedness in his comments is corrected by profuse quotations from Mirabeau's own works. M. Reynald is wisely content to play the part neither of accuser nor eulogist, but to confine himself to the less showy but more important duties of a narrator. Take these works, together with Quinet's 'Essay on the Revolution,' which, despite its epigrammatic form, is one of the most philosophic treatises on the subject which has ever been produced, and you will find a clear account of all that is known of Mirabeau. This account does not remove great stains from his character, but it does, in our judgment, go far to explain his conduct; and if it shows him to have been in many respects a bad and certainly most unscrupulous statesman, it shows that he was at any rate a man, and not a fiend, and explains to a considerable extent why to himself he did not appear to be a traitor.

The explanation of Mirabeau's career, at least from his own point of view, is to be found in the consistency with which, through life, he conceived and clung to one line of policy. His one ruling idea seems to have been that the Revolution was not, at bottom, in any way hostile to the existence of a strong central government. He further held that both for the sake of the country and for the sake of the king it was essential that the king and the country should act together. The passages we have already cited give the key to his views. Class privileges of all kinds and arbitrary government were in his judgment doomed to destruction. In his most private notes, when he had been purchased by the court, he warns the king that a counter-revolution for the restoration of the old order of things was impossible. The maintenance of the royal power was, on the other hand, not only possible but most desirable. The object therefore of his policy was, that the conduct of the Revolution should be taken under the guidance of the king. His idea was that the king should act under the guidance of a modern Richelieu, destroy the privileges of the nobility, and secure at once the ends of the Revolution and the authority of the crown. He himself was, of course, to hold the place of Richelieu. This position might be attained in two ways: either by his coming into power as a minister, supported by the majority of the National Assembly, or by his being promoted to power by the court, and carrying out necessary reforms in spite of the opposition of the Assembly. His first efforts were directed to gaining power as, to use English expressions, the parliamentary leader of the majority. The Assembly by its incredible shortsightedness, in forbidding members to take office, made Mirabeau's designs of becoming a great parliamentary statesman impossible. Thereupon he turned to the court. But whether with the assistance of the Assembly or by the support of the king, he intended to carry out what in his eyes was the true policy of the Revolution. In carrying out this policy he was, however, from the first placed in a false position, from the fact that his connection with the court could not be avowed. The falseness of this position was greatly increased by the tendency to intrigue and to the use of corrupt means, which no admiration for his talents can disguise from any one to have been an essential part of Mirabeau's character. So far, however, as his mere political designs go, he may well enough stand side by side with statesmen such as Cavour or Bismarck. Each of these ministers pursued a great and patriotic object. Each of them was singularly unscrupulous as to the means by which the object was attained. If Cavour had died when he was bargaining for the invasion of Lombardy by France, if Bismarck had been struck down at the time when he had held out hopes to Louis Napoleon of cessions of German territory, each would have perished with a very dark and dubious reputation. Each no doubt bore the risk confiding in the knowledge of his patriotism. Mirabeau had probably a feeling somewhat like theirs when he appealed to time. His path was tortuous, but it would, he thought, be seen to lead to the greatness of France. His payment by the court may perhaps have appeared to him as the salary for good service. He may have held himself bribed but not really bought; since he meant to enforce his own policy on the court, to whom he hired himself as a servant rather than sold himself as a minion. These excuses are worthless, and show the really weak point of his character, that gross moral insensibility which prevented him from feeling that even a grand policy became degraded when it was made the means of paying his debts and providing for his self-indulgence. His position, however, though in this respect disgraceful, is intelligible. Quinet's comparison to Judas goes deeper than perhaps it was meant to go. Generations have perplexed themselves over the problem how it could happen that the greatest crime which history records was committed for the sake of thirty pieces of silver. Far-fetched ingenuity has suggested that the thirty pieces of silver were not the real temptation to treachery, and that the traitor had remoter objects than that of mere gain. With far more truth, it may be suspected that the million of francs was not the ultimate end of Mirabeau's dealings with the court. Unfortunately, in each case the bribe has branded and will brand the recipient with the eternal infamy of treachery.

South-Sea Idyls. By Charles Warren Stoddard. (Boston: James R. Osgood & Co. 1873.)—Mr. Stoddard is a humorist—a California humorist—and the reader is not with him under the necessity (as he is in some cases) of taking the humorist's own word for the fact; for these 'South-Sea Idyls' have a good deal of undeniable amusement in them. It is rather difficult to know exactly what more to say of the book, for what part of it is a record of adventure, and what part is mere fancy, or, indeed, whether Mr. Stoddard has ever been in the South Seas at all, is a pure matter of conjecture. It seems hardly possible to believe the story of Kána Aná, a beautiful South-Sea Island coffee-colored boy, with whom the author represents himself as "chumming," whom he afterwards brings away and tries to convert to civilization, but who is so far spoilt by civilization that on his return to the Southern Seas he finds himself *ennuyé*, and finally perishes pathetically and miserably. The story of the French brig *Mouette* is also of a somewhat doubtful character. The *Mouette*, "bound south into the Equatorial seas," had a good deal of rough weather from the first; day after day the winds increase, and at last a cyclone bursts upon her. She is thrown on her beam-ends, and begins to fill rapidly, but her masts being cut away, she rights herself and lies in the trough of the sea, rolling like a log. Gradually the gale subsides, but the hull of the brig is swept continually by a tremendous swell, and, strange to say, although the masts have been cut away, the men are "driven into the foretop cross-trees," and in the foretop cross-trees they rig a tent for shelter, and gather what few stores are left them from the wreck. There are a dozen of them in this tent altogether, and here they lie for three whole days in silence and despair. "When hunger had nearly driven them to madness, they were fed in an almost miraculous manner. Several enormous sharks had been swimming about the brig for some hours, and the hungry sailors were planning various projects for the capture of them. Tough as a shark is, they would willingly have risked life for a few raw mouthfuls of the same. Somehow, though the sea was still and the wind light, the brig gave a sudden lurch and dipped up one of the monsters, who was quite secure in the shallow aquarium between the gunwales. He was soon despatched, and divided equally among the crew." This is only the beginning of the ghastly tale of the *Mouette*, which we should say was rather a shockingly good parody of the literary sailor's yarn, did it not—foretop cross-trees, sharks, aquarium, and all—seem to be intended by the author as true. There is always something disagreeably jarring in the writing of a humorist who leaves you in doubt as to a great part of what he has written, whether what he is about is pathos or humor, or what it is, and this unpleasant doubt continually thrusts itself upon the reader of Mr. Stoddard's sketches. There is, besides this, another disagreeable effect produced by Mr. Stoddard's occasional lapses into very bad taste and very bad English. With a very good ear for style, he seems to write rather for the sake of the sound of the words than to produce an effect on the minds or hearts of his readers, and while it is true that he has a sense for finished, harmonious, and dainty prose, it would perhaps not be unfair to compare his finish to that which varnish gives a pine board rather than that which polish gives to the intrinsically pure and hard grain of a truly good wood. Carefully as Mr. Stoddard's sentences are constructed, and great pains as he takes to select the exact phrases which appear to echo the notes that are sounding in his brain, we have every now and then some piece of downright bad English, like his use of "the same" in the shark story we have just been quoting. Of course, he has us at a great disadvantage in this matter, for if we point to any particular passage in illustration of his occasional bad taste or bad English, his admirers may say in reply that it is his humor we are quarrelling with; that he knows just as well as we that the expression used is not English, but that it is part of the business of the humorist, and particularly the California humorist, to make us laugh by humorous distortions of the common tongue of Shakespeare and Milton; and that so far from showing our critical acumen by pointing out the errors in question, we have only shown our lamentable want of an appreciation of California humor. To this there is no reply, and so we may as well say simply that we have found the book, with all the drawbacks we have enumerated, amusing with a dreamy sort of amusement, which we suppose is the proper color for California humor to take upon itself in the tropics. We ought to say, however, that life in the Southern Seas is such a peculiarly non-moral life, that we cannot recommend 'South-Sea Idyls' as a book of an invigorating and purifying tone. The Southern Seas—as it used to be said of Paris—are not a good place for deacons.

The Spirit of the Laws. By M. de Secondat, Baron de Montesquieu. Translated from the French by Thomas Nugent, LL.D. A new edition, carefully revised. Two volumes. (Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. 1873.)—Montesquieu no longer occupies the place among political writers he once did, but he will never cease to occupy a high place, for he was the first to open up the field of experimental politics, from which most of the reforms in government have during the last century been drawn. "Before Montesquieu," says Bentham, and truly, "a man who had a distant country given him to make laws for would have made short work of it. 'Name to me the people,' he would have said: 'Reach me down my Bible, and the business is done at once. The laws they have been used to, no matter what they are, mine shall supersede them; manners, they shall have mine, which are the best in nature; religion, they shall have mine too, which is all of it true, and the only one that is so.' Since Montesquieu, the number of documents a legislator would require is considerably enlarged. 'Send the people,' he will say, 'to me; lay open the whole tenor of their life and conversation; paint

to me the face and geography of the country; give me as close and minute a view as possible of their present laws, their manners, and their religion.'" If Montesquieu could have retained the influence which 'The Spirit of the Laws' won for him on its first appearance in France, and he had not been supplanted by Rousseau, there is little doubt the French Revolution, had it ever occurred, would have run a wholly different course; "the law of nature" and the "state of nature" and "natural rights" would never have exercised the malign influence which has so deeply troubled the stream of European politics since that period, and has set so many young gentlemen and ladies in this country distributing "republics" among all the nations of the earth. He had, it is true, many of the errors and illusions of an explorer. He was the first jurist to use the vast store of materials which the voyages and discoveries and conquests of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries had placed at the disposal of sociologists, and he naturally made a great many mistakes and drew a great many false conclusions from them, but he is nevertheless the father of modern political philosophy, in the best and widest sense of that term, and nobody who is about to study politics philosophically could dispense with the study of him, even if he had not been in his day one of the ruling minds of the civilized world. Messrs. Clarke & Co. have reproduced him in a handsome edition of the standard translation, which renders the French of 1750 probably better than a more modern one could do.

Education Abroad, and Other Papers. By Birdsey Grant Northrop, LL.D., Secretary of the Connecticut Board of Education. (New York: A. S. Barnes & Co.)—Five of these essays are on the importance of education to labor, to the industrial arts, invention, and the amicable relations of labor and capital; the rest treat of the legal prevention of illiteracy; culture and knowledge, the professional study, study and health, and the question, "Should American youth be educated abroad?" The last-named enquiry occupies nearly half the book, and will be still further pursued in another volume, on 'The Schools of Europe, and What we ought to Learn from Them.' It consists of letters elicited by Mr. Northrop from a large number of college presidents and other instructors, in which there is a general unanimity of opinion that for young Americans the very best *collegiate* training is to be had at home, and that Europe holds out positive advantages only for college graduates desirous of perfecting themselves in technical or professional studies. The moral (meaning not merely the ethical) reasons for forming the character and informing the mind of a child in his native country, are very forcibly presented by several of Mr. Northrop's correspondents, by none more pithily than by President Eliot. Mr. Northrop himself adds little to the discussion, but sums up the points made in the course of it. We presume he had President Barnard's letter in mind when, mentioning as the last objection the cost of foreign education, he concludes that "the export and appreciation of gold and corresponding depreciation of our currency are sensibly affected by this mania for European education." But what Dr. Barnard had said was this:

"When, by the concurrent action of many individuals, with or without concert, a large amount of money is annually withdrawn from the country, to be expended upon any given object elsewhere, it becomes a matter of public concernment to ascertain whether the benefit secured is a fair equivalent for the outlay. Should this not appear to be the case, and should it be further evident that, as a consequence of the withdrawal of such considerable sums, the whole country is made to suffer in the important interests which such withdrawal affects, the case becomes sufficiently serious to occupy the attention of the thoughtful, and to justify effort to remedy the evil or to arrest its growth."

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The Fire at Eatontown.

ITS PROGRESS ARRESTED BY THE BABCOCK ENGINE FROM LONG BRANCH.

LONG BRANCH, N. J., December 11, 1873.

F. W. FARWELL, SECRETARY:

DEAR SIR: We have received great praise for our company and the Babcock Engine for work done at a large fire at Eatontown on Wednesday morning. We received the alarm at 2 A.M., and ran to Eatontown (3½ miles) in twenty minutes; found four buildings about falling in, and Wheeler's large hotel on fire in a dozen places; owing to the high wind driving the flames upon the hotel, we were unable to save that, and directed our efforts to checking the course of the fire. We succeeded in doing so, saving a building within sixteen feet of the hotel; had this building burned, nothing would have saved the seven adjoining ones, as they are built close together, and probably the greater part of the town would have gone. The wind was blowing at a fearful rate, and we had a hot time of it, working about three hours. It is acknowledged on all sides that, but for the Babcock, Eatontown would now be in ashes.

Yours respectfully, F. W. KEMP,
Assistant Foreman Oceanic, No. 1.

Incendiary Fire at Topeka, Kan.

OFFICE OF CHIEF ENGINEER, TOPEKA, KAN., NOV. 19, 1873.

BABCOCK MANUFACTURING COMPANY:

GENTLEMEN: At an incendiary fire at 5 o'clock this morning, in a boot and shoe house in the heart of the city, our Babcock Engine did the entire work, saving building and stock, with a loss of less than $1,000. Insurance on stock alone was $12,000. A better saved stock, as regards its condition after the fire, can seldom be found. The fire had been set in four places in the building, all at the same time, and was aided by the use of oils. Steamers were not required at all.

Very truly yours, G. O. WILMARTH,
Chief Engineer Topeka Fire Department.

A Brave New Yorker.

FURTHER HONORS FOR LIEUTENANT T. B. M. MASON.

A private letter from Panama, dated September 27, thus relates how the natives were astonished by the use of Babcock Extinguishers in a case of great danger:

"An incident recently occurred in the harbor of Panama by which an explosion of gunpowder was prevented by your Government officials. It seems to me well worthy of record. A Portuguese vessel, loaded with powder and petroleum, had taken fire, and the boats of the vessels lying near—some of which were foreign men-of-war—surrounded her, but with their aid the crew had succeeded in doing nothing to effectually check the flames. A boat from the flagship *Pensacola*, commanded by the Second Lieutenant (T. B. M. Mason, of New York), came alongside, and the foreigners exclaimed, 'Here come the Yankees with their d——d machines! Now we will see what they can do.' Lieutenant Mason, with three men, each with a Babcock Extinguisher on his back, boarded the vessel, and made quick work with the fire on deck; they then descended into the hold, where was the seat of the conflagration, and extinguished it promptly without regarding the proximity of the powder. The foreigners at once changed their sneering doubts as to the machines into congratulations for those who had used them so boldly, and the Portuguese Consul at once visited the flagship, returned thanks on behalf of his Government, and asked the names of those engaged. Lieutenant Mason, who volunteered for the duty, is the same officer to whom your Congress gave permission last winter to accept the Order of the Rose, conferred on him by the Emperor of Brazil a few years ago as a midshipman, for another gallant exploit in saving the lives of two sailors in one of the harbors of Brazil."—*The Evening Post*, N. Y., Oct., 1873.

Fire in Orange.

HASTINGS & BRUSH, 57 WALKER STREET,
NEW YORK, November 25, 1873.

F. W. FARWELL, SECRETARY:

DEAR SIR: I take great pleasure in informing you that by the use of one of your Babcock Extinguishers, I saved my house in Orange, N. J., from destruction last evening. The fire was caused by the explosion of a German student's lamp, which was being filled carelessly while burning. While I was up-stairs after the Extinguisher, which I purchased of you in May, 1872, and which was filled and set away at that time, and had not been touched since, an attempt was made to quench the fire by the application of pails of water; but the result was only an increase of the flames. By the use of the machine the fire was put out in less than five seconds, and the damage done, aside from the total destruction of the lamp, was very small indeed.

As I think the size I have is too heavy for my wife to use in my absence, I wish you would send me one of your smallest size. You may freely refer to me any parties who are at all doubtful of its utility.

Respectfully yours, CLINTON E. BRUSH.

Fire at Port Jefferson.

PORT JEFFERSON, N. Y., October 14, 1873.

F. W. FARWELL, SECRETARY:

DEAR SIR: It affords me pleasure to testify to the effectiveness of the Babcock Extinguisher. I chanced to be in the shipyard of J. M. Bayles & Son, of this place, on the afternoon of October 1, when a fire broke out in the galley of the brig *Katie*, lying on the ways in that yard. A score or two of men with buckets of water at once set to work deluging the flames, but without staying their progress—in fact, the men said it seemed as though the more water they threw on, the faster the fire burned. At this critical moment one of the Babcock Extinguishers was obtained and put to work. The result was marvellous; the flames were smothered in an instant. Had it not been for the timely arrival of the Babcock, no one can tell where the fire would have stopped; certainly part of the village would have been in ashes.

Yours respectfully, R. M. BAYLES.

—*Evening Post, October* 16, 1873.

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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

DECEMBER 15.

THE week in Wall Street has been marked by increased buoyancy in the different markets. An upward movement in gold has commenced and made considerable progress, based upon an active demand and sharp advance in the rates for exchange. Besides the firmness of exchange, the news from Washington in relation to financial affairs has been highly conducive to a rise in gold, as well as to encouraging speculation at the Stock Exchange. The continued drafts of Mr. Richardson upon his "$44,000,000 reserve" have put into circulation, up to the close of the week on Saturday, $17,221,000 additional currency—the outstanding legal tenders on that day being officially stated at $373,221,000, against $350,000,000, the amount to which they had been reduced under the law by Secretary McCulloch. The rate at which the "reserve" is being used up and put in circulation is very assuring to the Wall-Street bull; at any rate, it has started up a speculation which promises very well for the future profit of that lately severely handled animal. Of course, this issue of new currency is readily explained by the fact that the Treasury Department has suddenly found itself short of money, in consequence of diminished revenue receipts, and, like anybody else in such a position, gives its promises to pay—with this difference, however, that it knows that the obligation cannot be paid when due and presented. Congress is considerably interested just now in the currency question, and it is to be hoped that, before the adjournment takes place, some plan may be devised and carried through which will be of real benefit to the country; and no plan can be of benefit unless it is one looking to the resumption of specie payments within a reasonable space of time.

The money market has remained easy, with rates on call loans ranging between 5 and 7 per cent. The best grades of commercial paper pass freely at 9 to 12 per cent., with a tendency towards greater ease in rates.

Cable advices received on Thursday stated that the Bank of England minimum rate of discount had been reduced from 5 to 4½ per cent.; the Bank gained £618,000 in bullion during the week.

The statement of the Clearing-House banks for the week ending December 13 was favorable. The total liabilities showed an increase of $8,020,000, which amount is met by a gain of $5,007,500 in legal tenders and specie. The surplus reserve of the banks was increased from $7,072,250 to $10,074,750—a gain of $3,002,500 for the week. The Clearing-House certificates now outstanding amount to less than $5,000,000.

The following is a comparison of the averages for the past two weeks:

	Dec. 6.	Dec. 13.	Differences.
Loans	$252,373,500	$254,520,600	Inc...$2,147,100
Specie	21,158,600	22,319,500	Inc.... 1,160,900
Legal tenders	38,214,000	42,060,600	Inc... 3,846,600
Deposits	182,015,300	190,054,200	Inc... 8,038 900
Circulation	27,186,100	27,167,200	Dec... 18,900

The stock market has been active and strong throughout the greater part of the week; prices continued to advance until Friday, when a reaction took place, caused partly by holders selling out for the purpose of realizing their profits. At the close on Saturday a sharp rally occurred late in the day, and the market closed with the same buoyant feeling which prevailed during the early part of the week. The dividend-paying investment stocks have all been firm, Fort Wayne selling at 90, Delaware, Lackawanna, and Western at 100½, New Jersey Central at par, and Chicago, Burlington, and Quincy at 96. There has been some little activity in Michigan Central at 73 to 75; the reason for this stock remaining at nearly "panic prices," in the face of a strong market for nearly everything else on the list, is probably because there is no chance of the payment of a dividend in January, and not much hope of any for perhaps a year to come. Too many unproductive branch roads have been fastened on to the Michigan Central, and too little attention paid to the interests of the main line.

The following shows the highest and lowest sales of the leading stocks at the Stock Exchange for the week ending Saturday, December 13, 1873:

	Monday.		Tuesday.		Wed'day.		Thursday		Friday.		Saturday		Sales.
N. Y. C. & H. R...	93¼	95⅛	94½	95⅛	95¼	96	95	95⅜	94⅜	95⅜	94⅜	95⅝	61,000
Lake Shore.....	73⅜	76½	75¼	78⅜	75⅜	77	75⅛	76⅜	74⅛	76¼	74⅛	75⅜	155,900
Erie.....	46¼	47	46½	46½	43½	45½	44¾	44½	44⅜	44⅜	42⅝	44¾	5,900
Do. pfd.....	70	....	70½	....	....	....	69	75	70	72	....	....	....
Union Pacific	28¼	29½	29⅜	31⅜	31½	32⅛	31	32⅜	30⅜	32⅝	29⅜	31½	364,400
Chi. & N. W.....	52½	54½	53	54⅞	55	56⅞	54⅜	57	54¼	56⅜	54¼	55½	61,500
Do. pfd.....	71	72¼	71⅜	72	73	73½	71½	72	69½	72	69⅜	70	5,800
N. J. Central.....	98	98	98	99	99½	99⅝	98	100	100	100	99½	100	1,700
Rock Island.....	95½	97⅜	96½	97⅜	98	98⅜	97⅜	99¼	97½	99⅛	94	98¼	17,700
Mil. & St. Paul....	37⅜	40¼	39	40⅝	40¼	42⅜	39⅜	41½	39⅜	41⅝	38⅝	40⅜	88,600
Do. pfd...	61⅜	62½	62	63¼	64	64⅜	63½	64½	63¼	64	62⅜	63¼	4 200
Wabash.....	51	53⅝	52¼	53⅜	53½	55	52¼	53½	51⅞	53½	51⅜	52⅝	87,300
D., L. & W.....	99⅜	99⅞	99⅜	99⅞	100	100½	100	100½	100	100½	99¾	100	4,400
B., H. & Erie.....	2⅜	2⅜	2½	2⅜	2	2⅜	2⅜	2⅜	2⅜	2⅜	....	....	5,700
O. & M.....	23½	29⅜	29⅛	30⅛	30¾	31¼	29⅜	30½	29½	80	29⅜	30	58,500
C., C. & I. C.....	26¼	27	26	27	26⅞	27⅜	26½	27⅜	25½	27	25⅜	26⅛	60,100
W. U. Tel.....	72⅜	74⅛	72	73½	73⅛	74½	72⅜	73⅞	71⅝	74	71⅝	73¼	203,000
Pacific Mail.....	39¼	42	39½	40¾	38⅝	41	38⅜	39⅝	38⅜	39⅜	38⅜	40	119,600

The Government bond market requires little comment; prices have steadily advanced, and at the close of business on Saturday the market shows an advance of 1½ to 2½ per cent. for the week, coupon 6's of 1881 being quoted at 119; 5-20's of 1865, 115½; 65's, new, 118¼; 67's, 118¾; and 68's, 118½.

The market for railroad bonds continues active, and prices are higher, especially for the bonds of the Central and Union Pacific Railroads, which were previously low, and consequently attractive to investors. The investment demand after 1st proximo for good bonds will undoubtedly be large, as capital will naturally tend towards those securities dealt in at the Stock Exchange, in preference to those of new and uncompleted lines, which have been affected by the panic. The Lake Shore and Michigan Southern Railroad Company will shortly issue second-mortgage bonds to the amount of $25,000,000, for the purpose of funding the floating debt, about $4,000,000, and to provide for the exchange of $6,000,000 debenture bonds now outstanding; the remaining $15,000,000 will be used as needed in completing the double tracking of the road, which is now ready for the rails. The debt of this Company will then stand as follows: capital stock, $50,000,000; first-mortgage bonds, $25,000,000; second-mortgage bonds, $25,000,000.

The gold market has been strong throughout the week. The quotations have ranged between 109 on Monday and 110¼ on Saturday, closing at the highest point of the week. The advance in the premium is due to the continued increase of the currency and the firmness of exchange; besides which we hear that a party has taken hold of the market for the purpose of putting it up, having been attracted thereto by its low price, and the probability of an inflation of the currency beyond the $44,000,000 which is now being set afloat.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 25, 1873.

The Week.

CONGRESS has adjourned for the holidays without doing anything of importance. The dispute between Mr. Richardson and the Ways and Means Committee has ended for the time being in a compromise by which no increased taxation is to be tried until it is seen how the experiment of cutting down the estimates will work. It is now said that some $20,000,000 can be saved by this means alone. The salary-grab debate has also temporarily ended in a vote for the passage of a new grab act, which enables the members to retain all the increased pay they have drawn since March 4, gives them $500 a year in excess of the old salary, and adds to it an allowance for mileage and stationery and actual travelling expenses, retaining also all the increased salaries of the non-Congressional officials. It having been discovered that Mr. Hale of New York had acted as Government counsel before the British-American Claims Commission, and Mr. Hale having offended his colleagues by a severe denunciation of the grab, Mr. Wilson of Indiana introduced an amendment providing that any member of Congress who had received counsel-fees from the Government while acting as member of Congress should have his fees deducted from his future salary. This was too much for the endurance of Mr. Hale, who subsequently rose to a personal explanation, and accused General Butler of having concocted the amendment, and having got Mr. Wilson to introduce it by "reaching his arm around Mr. Eldridge" of Wisconsin. He then proceeded to compare Mr. Wilson to a "dirty cur"; on which Mr. Wilson replied that he (Mr. Hale) was another; and Mr. Butler, who had meantime got a copy of Mr. Hale's accounts from the Treasury Department, exhibited them to the House, and compared the "grabbers" to the woman taken in adultery, and Mr. Hale and his kind to her accusers.

The bill for the repeal of the Bankruptcy Act is now in the Senate, having passed the House by a vote of 224 to 40, under the operation of the previous question. It is a remarkable fact that this bill, which will change the relations of creditors and debtors throughout a commercial country of 40,000,000 population, has passed the House with hardly a word of debate except on one point, and that this one should have been on the question whether the bill, as reported by the committee, had not been prepared by the principal bankrupt in the country for his private benefit. The bill as reported contained the very curious clause that, as to pending cases, a majority of the creditors in value should have full power to dispose of the estate in any way they should see fit, and that they might, if they saw fit, put it back "in the banks of the debtor." Mr. Wilson of Indiana, on the introduction of this bill, he being himself a member of the committee which introduced it, told the House that these clauses as to pending cases were drawn by an attorney of Jay Cooke & Co. to enable them to get control of their assets and go on with their speculations, and the bill ought to be called "a measure to embarrass justice." The House voted at once against the clauses, and certainly did quite right in voting against them; but if the debate on this bill is to be a sample of the discussion which is to take place in the Senate, we might almost as well have no debating at all. The Bankruptcy Act is needed, and it ought to be amended, not repealed. A petition from New York merchants has been sent to the Senate, complaining of the haste of the House in repealing the act, and opposing repeal. One of the strong arguments against the act all along has been, that the "moneyed men of New York" were in favor of total repeal, but the moneyed men themselves say that their opinion has not even been asked.

The nomination of Attorney-General Williams has not yet been acted upon by the Senate, and, in the meanwhile, one of the charges or rumors has taken pretty definite shape. It seems that the firm of Jackson & Polhemus, of this city, were indicted for receiving money from a disbursing officer knowing it to be the money of the Government. They had offered $200,000 in settlement, which was declined, and criminal proceedings were instituted. These proceedings mysteriously ceased, and it has been publicly charged that $100,000 was paid for their discontinuance, $60,000 of which went to "a member of the Attorney-General's family." The Attorney-General has given an "explanation" of the affair which the Judiciary Committee of the Senate, it is said, have deemed to be "satisfactory." The satisfactory explanation is this: The defendants demurred or moved to quash the indictment, upon the ground that the statute under which it was found had been repealed. Thereupon the District-Attorney, with the approval of the Attorney-General, proposed to drop the criminal proceedings in as private a way as possible, so that he might hold the repealed statute *in terrorem* over the heads of other guilty parties, and, for aught we know, get a conviction or two where the prisoners were not so fortunate in their counsel as Messrs. Jackson & Polhemus. Whether this explanation raises the character of the Attorney-General in the opinion of the Senate, we are not informed; but whether the trick of pretending to indict people under a statute which has ceased to exist savors most of judicial dignity and integrity or of the sharp practice of a Tombs lawyer, is a question upon which two respectable men will not be apt to divide.

Judging from the tenor of the debates which have taken place thus far, both in the House and Senate, on the currency question, we are about to witness the same mode of opposition to the resumption of specie payments with which we were made so familiar during the debates on civil-service reform. That is, nearly all those who are opposed to expansion, and believe that greenbacks ought to be made redeemable in gold, are nevertheless always opposed to any "particular measure" designed to bring about that result. Contraction, they say, would ruin us, and inflation would ruin us. We cannot redeem unless we have gold enough in the Treasury to do so with safety. Being asked when they think there will be gold enough in the Treasury to resume, they say that it will be when "the balance of trade" is in our favor. Being informed that "the balance of trade" is now in our favor, they say that we are suffering from a terrible panic, which would make any further lowering of prices dangerous. When, on the other hand, they were asked to resume before the panic, they said either that "the balance of trade" was against us, or that the country was so prosperous that it would be folly to make any change. In short, there appears to be no way of driving them into a corner. Mr. Boutwell is firmly opposed to any "particular measure." Since the failure of his plan of making all things right by buying up bonds before they were due, he has apparently lost faith in human devices. Mr. Morton says he is also opposed to "any particular measure." He thinks we ought to keep "in view a return to specie payments," but evidently thinks it ought to be a far-distant view. He says he "once had a sort of fanaticism about specie payments himself, but experience and lapse of time cured him." Was this interesting period in his career before or after his proposal to pay off the public creditors in depreciated paper? He was not cured of that by either "time or experience," but by the very vulgar discovery that his was not the way the cat was jumping, so he wheeled right about. It will not do for him now to try to pass himself off on us as a wise old financier who has seen the vanity of gold and silver, as well as of promissory notes, and smiles at our childish eagerness for them.

There is no question that the scandalous appointments made of late years to the Federal bench did a good deal to defeat the attempt to get rid of an elective judiciary in this State. One of the worst of the appointees, that of Underwood in Virginia, made by Mr. Lincoln, has been removed by death. No more need be said about him. Another, and a still worse one, was Richard Busteed, to the District Court in Alabama. Busteed, who was familiarly known as "Dick," and "galorious Dick," was, at the outbreak of the war, one of the roughs of the New York bar—a man without learning or character, an active Tammany politician, and a noted brawler in court. He turned Republican in 1861, and was promptly made a Brigadier-General. As a strategist he proved a total failure, as he was unable to ride on horseback, and, as it would have been ridiculous to go into battle in a buggy, he expressed a desire for translation to the judicial bench, which was also promptly complied with, and he was sent down to Alabama as soon as the army opened the way for him. Since then he has been a standing nuisance and disgrace. The unfortunate people of the State have several times tried to have him impeached, but as "Dick" was loyal, while they were not, they failed, until he quarrelled with Spencer, one of the present senators. Of late he has had the good sense to keep his court closed and spend his time at the North, where on one occasion he went out fishing with one of the parties to a suit pending before him, and granted him an order which enabled him to get the money in dispute out of the country, and thus deprive the plaintiff of all remedy. A committee of the House has at last been appointed to investigate his doings, and his impeachment will doubtless follow.

A similar step has been taken with regard to Judge Durell of Louisiana, who recently "enjoined" the State government and set up one of his own. He is a terrible drunkard, and is accused of keeping "a Gratz," with whom he divides bankrupt estates. With Underwood dead, and Busteed, Delahay, Durell, and Sherman cleared off, much will have been done for the purification of the Federal bench, but our friends in other States will see how much the spectacle offered by these worthies has told against all efforts for a better system here. We agree with the *World*, that if the vote were now to be taken over again, the majority against appointment would be greater than it was, owing to the scandal of the process through which Mr. Williams's nomination is passing. The shame and absurdity of an official enquiry into the private character of a candidate for the Chief-Justiceship of the Supreme Court of the United States, is something on which we need not dwell. It is like the investigation of charges of unchastity and embezzlement against a bishop, as a preliminary to his consecration.

The new Pennsylvania Constitution has been adopted by an overwhelming popular vote, the Ring being defeated even in Philadelphia. The struggle between the respectable classes and the officials who had got control of the city was not so desperate a contest by any means as that between the same classes in New York and Tweed; but there were a good many points of resemblance. Among these was the part taken by some of the best-known lawyers in the State in the effort to secure the adoption of the Constitution. Even Chief-Justice Agnew, of the same Court which had just declared the special-election ordinance of the Convention void, expressed himself in favor of the adoption of the instrument; and many prominent lawyers besides took part in the agitation who ordinarily have been in the habit of looking upon politics with indifference or contempt. The joy over the result is universal, we may almost say, throughout the country, for the condition of Pennsylvania politics has been, for the past ten years, pretty well understood outside the State; the relation of wealthy and well-to-do quiet Philadelphians to the politicians of their own city has been for a long time something like that of a subject to a dominant race. An idea of what the state of affairs has been in the past may be inferred from the fact, which does not seem to be as generally known as it ought to be, that four or five years since a commission was appointed to revise the laws of Pennsylvania, and the character of the appointees was such that it was discovered, when they had finished their work, that they had turned several laws not merely into confusion, but into unintelligible gibberish.

The surrender of the *Virginius* to the United States officers took place quietly on Tuesday week at Bahia Honda. She was delivered by a Spanish sloop-of-war to the United States despatch-boat without fuss or ceremony, and in the silence and almost solitude of an unfrequented bay. The surviving prisoners have since been surrendered also. The Spanish Government has now submitted evidence on which Attorney-General Williams has advised the State Department that the papers of the *Virginius* were obtained fraudulently, and by perjury on the part of Mr. Patterson—the Cuban Junta in this city, or certain members of it, being the owners of the ship either wholly or in part—and that she was therefore not entitled to the American flag, which accordingly will not be saluted on Christmas Day. This accounts for the strange indifference of Mr. Patterson to the fate of his ship, and also for his reluctance to "come to the front." It is proper to observe that, no matter who owned this ship, it has been notorious for a year past that she was engaged in filibustering business, that there was little concealment about her errand when she last left an American port, that she has now cost the country $5,000,000, or almost one-third of the sum received from the British Government in payment of the damages caused by the Confederate cruisers, and that she has been very near causing a war which would have cost us some hundreds of millions of dollars. The inference is, we think, obvious.

A correspondent writes us from New Orleans that the present city government, which is composed of respectable Democrats, has made itself intensely unpopular by enforcing the collection of taxes to meet the interest on the city debt of $20,000,000. The State debt being $22,000,000 more, and a large part of it being fraudulent, there is a strong feeling in favor of suspension of payment of interest on both. The carpet-baggers and bond-holders, however, do not take this simple view of the matter, and they are preparing a funding bill to be presented to the next legislature in January. This bill is to provide for the funding of all old bonds (now worth 41) into a new consolidated bond—bearing about the same interest as the old issue—at the rate of two dollars in new bonds for three dollars in old ones. This would bring the total State debt down to about fifteen millions, and it is proposed then to adopt an amendment to the Constitution of the State declaring this fifteen millions to be inviolable, and prohibiting for ever the contraction of any additional debts. The State government could probably manage to pay the interest on these new bonds, and would then leave the old bondholders who might refuse to "fund" out in the cold, with unpaid coupons accumulating on their hands. It is said that this is the only alternative of repudiation or, what is as bad for the bondholder, a suspension of the payment of interest for an indefinite period.

The farmers during the past week have given little signs of activity, except in a meeting of the State Farmers' Association in Illinois. This is a political body, as our readers will remember, while the Grange, whose proceedings we noticed last week, is non-political. There is, however, this tie between them, that the members are the same, or nearly the same. In the one, they act in their capacity of agriculturists; in the other, in that of American citizens. It is a noticeable thing that while the farmers of Illinois, in their agricultural capacity, demanded Government aid last week, they have this week, in their capacity of American citizens, denounced Government aid, and declared that the Cheap Transportation question is a matter which belongs inalienably to the separate States, and that the United States have nothing

to do with it. The meaning of this strange state of affairs we take to be this. Originally—that is, three or four years ago—when nobody heard anything about them, the Granges were really non-political, and they now, something like Eastern trades-unions, have strictly class-interests at heart; they have, however, been in a measure "captured" by the politicians of their own body, who have got them to organize Farmers' Associations for political purposes. The politicians like Flagg and Smith having discovered that Congress will not do much this winter for cheap transportation, naturally fall back for support on the local *pro-rata* laws, while the poor farmers themselves, in the Grange, go on insisting that in the last resort they will have a Government freight-railroad. In Kansas, the farmers' movement has developed, as we said it would last summer, into a quarrel between the railroads and settlers over the title to land, and the settlers are confident of sending a senator to Washington to urge their claims. They want the United States to bring a suit-at-law—we presume like the Crédit-Mobilier suit lately brought—for their benefit.

Probably nothing did more to detract from the pleasure caused by the conviction of Tweed than the reflection that his three confederates, Connolly, Sweeny, and Hall, had escaped justice. Connolly and Sweeny judiciously withdrew to Europe when the storm first began, and are there living in comfort, among the despots of that continent, on the proceeds of their plunder. Hall, the Mayor, who took his share of booty mainly in law business for his firm, and thought that by handing the work of "auditing" over to Tweed he should escape his share of the responsibility, stayed at his post, however, and has stood two trials under the old jury-law, the jury disagreeing in each case. Gathering courage as time rolled on, he actually appeared as a lecturer on "Marriage and Divorce," and tried to diffuse the theory that he was a simple-minded man with "no head for details," who had been deceived by Tweed and Connolly—he who had been a Tammany District-Attorney for many years, and used to wear a green coat and necktie on Patrick's Day. When it was reported that no further attempt would be made to bring him to justice, most people felt that the punishment of the Ring frauds was very far from complete, and that the spectacle of Hall's liberty would be a heavy blow to the cause of reform. We are glad to say that wiser counsels have prevailed, and at this writing he has just been arraigned again, and it is to be hoped will now, under the new jury law, follow his old Boss to Blackwell's Island. The striped flannel jacket will be a highly appropriate substitute for the green coat, and the love of Ireland be very fitly succeeded by the cravings of low diet.

The statement of Captain Surmont as to the cause of the disaster to the *Ville du Havre* has reached this country, and also the evidence of one of the crew who was one of the lookout at the moment of its occurrence. Captain Surmont has little to say that is new. He had, however, just waked up, and stepped out on deck the moment before the collision, but too late to avert it. It may serve as a caution against hasty judgment to say that the accusation brought against him by "an old shipmaster" in the Boston *Advertiser*, the other day, of bad seamanship in going to bed without leaving direction that he should be called in case a sail came in sight, appears to be disposed of by his statement that he left written orders every night, and on this night in particular, that the officer on duty "should inform him of the slightest occurrence." On the other hand, the evidence of Captain Roberts of the *Loch Earn* has come to hand, and is strong and positive, that the collision was due to an attempt on the part of the *Ville du Havre* to cross his bows at the last moment. It will be remembered that, under the rule of the sea, all that Captain Roberts has to show is that his lights were in order, and that he held steadily on his course.

The news from San Domingo throws some curious light on the value of the report made by the Commission sent down three years ago by the President to enquire into the condition of San Domingo, and also on the danger of fancying that one understands tropical politics. The report represented Baez as commanding the full confidence of the people, and the people as being eager for annexation to the United States. A revolution has just occurred in the Republic, however, by which Baez has been driven out of power, and the insurgents have drawn up an indictment against him which, if true, shows him to be a dreadfully bad man, and, even if not true, shows that, so far from being authorized to sell "the people" to the United States, he did not even enjoy their confidence. But what about the "plébiscite" in favor of annexation which was taken in 1870?—the reader will say. Well, we don't know what to say about it. We have no explanation to offer of the phenomena of tropical politics beyond this, that we have little doubt there are few citizens of the tropical republics to whom eating a mango and voting the transfer of their country to a foreign power, are not acts of about equal solemnity.

The Provisional Government which has been established at San Domingo has issued a proclamation accusing Baez of violating the constitution in all its points, of cruelty to political prisoners, of malversation of the public funds, of tyrannical conduct towards the clergy, of unlawful interference with the liberty of the press, of unconstitutionally offering the Republic for sale in the American market for $1,000,000, of unlawful exactions, of the violation of private correspondence in the post-office, of prohibiting public meetings, of corrupt rearrangement of the electoral college so as to secure his own re-election, of disregarding the provisions of the constitution regarding popular education, and of arbitrary interference with trade and commerce. General Gonzales is the head of the new Government, or "Supreme Chief of the Revolution," as he is called, and he has put in a new ministry. The new régime is said not to be hostile to the Samana Bay Company.

The Pope has issued a new Encyclical Letter, in which he bewails the suppression of the convents in Rome and of the Roman University; denounces the oath imposed by the Canton of Geneva on parish priests and their assistants; bewails the dreadful state of things in the diocese of Basle; thinks that it would be just as fair to blame the martyrs of the early church for shedding their blood for the faith of Christ and for the liberty of the church as to blame the German clergy for not obeying the recent ecclesiastical legislation of Prussia; is sorrowful over the accusations brought by the Emperor of Germany in his recent letter against his Catholic subjects, whom he (the Pope) highly lauds; considers the request that he should advise submission to this legislation as equivalent to a request that he should lend his help "in scattering the flock of Christ"; denounces the patronage of the Old-Catholics by the German governments; denounces the Old-Catholic "pseudo-bishop" Reinkens as a "notorious apostate," and "the impudence" of getting him consecrated by the Utrecht Jansenists, and says he is no bishop at all, and solemnly excommunicates him, and all who have had hand, act, or part in his consecration. Turning his attention to America, His Holiness finds the state of things in that quarter of the world equally deplorable, where a warfare of a most desperate character is, it appears, waged against the church by Freemasons and other sects, who jointly compose an organization called "the synagogue of Satan." As a remedy for all these evils, he calls on the clergy to be constant in prayer, so as to appease the anger of heaven. He is evidently of opinion that the Freemasons, and the Methodists, Baptists, and other Protestant denominations, are birds of a feather, and equally dangerous to faith and morals. The most curious thing about these Encyclical Letters is, however, their continued despondency. Year after year they depict a state of things in which Satan is steadily gaining on the church, and in which the ecclesiastical opposition to him seems to come to nothing. For instance, it is commonly supposed by Protestants that the Catholic lookout in this country is a cheerful one, but at Rome there is as much gloom apparently about us as about any other nation. If there is any truth in the Pope's view, things cannot go on much longer as they are.

THE MULTITUDE OF FINANCIERS.

WE regret to say that we do not find in any quarter much satisfaction with the doings thus far of the present Congress. The newspapers have already begun to teem with denunciations of it, and even the warmest Republican organs openly warn the members that they need not hope to sit in another Congress, and wish that they had never met. The causes of this dissatisfaction lie on the surface, and Congress is not altogether to blame for them. Any Congress that could meet at this crisis would be sure to fall short of popular expectation, partly owing to the excited state of feeling produced by the panic, and partly owing to the disorganizing influence on public opinion exerted by the Administration. What we mean by the excited state of public feeling hardly needs explanation. The panic has, owing to the peculiar condition of the currency, plunged the country into more than ordinary perplexity. A panic is at any time bad enough, and the panic of 1857 went deeper and produced more widespread ruin than the present one, but the way to recovery was much plainer. It was what has been called a "credit panic"; that is, there had been over-producing, and over-trading, and over-issuing of paper, not in one field of industry only but in all. But when the crash came, there was nothing abnormal in the relations of the Government to the community. There was no commercial providence at the White House, and no "Uncle" or "Daddy" in the Treasury Department. The currency was still the currency of the civilized world, which the experience of many ages and many nations commended as the best possible. There was a great deal of "paper," both bank bills and merchants' bills, afloat, bearing promises to pay, which did not prove redeemable. But there was no haze over men's ideas on the subject of the circulating medium. The air was not filled with windy metaphysical essays on ideal "money." People knew what actual human money was, and cared nothing about "money" of the mind dreamed of by crack-brained speculators and "bankers" and communists and philanthropists. If a man owed a thousand dollars, and could not pay them, he went to his creditor frankly and said so; he did not write him long letters, trying to prove to him that bits of paper were just as good as gold. The consequence was that the community saw its way clearly out of the slough. Those who failed began anew; those who had lost heavily worked harder and lived more economically. Nobody looked or thought of looking to Washington for relief. Even if the Congress of that day had been as poorly fitted to deal with financial questions as the present one, it would have escaped with less censure or observation, owing to the much smaller number of demands on it.

When the present Congress met, people, in view of all that has happened, looked to it for immediate and serious attempts, whether right or wrong in their conception, to deal with the financial problem. They would have pardoned delay, if it was plainly made in the interest of enquiry and deliberation. But they are naturally a good deal irritated to find the whole subject thrust aside to make way for that eminently unsavory subject, the "salary-grab," and to find even this discussed in the language and spirit of loafers at a corner-grocery, and to find under cover of it the brawlers of the House making their way, at the very opening of the session, into the leadership of the majority. Moreover, the interest which has been manifested in the subject is plainly inspired rather by a slavish fear of popular indignation than a real spirit of reform, and the proposed legislation is apparently dictated by a desire to save as much money for the new Congress as may be consistent with expressing popular censure on the old one.

What we mean by the disorganizing influence exerted by the Administration on public opinion, is rather more difficult to set forth within the space at our disposal. Our foreign relations, the army and navy, are subjects in which the popular interest is very slight, on which Congress and the public are for the most part very ready to acknowledge their lack of information, and which they readily leave to the management of men of special training, so far as they care about their management at all. Indeed, it would be no exaggeration to say, that as we have no army and no navy, it would be next to impossible to feel much interest in them. As regards foreign affairs, General Grant had the good fortune to provide himself with an adviser who was *primâ facie* well qualified for the place, and who has justified his selection by marked success in two very important crises. But then a very much worse selection would probably have satisfied the public—for the problems of our foreign relations are usually very simple, and the advice of acknowledged specialists can always be obtained on them. Whenever the Department of State finds itself puzzled on a question of international usage, it can obtain opinions from at least a dozen jurists whose decisions everybody will be disposed to bow to.

As regards the Treasury Department, now so closely connected with the banking and currency of the whole country, the state of things is widely different. Money matters are matters in which everybody is intensely interested. Currency is something about which nearly everybody, certainly every business man, thinks he is well informed. Almost any dealer in money or large vendor of goods feels himself fully competent to draw up a scheme for the regulation of the circulating medium. The fallacy of this belief has been again and again demonstrated. The currency question, almost as much as the tariff question, is pre-eminently a question of remote results. The immediate results of this or that measure anybody has wit enough to see; to follow it out to its ultimate consequences requires not only the habit of analysis and the capacity for protracted reflection, but thorough familiarity with the experience of mankind in this particular field of activity. Consequently, whether a man is an authority on currency depends largely on his mental training and ability. He may have dealt in money all his life, and be a financial dunderhead; he may have no experience in business, and be a financier of the highest order. Some of the most stupendous financial nonsense on record has been talked by merchants and bankers; some of the highest financial wisdom produced by men who had never been inside a counting-house. It is, however, none the less true that the ideal financier is a man with a trained brain and practical business experience, and who has "no axes to grind." But no matter what kind of man you take, you cannot make a financier of him if he disregards financial history. Principles of human nature form two-thirds of every financial problem. An ideal system of finance cannot be constructed without at the same time constructing an ideal man. So that the first and great question of finance is, Supposing we do this or that, how will men behave under it? Now, you cannot find out how they will behave either by mathematics, or metaphysics, or mechanics, or even astrology. You can only find out by history, by looking into the records of human experience, in order to discover whether your plan, or anything like it, was ever tried, and if so, what happened.

In these days, when so many people are talking finance, and the late Secretary of the Treasury makes a boast of caring nothing about financial history, it is interesting and instructive to go back a few years and see how a really great man prepared himself to deal with such problems as are now once again before the country. Said Daniel Webster, in Faneuil Hall, in 1842:

> "The subject of currency, gentlemen, has been the study of my life. Thirty years ago, a little before my entrance into the House of Representatives, the questions connected with a mixed currency, and restoring the proper relation of paper to specie, and the proper means of restricting an excessive issue of paper, came to be discussed by the most acute and well-disciplined understandings in England in Parliament. At that time, during the suspension of specie payments by the Bank, when paper was 15 per cent. below par, Mr. Vansittart presented his celebrated resolution, declaring that a bank-note was still worth the value expressed on its face; that the bank-note had not depreciated, but that the price of bullion had risen. Lord Liverpool and Lord Castlereagh espoused this view, opposed, as we know, by the close reasoning of Huskisson, the powerful logic of Horner, and the practical sagacity and common-sense of Alexander Baring, now Lord Ashburton. The study of these debates made me a bullionist. They convinced me that paper could not circulate safely in any country any longer than it was immediately redeemable at the place of its issue. Coming into Congress the very next year, or the next but one after, and finding the finances of the country in a most deplorable condition, I then and ever after devoted myself, in preference to all other topics, to the consideration of questions

relating to them. I believe I have read everything of value that has been published on those questions on either side of the Atlantic. I have studied by close observation the laws of paper, as they have exhibited themselves in this and other countries, from 1811 down to the present time."

When we contrast this preparation, to which one of the most powerful minds of the present century thought it necessary to subject itself in order to discuss finance, with the way in which our financiers at the present day take the matter up, we must admit that we have gone down the hill very rapidly. We have, in fact, got in this matter, as in some others, to what is called a "democratic basis"—that is, one on which everybody thinks he knows as much as anybody else. Instead of having one or two or a dozen men specially devoted to this question, and peculiarly competent to deal with it, charged with the preparation and carriage of measures designed to restore order to the national finances, we have a whole army of persons of all varieties of character and attainment busily engaged in discharging the duties of a Minister of Finance, the most modest and reticent of the lot being the Secretary of the Treasury. All presidents of national banks, all managers of savings-banks, all railroad presidents, all "bankers and brokers," all wholesale dry-goods men, all bond-pedlars, all members of Congress, are busily engaged in regulating the currency, and the President sets them the example of knowing all about it the minute he casts his eye on it. Neither Turgot, nor Huskisson, nor Horner, nor Hamilton, nor Webster, nor Gladstone ever wrote or spoke on any knotty point of national economy with half the assurance of the President's late remarkable letter on "silver resumption."

Now, what we complain of is that the Administration, instead of trying to educe order from this chaos by recognizing and promoting in its appointments the claims of study and experience, has used its influence to spread and perpetuate the idea that finance is one of those open questions which all men may approach with equal confidence, and with which any man can be made competent to deal by being clothed with office and a title. The first and most palpable result of this policy has been, of course, the installation of Messrs. Boutwell and Richardson in the Treasury; but another and not less unfortunate one has been the maintenance and perpetuation of the practice, begun in Congress soon after the war, of introducing financial bills as a mere expression of individual opinion, or in order to "show where the author stands." In a proper state of opinion, this would be too ridiculous and mischievous to last; but it is difficult to persuade any member of Congress that he does not know as much about currency as General Grant or Mr. Richardson. The consequence is that the attention of Congress and the country is confused by a multiplicity of schemes; the voice of thoughtful and skilful members is drowned in the noise made by the ignorant and reckless; and all consideration of any plan in particular, either in or out of doors, is rendered impossible. It is quite safe to say that until the country is "called to order" by some authority whom it respects, and in whose conclusions it sees reason to trust, a measure so serious, so full of inconvenience, whether real or fancied, to individuals, as a return to specie payments, will not be carried. We will take leave to add, too, that if the age of "leaders" be gone, more attention must be paid to elementary instruction in political economy in the public schools, if we are to escape great disasters hereafter. It is not simply a disgrace, but is likely to prove a serious danger to the nation, that children should be sent out into the world, in a complex commercial society like ours, in the condition of Mr. Pratt of Indiana, who thinks that by increasing the volume of the currency he can lower the rate of interest. In the presence of such a phenomenon as this, it is not wonderful that much of the current financial talk carries us back to the days when Jews were massacred for "carrying gold out of the kingdom."

THE CHIEF-JUSTICE OF THE UNITED STATES.

IT does not seem to be generally remembered that there was once a nomination for Chief-Justice of the United States rejected by the Senate; nor that the person so rejected was John Rutledge of South Carolina, a man as well esteemed there as Jefferson was in Virginia or Hamilton in New York; nor that the President who made the rejected nomination was Washington. On the 1st of July, 1795, the President wrote to Governor Rutledge, stating that he had on the previous day received the resignation of Chief-Justice Jay, and that Governor Rutledge's appointment would be immediately made. About the time that this reached Rutledge in Charleston, he also received news of Jay's treaty with Great Britain. Notwithstanding his judicial appointment, of which he was then aware, he attended a public meeting called for the purpose of denouncing the treaty, and not only joined in the denunciations, but cast many reproaches and sneers at the negotiator whom he had then in fact succeeded as Chief-Justice. Shortly after this he left Charleston for Philadelphia, and presided at the August term of the Supreme Court, and delivered at least one opinion. His conduct at Charleston was thought improper and indecorous, but the irritability which it caused seems to have subsided before Congress met. By that time, however, there were suspicions as to the mental condition of the Chief-Justice. In this day, the Washington correspondents would refer to them as rumors, which we should be informed a committee of the Senate had investigated in secret session and found groundless. At that day, the office was deemed of too much importance to be confided to any man to whom suspicions of any kind attached, however great his abilities and however eminent his patriotic services. Accordingly, on the 15th of December, 1795, the nomination of John Rutledge was rejected. There is, therefore, a precedent of the strongest kind, considering the personal eminence of both Washington and Rutledge, to sustain the Senate in exercising over every judicial appointment its right of scrutiny and its power of rejection.

It is also a matter of common belief that no associate Justice of the Supreme Court has ever been promoted to be Chief-Justice. This also is an error. During the absence of Jay abroad on his mission to negotiate a treaty, Mr. Justice Cushing had presided in his stead. After the rejection of Rutledge he was nominated to the Chief-Justiceship and unanimously confirmed. It is related that on the day when this occurred there was a large dinner-party at the President's, and the new Chief-Justice was one of the guests, though ignorant of his appointment. On entering the room Washington, from the head of the table, directing his look to him, said, in an emphatic tone, "The Chief-Justice of the United States will please take his seat on my right," and that the Judge was much affected at the announcement. His commission as Chief-Justice was made out and sent to him. He held it for about a week, and then determined, on the ground of ill health, to resign.

Considering the greatness of the office, there is, indeed, an anomaly about its early history in the frequency with which it became vacant. It was regarded as the second important office under the Government; Congress had fixed the compensation at about four times as much as the Congressional pay, equivalent in these days, judging by that standard, to $30,000 per annum; the tenure of office was for life; Jay, when offered by Washington any position which he might select under the Government, had chosen that of Chief-Justice; and yet in the first twelve years of the Government it was five times vacant and was marked by three resignations and one declination. The causes, however, do not indicate that the office was undervalued. Jay resigned because he believed that the people of New York were then peculiarly entitled to his services as Governor, and that patriotic disinterestedness required that he should give up a greater office for a lesser one. He had previously, in 1785, declined to be Governor of New York, while holding the inferior office of Secretary of Foreign Affairs under the Confederation, because he then thought no such necessity existed. Later, in 1801, when the reappointment of Chief-Justice was tendered to him, he declined because he had determined to retire from public life. Ellsworth, like Jay, was sent to negotiate a treaty while upon the bench, and like Cushing resigned because of ill health.

The men who have been called to the office of Chief-Justice

have always been men whose personal character was above suspicion or reproach, and who could lay claim to eminence either as judges or statesmen. Jay had been Chief-Justice and Governor of New York, a member of the Government under the Confederation, and distinguished in the Colonial Congress. He was indeed much more prominent at that day than he appears to us now to have been. The dignity and rectitude and liberality of his personal character doubtless invited confidence and respect. As we have seen, Washington's confidence in him was so great that he not only appointed him Chief-Justice, but, taking him as the first of the great men of the day—before Jefferson and Hamilton—tendered him any place which he might prefer to serve in. Rutledge's services during the Revolution are a part of the history of the country. But of him we need hardly speak, as his appointment was rejected. Cushing had been a judge from a period anterior to the Revolution, Chief-Justice of Massachusetts, and presiding Justice of the Supreme Court of the United States. Ellsworth had been prominent among the framers of the Constitution, a judge in Connecticut, chairman of the Judiciary Committee of the Senate, and at the time of his appointment was spoken of by John Adams as "the firmest pillar of the whole Administration in the Senate." Of Marshall, the greatest of American judges, it is needless to speak. It is enough to say that these were the men that the office was deemed to require during the official days of Washington and Adams. Since those days, neither the dignity nor the importance of the office has declined, and its labors have been very greatly augmented.

But apart from all historic precedent, and the cherished examples of the "fathers," whose wisdom and rectitude are still guides which it is ordinarily safe to follow, this office of Chief-Justice of the United States is not one that the American people can easily suffer to fall into unworthy hands. If there be any characteristic of our Constitution which has been lauded and believed in at home, and studied and respected abroad, it is the lofty and independent plane upon which it has placed the judiciary of the United States. Unlike the chief officers of state, the judges hold office for life. Unlike other appointed officers, they are not removable at will. A tardy and uncertain proceeding, in the nature of a criminal conviction, can alone remove them from office, and as it was intended for offences little short of crimes and misdemeanors, it cannot be employed against ordinary unfitness, passable ignorance and narrow-mindedness, suspected partiality, and suspicious antecedents and associates. The office may fall immeasurably in public estimation and moral usefulness through the shortcomings of the incumbent, and yet the nation be without a remedy through his whole lifetime. Certainly there was never a people who so needed irreproachable character in their chief judicial officer, nor who could so justly demand of their appointing power a fearless and exacting scrutiny. The ordinary political crimes of giving us bad officials to waste our resources, or rob us of our money, are trivial compared to that of passing a suspected person up to the bench of our highest court.

But even at this point one should not stop to estimate the importance of the office. Besides this independence of the individual judge, there is also to be considered the singular independence and power within its own sphere of the judicial department of the Government. What other judicial system has the power to declare void the acts of the executive and the laws of the legislature? Standing as it does between the Government and the citizen, between the General Government and the States, and even between the several States in the character of a supreme arbiter for each, it participates in the most vital affairs of Government to an extent and in a manner which no other judicial system approaches. And as many of the questions with which it has to deal are of a gravity which far exceeds those which come before mere courts of law, so they are of a nature which cannot be determined by mere legal precedents. In other words, the bench of the Supreme Court requires a breadth of intellect and general culture and comprehensive learning much above the ability that will carry a mere lawyer over his routine with credit. If we have great men who are also able lawyers, the Supreme Court is the department of the Government which peculiarly demands them.

The means appointed by the Constitution for the selection of the judiciary are in one sense peculiar. The executive and the legislature are chosen directly or indirectly by the people; but because the people might err in the choice, the duration of their offices is short. But inasmuch as the judiciary hold office for life, it was designed that there should be no mistakes in their selection. Especially should there be no mistake in the matter of personal character and integrity. Never was there a time when a people could better appreciate the difference between morally good and bad judges. In public estimation, the Chief-Justice of the United States must be above suspicion. It is not enough that senatorial committees, sitting with closed doors, declare charges unsustained and rumors unfounded. Rumors and suspicions may be unfounded and unjust, but while we may all deplore the injustice, we must all insist that a place so exalted shall be filled by an untainted character. It is not enough that the man chosen to be Chief-Justice be really good; he must be so free from evil that all of his countrymen believe him to be irreproachable.

AGRIPPA D'AUBIGNÉ.

PARIS, December 4.

IT is not easy to form a complete collection of the original works of Agrippa d'Aubigné. The Catholic movement which followed the abjuration of Henri IV., and the gradual decay of the Protestant cause, consigned d'Aubigné almost to oblivion. He is not often mentioned in the historical works which were written after the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes. His wild and unruly spirit was little in accordance either with the serenity of the *grand siècle* or with the light graces of the eighteenth century. Our time has been more just to him, and the resurrection of d'Aubigné must be chiefly attributed to the intelligent praise of Sainte-Beuve. The eminent critic saw at once, when he took the pains to go over the folios of the author of the 'Histoire Universelle,' that d'Aubigné did not belong to the second class of respectable writers, who form the great army of letters; that he was a commanding genius, as a poet, as a historian, as a man. I was able to procure Sainte-Beuve's own copy of the first edition of the 'Histoire Universelle,' printed under the eyes of d'Aubigné at his chateau of Maillé. The well-known signature of Sainte-Beuve is on the title-page, and I found paper marks between the leaves, which certainly were placed there by the hand of the great critic, as they all marked remarkable passages.

D'Aubigné had been educated somewhat like Stuart Mill; at the age of seven he translated the 'Crito' of Plato. But his classical education was interrupted somewhat by the civil wars. When he was eight years old, he followed his father to Paris on horseback, and, going through Amboise, he saw the heads of some Huguenots on spikes: "They have decapitated France, the murderers!" exclaimed his father, who put his hand on his head and said to him: "My child, you must not spare your own head, nor will I mine, to avenge these honorable chiefs; if you do, you will have my malediction." These details are found in d'Aubigné's own life, written by himself for his children. His other works, which are well known to all scholars, are the 'Tragic Poems,' the 'Adventures of the Baron de Fœneste,' the 'Satires,' the 'Confession of Sancy.' It is not easy to translate the old-fashioned and quaint style of d'Aubigné. Let us choose, for instance, this passage, marked by Sainte-Beuve. Admiral Coligny is in bed with his wife; he is waked up by her sobs, and she addresses him thus:

"It is with great regret, sir, that I disturb your peace by my inquietude; but the members of Christ being torn as they are [it was at the beginning of the persecutions against the Protestants], and we belonging to his body, what part of it can remain insensible? You, sir, have not less feeling than I, but more force to conceal it. Here we are in a luxurious bed, while our brothers—the flesh of our flesh and the bone of our bone—are some in prison, some in the fields at the mercy of the dogs and vultures. This bed seems a grave to me, since they have no grave; these sheets tell me that they have no shrouds. I was recalling the prudent speeches by which you shut the mouths of your brothers; will you also tear their hearts, and have them remain without courage as well as without speech? I fear lest this prudence be that of the children of the century, and so much worldly wisdom not be wisdom in the eyes of God, who gave you the science of a great captain. Can you in conscience refuse to use it for His children? The sword of a knight which you wear, ought it to oppress the afflicted or to tear them from the claws of tyrants? . . . Sir, I have on my heart the blood of so many of ours; this blood and your wife scream before God and in this bed against you, and tell you that you will be the murderer of those whom you will not hinder from being murdered."

There is in this passage something quite Corneillian; you feel in every word

the energy of the sixteenth century. D'Aubigné's characteristic is, above all, energy; there is force, and almost brutality, in his poetry, and even in his wit. He will ever remain one of the most remarkable writers of that period when the French language was in process of formation, when it was more unruly, more individual. It was therefore a happy idea to begin, what had never been done before, a complete edition of his works. The first volume has only just appeared in that magnificent collection of the French classics which is edited by Alphonse Lemerre. To those who cannot procure the original editions, and even to the happy bibliophiles who have them, I cannot recommend enough the volumes already published of La Bruyère, of Rabelais, of Montaigne. D'Aubigné's works will form five volumes; the first contains a great quantity of matter entirely novel. It was known that many manuscripts of d'Aubigné were still unpublished. They were kept in Switzerland in the Tronchin Library. M. Merle D'Aubigné, the author of 'The History of the Reformation in Europe,' thought at one time of publishing all the writings of his ancestor; but his old age and the necessity of finishing his own work precluded him from entering into this new enterprise. M. Eugène Réaume has been admitted to the Tronchin Library with M. Caussade, and they have copied all that was worth copying in the enormous correspondence found at the Castle of Bessinges. They have also put under contribution the libraries of the Duc de la Trémoille, of the Duc de Noailles, who has all the relics of Madame de Maintenon (who was, as is well known, the grand-daughter of d'Aubigné). The unpublished works which they offer now to the literary world are: A book of military missives and speeches; memoirs on state matters; correspondence on personal affairs; familiar letters; letters on points of science and of theology; four treatises on political or religious subjects—1. Instructions and salutary advice to princes, republics, and peoples; 2. Treatise on civil wars; 3. On the mutual duties of kings and nations; 4. The Caduceum, or the angel of peace. There are, besides, an allegorical novel and unpublished poems. Most of the familiar letters have, alas! disappeared, and it seems that of all these manuscripts many had been condemned by d'Aubigné to destruction. "Ure, seca," were his own words to his executors in his will. They never obeyed him, and all the papers have been found in the greatest confusion. He never himself attached much importance to any of his works, except his great 'History,' which he proudly dedicated to posterity.

Here is an extract from one of the familiar letters, which will show the pervading spirit of the Huguenot gentry. The Duc d'Epernon had been much offended by an allusion to him made in the 'Tragiques':

"A gentleman said to me after dinner: 'We saw yesterday M. d'Epernon very angry against you, and saying before two hundred gentlemen that if he could not see you otherwise, he would invite you to see him in a field with one of the best swords of the world.' I shrugged my shoulders and smiled, but his companion having repeated the same thing, I felt obliged to add: 'I have been bred in too good a place not to know what the advantages are of dukes and peers; but if his Highness absolutely ordered me, and if you in his name asked me to go to that field, he would be promptly obeyed.' One of them answered: 'Sir, there are qualities of which he cannot divest himself, and, besides, he is surrounded by so many lords and gentlemen that he could only clear the field (*assurer le pré*) with difficulty.' I ended the conversation thus: 'Gentlemen, we do in France what we wish with our acquisitions. The Duke by birth is nothing above me, and many princes—witness the Duc de Guise—lay aside their dignities from excess of courage; and as for clearing the field, I can do that myself, even if the field is in his government.'"

This was strong language, but the man who never spared the truth to Henri IV. was not likely to tremble before the Duc d'Epernon.

In the series of letters united under the name of "Letters of State," we see d'Aubigné in correspondence with the Duc de Rohan, with the Duc de Bouillon, with the "most honored Lords of Berne," with the Venetian Ambassador, with the Prince de Condé. In the collection of the "Letters on Points of Science," we meet with many proofs of the terrible ignorance of the most cultivated men of the period of Henri IV. There is a long letter among others, addressed to M. de la Rivière, the first doctor of the king, on the question of sorcery, which is very extraordinary. "It would be," says d'Aubigné, "a great iniquity to believe that the Scriptures, in which there is nothing vain, had spoken in vain against sorcerers and enchanters; it would be a mortal and pernicious error." He then explains that the sorcerers ought to be brought under the jurisdiction of very high and learned courts. Among the stories he tells, and which give a vivid idea of those times, is this: After the last civil wars, says he, France was afflicted with a plague called "la masle beste." Two hundred thousand persons died of it; the wolves were entering the houses to devour the children. The populace believed in enchanted wolves, called *loups garous*. "It happened that near Chemillé there was found in a ditch a horrid man, with a furious look, bloody hands, and a bloody mouth. He had by him a little child, the entrails of which had been devoured. They asked him who had eaten the child; he said that he had himself." In court, he confessed having eaten many other children, and finally it was proved that he had eaten none; that he had found a child dead, and had touched him; he was mad, that was all his crime. But if it had not been for the judge, who conducted the examination with great care, the unfortunate madman would probably have been condemned to some *exquisitum supplicium*. D'Aubigné cites the case of a girl who, after a sermon on sorcery, went to a judge and confessed herself a sorceress. The First President prepared himself for the trial by reading the 'Demonomania' of Bodin, and other books of this sort. D'Aubigné describes the girl as very handsome, with a candid expression, and an immovable countenance. They asked her, "In what state do you go, or do you think you go to the Sabbath, in body or in spirit?" 'To the Great Sabbath, which is very distant, we only go in spirit; to the near ones in body." "You think so, but it might be all imagination?" "I will prove to you that it is not. Ten days ago we held a Sabbath in such a village, in such a one's barn; the Master ordered such and such and me to go and get the son of Jane in such a place, who had been buried on that day. He was brought on the table, and divided between twenty-four persons. I remember thirty places where the remains were taken." Commissioners were sent, and many small bones of a child were found in these places. This trial, says d'Aubigné, caused the execution of thirty-four persons; the girl witnessed them all, with a cord round her neck, much regretting not to die also, as she had, she said, been taken since the age of nine years to the Devil's Sabbath.

There are also curious letters upon philtres, upon all the superstitions of a very superstitious time. These scientific, or rather unscientific, letters seem to me perhaps the most curious part of the inedited portion of this first volume, which will soon be followed by the well-known 'History' and the other works of d'Aubigné, with such additions and changes as have been found necessary after the inspection of the numerous manuscripts of the Tronchin library.

Correspondence.

THE CHIEF-JUSTICESHIP.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: Like your correspondent "T. H.," whose letter appears in the *Nation* of last week, I was much suprised at the apologetic tone assumed by you in speaking of the nomination to the Chief-Justiceship. By the members of the Bar of the Supreme Court, who are acquainted with Mr. Williams's capacity, his nomination is considered as simply disgraceful. With such men to choose from as Swayne and Miller upon the Supreme bench, Woodruff and Emmons upon the Circuit, and Curtis, Evarts, and Cushing at the bar, the appointment of Mr. Williams would be positively disheartening to those who are endeavoring to effect the abolition of the elective system in the States where it now obtains. It is all the more suprising, too, from the usually fortunate selections made by President Grant for judicial offices, and can only be justified upon the theory that those who are likely to know Mr. Williams best have totally misapprehended his fitness for the place. S. T. W.

Detroit, Dec. 15.

INFLATION NO CHILD'S PLAY.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: This is a true story. Once upon a time (after the passage of the Legal-tender Act), as I was walking in a friend's garden, I came upon a summer-house where two little children were playing at keeping shop. Their merchandise was of little intrinsic value, but their currency was still more worthless, for it consisted of pieces of old newspaper. Having some confidence in my own knowledge of finance, I said, with a smile, "Children, you cannot play that game long, for one of you has only to tear up a few more old newspapers and he can buy the other out in no time." "Oh!" said the children, both together, "we ain't so silly as you think; before we began to play we agreed just how much newspaper we would have." Now, those little children played that game out honestly, and they didn't water *their* currency a bit.

Will not the *Nation* review this story, and recommend it as good reading for members of Congress during the Christmas holidays? And oblige, yours respectfully, X.

ENGLISH WATER-COLOR ART.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: A paper has been circulated through art-circles in this country containing a copious extract from the *Nation*, in which the use of gouache is spoken lightly of, and its use deprecated from its alleged want of permanency; and

as English water-colors have been publicly exhibited of late in New York, and a favorable reception accorded to them (as representing a school without a rival and enjoying an European reputation), may I be permitted to assist in removing the erroneous impression which exists in reference to the body-color element, and so endeavor to destroy the fulcrum by the aid of which you overturn those works which have been completed, and their salient points touched in, with this material?

You say: "A few magisterial touches of body-color, which, as we are taught, may turn black in the course of a few years." May I explain that the first use of white seventy or eighty years ago was neither more nor less than chalk, with sufficient admixture of gum to make it adhere? A few years later, preparations of lead succeeded, and the rash use of this material, which did turn black in the course of a few years, and brought very naturally opprobrium on the very name of body-color, is the obvious reason why it has earned an unfortunate reputation. Every chemist must condemn the use of this material with its leaden basis, and it is no longer manufactured. To this succeeded a preparation of oxide of zinc, which proved to be in all respects permanent; but from having a somewhat pasty texture, rising in unseemly ridges on each side of the brush mark, it soon ran its race, to be succeeded by sulphate of barytes, which gives the water-color artist all he can desire, working most agreeably, thoroughly opaque and unchangeable. It was first largely used by J. D. Harding, but not until its properties had been severely tested by Michael Faraday. Mr. Harding asked him, after his tests had been applied, "if it would last for ever"? Faraday said, "For ever is a long day, but you may rely on its lasting to all eternity, and a thousand years afterward." Will this satisfy those carpers who with long aces declare, as they may truly do of a consumptive patient, that "he is not long for this world"? I have many drawings by my colleagues of thirty to thirty-five years' standing where the white is as pure as the driven snow, and where not an approach to change is discernible; and we look upon a body-color work as specially protected from decay when the paper is covered with the panoply of body-color.

Having thus made known the opinion of our greatest analyst—an opinion sustained by the experience which revealing years brings to our aid—I fully concede all that you say in reference to the prodigal use of this material. Like all stimulants, it may be so often employed as to neutralize itself; and water-colors' *spécialité*—which is transparency and atmosphere—may be merged when too free use has been made of the bottle of white. Let our American friends persevere in the effort to exhibit the pure white "Whatman" paper—it is a laudable struggle, and one which will repay them in the end—and abstain as much as possible from the prodigal use of a material which, if indulged in, will fail to reach the power of oil, while the freshness of water-color work will be endangered. At the same time, if opaque color is wrong, so must be semi-opaque colors, and these include cobalt, vermilion, emerald green, and the various ochres. There can be no doubt but that the cautious and sparing use of this material in the foreground will greatly enhance the atmospheric tints obtainable only by the use of transparent colors.

I have the honor to be, sir, your obedient servant,

COLLINGWOOD SMITH,

Treasurer of the Society of Painters in Water-Colors.

WYNDHAM LODGE, BRIXTON HILL, LONDON, November 17, 1873.

Notes.

THE fifth 'Circular of Information' of the Bureau of Education is an account of college commencements during 1873 in the Western and Southern States—in fact, a continuation of Circular No. 3. The appendix sums up the degrees conferred by the institutions mentioned in both circulars, and the benefactions made to them. The A.B.s number 1,861, the M.D.s 503, the LL.B.s 504; while the bachelors of science make the respectable showing of 486. The total donations and legacies, absolute, pledged, and conditional, for the year 1872-73, are valued at £4,216,886. At the close of the present year the Bureau proposes to issue a title-page, general index, and introduction to its circulars, which have been paged accordingly.——St. George Mivart's newest work on 'Man and Apes: an Exposition of Structural Resemblances and Differences bearing upon Questions of Affinity and Origin,' will be republished here by the Appletons.——G. P. Putnam's Sons have reproduced for Mrs. Eliza Greatorex six pen-and-ink etchings made by her in Nuremberg, chiefly commemorative of Albert Dürer. The printing has been done by photolithography (the *Graphic* process) with a result probably not far short of the original rendering, but less effective, we should suppose, than copperplate impressions would have been. The sketches, from well-chosen points of view, are interesting in themselves and gracefully executed.

—"Manning the Navy" was the subject of an address delivered by Capt. Stephen B. Luce, U.S.N., before the U. S. Naval Association at Annapolis, Nov. 13. Captain Luce has no fault to find with the "settled, well-established policy of our Government to maintain but a comparatively small standing army and a small navy, relying upon the patriotism of our people to swell either indefinitely, as may be needed." He complains, however, that while in the case of the army this policy has been supplemented by a special provision for reserves, no such provision has been made—or, rather, made to operate—for the navy. As a result, "our national ships are only partially manned by American seamen," and, indeed, "the greater part of the men who man our naval guns are foreigners." Secretary Welles stated in one of his reports during the rebellion, "while we were straining every nerve to get seamen, that we had in the navy 19,000 landsmen." These facts are sufficiently discouraging, but they do not appeal to the popular imagination until such a crisis is upon us as that from which diplomacy has just rescued us. "To establish a school of seamen for the navy alone, however," says Captain Luce, "would be as unwise as illiberal and short-sighted. Any scheme for the benefit of our seamen must include all, both those of the national and those of the commercial marine." The revival at this time of our shipping interests naturally favors the introduction of a general system of nautical education, and, in fact, the State of New York has already provided, in a statute passed last year, for the establishment and maintenance of "a nautical school for the education and training of pupils in the science and practice of navigation." Captain Luce has accordingly prepared a bill for submission to the present Congress, based upon the experience of England and France, as described in an interesting manner in the body of his address. Since it would be "unadvisable to open nautical schools in the absence of a positive and active demand for the kind of education they are alone intended to supply," the bill seeks "to create that demand by establishing, by legislative enactment, a fixed standard of professional attainment on the part of the masters and mates of our merchant service, and by requiring our merchant-vessels to take, as a part of their crew, duly qualified sailor-boys in numbers proportioned to their tonnage." In answer to a question of Commander Breese, Captain Luce said: "The first thing for us to do is to get Congress to give us an allowance of at least one thousand boys over and above our present complement of seamen; the act, in granting them, to specify that they are to be trained for the purpose of being seamen and petty officers in the navy; and at least three vessels should be commissioned in our principal ports for the purpose of carrying out the provisions of the act." The act also "provides for the appointment of a registrar of seamen, to keep, in addition to other prescribed duties, an account of the seamen of the country, that we may have at all times some knowledge of the auxiliary sea-force on which the country may rely in the event of war."

—The necessity of adopting some such plan as this is so apparent that we shall only express the hope that Congress may give it the attention it deserves, and that without delay. It should be borne in mind, however, that the lack of seamen is not peculiar to this country, and the causes of this deficiency merit a careful examination. At the very time Captain Luce was preparing and delivering his address, the Nautical Association of Bremen were deploring the prevalence of the same evil in all the ports of Germany. It was stated at one of their meetings that the number of Bremen crews had increased in ten years by about 25 per cent., while the number of sailors had remained nearly constant (1,500 to 1,600), and there was a marked falling-off in sailor-boys. This was traced to several causes: the actual deficiency of men in Germany; the decline of fisheries; the inequality between seamen's wages and landsmen's; the hardships of the sailor's condition. Unquestionably the last two are everywhere the most potent factors of the problem. The laborer and the mechanic have no need to envy the sailor his gains or his lot. They earn more with less risk, and they are better protected against the caprice and inhumanity of their employers. Captain Luce calls attention to the bad name acquired by the American merchant-service for sheer brutality in the treatment of the men before the mast; and he might have added that our navy has furnished examples of cruel and unnatural punishments equally disgraceful to the national character. Moreover, the introduction of steam has worked adversely to good seamanship, by offering better wages and better treatment, while exacting less skill in navigation from the common sailor. Yet it is perfectly true, as Captain Luce remarks, that "to command an ocean steamer properly, one must first be a sailor; and a sailor can be made only on board of a sailing-ship." We may note that the Bremen Association declined to pass a resolution in favor of compelling shipmasters to take

a certain number of boys (Schiffsjungenzwang), partly on the ground of its impracticability, owing to the want of boys.

—We have already made reference to an entertaining writer in the *Cornhill*, who has had for his theme the history of the French newspaper press from its origin to the present time. In his latest article he deals with contemporary journals and journalists, and, after a fashion to which he is no stranger, he begins with a small Gallico-philosophical excursus, in which he enquires into the reason why every newspaper press in the world does the French press the honor of paying it more attention than any other. This we suppose we may allow to pass for a fact. The fact being so, it is so for the same reason, he says, that each nation outside of France pays more attention to the French nation than to any other except itself; and this is a reason not hard to find. The Frenchman thinks he has found it when he says that it is because the French are the leaders of human thought in all its fields. But this, says our author, is a conclusion which has no great amount of truth in it. Frenchmen are great adapters and magnifiers of other men's ideas: that must be admitted; but it cannot be said of their genius that it is at all of the inventive kind. For instance, their communist right of local self-government, about which we have lately heard so much, has for centuries been an old story in Britain, and has long been exercised by Americans also; and the same may be said of "all that is practical in their political theories." But it is not only in political contrivances of a practical nature that the French are secondary; the same thing happens to them everywhere. Their famous schools of revolutionary philosophy, for example, were made up of nothing else than disciples of the rationalism of Hobbes and Locke; and of their celebrated Encyclopædists it may indeed be said, that as their writings were directed against Rome and the Jesuits rather than against fundamental dogmas, the authors of them may be described as mere continuers of the Reformation. Undoubtedly, it may be urged that France has at least immense military glory, and a moral influence extending far beyond the confines of her territory; "but these again are catch phrases, which do not bear a very close examination." As for the military glory of France, "before Napoleon, who was a Corsican, vanquished the armies of disunited and distracted Germany," French military annals offered a long series of such crushing defeats as Crécy, Poictiers, Agincourt, Pavia, Blenheim, Ramillies, Malplaquet, Oudenarde, and Rossbach, and few decisive or useful successes. As for the moral influence of France, the French Shakespeare, Dante, Raphael, Beethoven, Michael Angelo, are sought in vain; and while the Englishman can point to his institutions and language thriving over a third of the world, the Frenchman of our day can point to no colony but Algeria, and there to little more than garrisons. In short, Mr. Matthew Arnold's verse—

"France, great in all things, but supreme in none"—

would seem likely to secure this essayist's fullest approbation; and doubtless he would dissent from the proposition that to be great in all things is of itself a kind of supremacy, and is to be acknowledged as such.

—Having made out to his own satisfaction that the French are not leaders of human thought—in the sense, at any rate, of being the greatest originators of thought, however else their claim might plausibly be urged—the *Cornhill* writer answers his own query in his own way, his answer being, in brief, that France is the spoiled child of Europe: no other people respects her very much; all like her and are amused by her. And this because Frenchmen themselves live for amusement—avow that fact to themselves, do not set themselves up for anything else than sinners, are no hypocrites, and, in short, fill the position among other nations that is filled in private circles by those merry, bright-witted rakes who do and say with impunity what would not be allowed in the case of steadier persons, and yet what these steadier persons do not dislike to hear said and see done, though dignity—perhaps something worse—may prevent their doing it themselves. This, it will be seen, may pass very well for magazine disquisition upon "national character"—a species of writing in which all sorts of philosophers have at one time and another engaged, and in which even the best of them are more ready to remember the points of difference between different nations than to remember the points of likeness between two communities of human beings who may happen to be living under somewhat different circumstances. It is thus that we get not only the gay Frenchman of the old-school geographers, who always straps down his trowsers and eats ices in *cafés*, but also the democratic American, always being democratic, of M. de Tocqueville. But however profound our *Cornhill* essayist may be in his philosophy, he is readable when he comes to draw portraits of his contemporary editors, among whom are M. John Lemoinne, M. Edouard Hervé, M. Louis Veuillot, M. Ernest Renan, M. Louis Blanc, M. Emile Girardin, M. Francesque Sarcey, M. Clément Duvernois, M. J. J. Weiss, M. Henri de Pène, M. Paul de Cassagnac, M. "Timothée Trimm," and a dozen more. The writer appears to know some of these gentlemen, and to know about all of them and treats of them all as if he had in a measure got over his feeling of amusement at them as "foreigners." Still, no true Englishman will be displeased at the tone of his writing, and M. de Cassagnac—whom he pronounces diffuse in style, but a good fencer—may even now be preparing to do himself the pleasure of a meeting with him.

SARA COLERIDGE.*

IN his poem called the "Triad," which is full of exquisite touches of refined and delicate fancy, Wordsworth, after describing his daughter Dora and Edith Southey, thus depicts Sara Coleridge, the daughter of the poet, as she was in her twenty-seventh year:

"'Last of the three, though eldest born,
Reveal thyself like pensive Morn
Touched by the skylark's earliest note,
Ere humbler gladness be afloat.
But whether in the semblance drest
Of Dawn, or Eve, fair vision of the west,
Come with each anxious hope subdued
By woman's gentle fortitude,
Each grief, through meekness, settling into rest.
—Or I would hail thee when some high-wrought page
Of a closed volume lingering in thy hand
Has raised thy spirit to a peaceful stand
Among the glories of a happier age.'

"Her brow hath opened on me—see it there,
Brightening the umbrage of her hair!
So gleams the crescent moon, that loves
To be descried through shady groves.
Tenderest bloom is on her cheek;
Wish not for a richer streak;
Nor dread the depth of meditative eye,
But let thy love, upon that azure field
Of thoughtfulness and beauty, yield
Its homage offered up in purity.
What wouldst thou more? In sunny glade,
Or under leaves of thickest shade,
Was such a stillness e'er diffused
Since earth grew calm while angels mused?
Softly she treads, as if her foot were loth
To crush the mountain dew-drops—soon to melt
On the flower's breast; as if she felt
That flowers themselves, whate'er their hue,
With all their fragrance, all their glistening,
Call to the heart for inward listening."

It were an infelicity that might well awaken a sentimental regret should so lovely a poetic image as this be changed into a plain figure of mere prose. And this is, alas! the effect, in spite of many elements of sweetness and superior excellence, of the 'Memoir and Letters of Sara Coleridge.' The interest of the book, such as it is, lies not in the incidents of the life, but in the expression it affords of the character of a woman of some uncommon intellectual gifts and some personal accomplishments and graces.

Sara Coleridge was born in 1802, the fourth and youngest child of Coleridge's ill-mated marriage. She was born at her uncle Southey's house, at Keswick, in the absence of her father. Her childhood and youth were spent under the same roof and under the guardianship of Southey, who, with all tenderness and faithfulness, supplied the place of her own irresponsible, neglectful, and selfish father. From him, however, his daughter inherited the most marked traits of her nature, and for him she entertained a pathetic reverence. It is to Southey's highest credit that such a feeling as possessed Sara Coleridge's heart toward her father was possible to her. Any one of less generosity than Southey would have hindered the growth of the sentiment, not necessarily by open expression, but almost inevitably by the indication in general moral judgments of the contempt which such a course of life as Coleridge pursued could not but awaken in an upright and conscientious man. Inheriting from her father a sensitive organization, an imaginative temperament, a reflective disposition, Sara Coleridge was fitted by nature to receive easily the impress of the literary influences which surrounded her. To Southey and Wordsworth she owed the best part of her education. In the intercourse of domesticity with them, she learned to live simply and to think highly. She was early a student, early fond of serious meditation; and while her life moved in quiet paths, her soul was filled with interests that are seldom the concern of girls. In 1822, she became engaged to her cousin, Henry Nelson Coleridge—a man not unworthy of her. They were not married till 1829. In 1843, her husband died. Their married life had been what is called happy, except for the interruptions and anxieties of ill-health. She had been occupied with the care of her children and with literary interests, for which her taste continued to increase. After her husband's death, she continued to devote herself to her children, and she gave much time and thought to the editing of her father's works. Her health, which always had been delicate, broke down in 1851, and she died on the 3d of May, 1852, in the forty-ninth year of her age.

Upon this framework of fact her life was built up. She left a very precious

* 'Memoir and Letters of Sara Coleridge. Edited by her Daughter.' New York: Harper & Brothers. 1874. Cr. 8vo, pp. xxxi-⁂.

memory to a small circle of intimate friends. She had made a strong impression of high intellectual powers upon a larger, but still small, section of the public, and to the numbers who knew only her name, she was of interest as the daughter of Coleridge, the niece of Southey, the friend of Wordsworth—a creature of the imagination worthy of these associations. Mr. De Vere, in a letter to her daughter, printed in this volume, says:

"Great and various as were your mother's talents, it was not from them that she derived what was special to her. It was from the degree in which she had inherited the feminine portion of genius. She had a keener appreciation of what was highest and most original in thought than of subjects nearer the range of ordinary intellects. She moved with the lightest step when she moved over the loftiest ground. Her 'feet were beautiful on the mountain-tops' of ideal thought. In this respect, I should suppose she must have differed from almost all women whom we associate with literature. I remember hearing her say that she hardly considered herself to be a woman 'of letters.' She felt herself more at ease when musing on the mysteries of the soul, or discussing the most arduous speculations of philosophy and theology, than when dealing with the humbler topics of literature."

And it is in accordance with this discriminating statement that Sara Coleridge's chief claim to remembrance in connection with literature lies in the essays and notes, mainly on controverted topics of theology and metaphysics, with which she illustrated the editions of her father's works that she superintended. They display learning rare in a woman, as well as a considerable power of speculation and of skill in dealing with the terms and propositions of metaphysics. But she had inherited from her father the tendency to over-refinement and subtlety rather than clearness of thought, and she had adopted from him his mode of speculation, in which baseless assumptions are often made to do the duty of sound arguments, and to serve as substructure for the most lofty but unsubstantial edifices of fancy. Coleridge had the faculty of deceiving himself with the notion that he was thinking, when in truth he was dissipating his intellectual energies in the practice of the mere form without the substance of thought. This faculty was helped by his tendency to mysticism, and by his adoption of an unintelligible scheme of theology. Nothing impresses a certain class of minds more effectively than the self-confidence of an inaccurate thinker, especially if it be united, as in Coleridge's case, with great powers of expression, gleams of true insight, and a highly poetic genius. His daughter became one of his most thorough disciples. Her affection, which had found little opportunity for expression in personal relations with her neglectful parent, her pride in his repute, and her inheritance of intellectual tendencies and sympathies, seem gradually to have shaped her mind upon the model of his. But it was the speculative, more than the imaginative and poetic, side of his nature that was reflected by hers. And that portion of his speculations was specially attractive to her in which he attempted to build up a system of evangelical theology upon a curiously ingenious and complex metaphysical basis. The more important letters in the volume before us are metaphysico-theological discussions, in which the cut-and-dry formulas of the evangelical school have a large place. The letters show an admirable temper and spirit, reveal a very pure and pious soul, but are dreary expositions of a scheme which, in the effort to reconcile philosophy with the creed of a narrow party of a single church, resulted in an unsatisfactory and lifeless compound of formalism and mysticism.

The chief impression left by the letters is that Sara Coleridge's existence was far too much intellectualized. The sweet feminine soul was starved by the claims of the restless and dissatisfied intelligence. Her letters, even those to her husband, take the form of essays; they want the grace of easy friendly communication. She is always a little conscious of being seated in the lecturer's chair, and what she has to say must, to our regret, turn out at times, if not tedious, at least commonplace. Her notion of letter-writing is given by herself in a letter to a friend, and the passage is characteristic of her manner. "Letter-writing," she says, "is a method of visiting our friends in their absence, and one which has some advantages peculiar to itself; for persons who have any seriousness of character at all endeavor to put the better part of their mind upon paper; and letter-writing is one of the many calls which life affords to put our minds in order, the salutary effect of which is obvious" (p. 159).

What memories of delightful letters of women who were not always putting their minds in order, however salutary might be the process, rise to the thought—letters in which the heart, the fancy, the playful wit, the delicate observation, the exquisite expression, all have share! It is with a smile, but with a smile that does not exclude a tender, pathetic sense of the incomplete life of a woman who could write in this fashion to her husband, that we read such a passage as the following: "We ought, indeed, my beloved husband, to be conscious of our blessings, for we are better off than all below us, perhaps than almost all above us. The great art of life, especially for persons of our age, who are leaving the vale of youth behind us, just lingering still perhaps in the latter stage of it, and seeing the bright golden fields at the entrance of it more distinctly than those nearer to our present station, is to cultivate the love of doing good and promoting the interests of others, avoiding at the same time," etc., etc. (p. 179). We cannot quote more. It is too hard to see the ideal Sara Coleridge of the "Triad" thus changing into a figure as stiff and unattractive as one of Mrs. Jarley's wax-works.

A touch, a look, a single brief expression, may afford the measure of a character more truly than long speech or usual habit. The gesture, the glance, betray the inner recesses of the soul. The following sentences are extraordinary revelations of the writer's character. We will not qualify them with the epithet they deserve. She is writing to Mr. De Vere, concerning Dante:

"Don't you observe how much less of sturdy, independent pride and reserve there is in Italians, and in all foreigners, than in us Englishmen? An English poet would not have written this of himself—he would have thought it babyish; and still more much of Dante's behavior with Beatrice, which I have always thought has a touch of Jerry Sneak in it. Indeed, he actually compares himself to a baby fixing its eyes on its ma" (p. 457).

Failure of perception, blankness of mind, absence of feeling, could hardly find more absolute expression than in these words. There are happily better things than this in the book: some pleasing reflections, some natural feeling, some fair criticism. But the general effect of the volume is one of disappointment. Sara Coleridge is no longer a creature for the imagination to delight in. She will remain of interest as the daughter of the poet, more than by her own right. These letters show her to us as a serious-minded, good woman, with unusual intellectual powers, and with personal graces that attracted a narrow circle of friends. But of the woman complete in all sweet feminine gifts and charms, free from self-consciousness, free from dogmatism and vanity, with feelings unformalized by creed or theory, with a deep and simple heart, of such a woman the traces are slight in the 'Memoir and Letters of Sara Coleridge.'

JACQUEMART'S CERAMIC ART.*

THIS handsome volume is almost exactly reproduced, except as to the cover, from the French original which appeared a year ago. Within, the pages are nearly of the same size and appearance, the woodcuts are interspersed with the text in the same way, and the etchings are printed apparently from the same plates, and have their titles on their thin fly-leaves in the same French fashion. This similarity leads one to expect a likeness in more important points, and, in fact, this book seems to be as nearly a reproduction of M. Jacquemart's book as Mrs. Palliser and the publishers could make it. The differences are the inevitable ones; thus the etchings, which are printed separately and of full-page size, are not as good impressions as those to be found in an early copy of the French edition, and the woodcuts are not quite so delicate, though perfectly satisfactory and clear. Mrs. Palliser's translation, too, though close and accurate, is not all that could be wished for in ease and grace. Nor is the meaning always perfectly rendered; though, what is strange, the principal faults are not those of misunderstanding of technical terms, of which, indeed, Mrs. Palliser seems to have an accurate knowledge, but rather slips in the rendering of common French expressions into the corresponding English. Thus, on page 195, the Greeks are credited with the invention of "a rudimentary plastic," the excuse for which is to be found in *une plastique rudimentaire* of the original, which is tolerable French, while the translation is not English. On page 234, the earthen pots found in the Seine, and supposed to have accumulated there as the accidental waifs from some mediæval cabaret, are called "recipients," as of liquor, because the French word happened to be "*récipients*"; "receptacles" would have been better, and "cups" or "flagons," or, more undeterminately, "vessels," would have been better still. So *vulgariser* is not to vulgarize, but to make popular; when Alexandre Dumas told the late Emperor that he was a *vulgarisateur*, he meant to claim a good deal of credit for himself and his historical novels. "Ils ne sont pas du même usage" does not mean "they are not of the same usefulness," but, rather, "they are not used for the same purpose." And so on; but we do not consider this a very grave evil, at least in any one book, however serious it may be that translations should nearly always be full of just such utterly needless errors. Moreover, it is not so great an evil in this book as it would be in a purely literary production; and yet we find this translation an unusually correct one. Thoroughly good translations, such as, let us say, the best of Carlyle's, are nearly as rare as books like 'Sartor Resartus.' Of course, great labor would be required to make every sentence of the translation of a big octavo as perfect in rendering the author's thought into idiomatic English as, for instance, that of the catch-words and war-cries, the epigrammatic sayings

* 'History of the Ceramic Art. By Albert Jacquemart. Translated by Mrs. Bury Palliser.' London: Sampson Low; New York: Scribner, Welford & Armstrong. 1873.

and bits of temporary slang, scattered through 'The French Revolution.' The volume before us would have had to wait while the touchstone and the file should go over it; and, after many days' work, it would not have been very much better for its purpose.

The works on pottery and porcelain of which so many have appeared during the last few years, unless they are merely dictionaries of marks and dates and makers, are all of the nature of historical essays. Those of them which are monographs are apt to be the most accurate and the most full. Of the remainder—those ambitious books which try to include the whole history of the ceramic art, or a large part of it—we are inclined to give the first place to M. Jacquemart's present work. One great advantage is, that it is the most recent; and that means a great deal when so many investigators are at work, and when important discoveries are made every year, not merely of new and valuable specimens, but of documentary and other evidence. So short a time ago as 1862, when M. Jacquemart published his splendid book on porcelain, he could not have told us anything about the extraordinary *faience* of Oiron, for instance, the "Henri Deux" ware of the old catalogues—even if it had come within his province. Mr. Benjamin Fillon has cleared up that once mysterious matter, the doubtful origin and manufacture of that fine pottery of which less than seventy pieces are known, for one piece of which the South Kensington Museum gave eleven hundred pounds ten years ago, of which a fine piece might fetch two thousand pounds under the hammer to-day. In the wide and interesting field of majolica (for so we propose to call it, following M. Jacquemart and Mrs. Palliser, and ignoring the purist Englishman, who nowadays spells it *maiolica*)—in this particolored and variegated meadow, diapered with the wildest fancies of flower and leaf, and inhabited by the strangest beasts and men and demigods that filled the fancies of the lesser artists of the Renaissance, all our knowledge is new; what has been learned about majolica within fifteen years has not been so much an addition to the old stock of knowledge as an overturning and supplanting of absurd old errors. And accordingly, we are sure to find the chapters on Henri Deux ware and majolica, as also those on the *faience* of Rouen, the stone wares of Flanders and Germany, and the like, inspired by the newest discoveries and the most matured judgment of connoisseurs.

It is to be remarked that the essay form is carefully preserved. The body of the book is not cut up with tables and classified lists, nor are such aids to memory added in an appendix. The hand-book style, the dictionary look, are avoided as much as possible, and the text is a disquisition upon certain points that seem to the author the most worthy of consideration, with no more reference to special objects or collections than enough to explain his meaning. This characteristic of the book is not in its favor as a book for the student or collector to refer to when in haste for a morsel of knowledge: it is probably advantageous to it in a proportionate degree, considered as a pleasant and stimulating book for beginners and for general reading. In one part, however, the book is more minute and less generally interesting—that is, in the chapters devoted to the various *fabriques* of France. Many of the smaller establishments in the provinces had almost been lost to memory until late investigation had recalled them, and their wares had been confounded with those of more prominent and still existing factories. It is probable that no work gives an account of these at once so full and so correct as the present one.

Of the illustrations, the twelve etchings by M. Jules Jacquemart would be called excellent if by any other artist, and are only surpassed by the same draughtsman's work in larger and more costly publications than this. M. Jacquemart's style seems to be changing, however, and is less hard and formal, less strikingly portrait-like, in these etchings than in those of ten years ago in 'L'Histoire de la Porcelaine,' or in the more recent illustrations of arms and armor and precious objects in the great collections of Paris; or even in the reproductions of the pictures of our New York Metropolitan Museum of Art made not three years ago. The woodcuts are beautiful, and, though a number are old friends, the majority are of wholly unfamiliar pieces.

MAGAZINES FOR JANUARY.

SCRIBNER'S for January is as well provided with readable matter and as profuse of illustrations as usual. The reader will understand what he has to expect when we say that among the contributors are writers so well known as R. H. Stoddard, T. W. Higginson, Jules Verne, J. A. Froude, George MacDonald, Mrs. Harding Davis, John Hay, F. Bret Harte, C. D. Warner, J. G. Saxe, Gail Hamilton, and "H. H." Of a large number of these ladies and gentlemen it may be said that for many years now they have been regular magazine-makers, and that their work is of a merit tried and approved in the eyes of the magazine-reading public. We ought to add the name of D. Holland, who also is well known, and who, as editor of the magazine, furnishes each month a certain quantity of discourse upon such current matters as seem to him to require comment, and who is as satisfactory as ever. The topics treated of in his department this month are the Evangelical Alliance and the prospective disappearance of many of the sects; the abominable badness of the cheap American restaurant; the pernicious character of much of our literature for boys. On each of these subjects the common consent of mankind is expressed by Dr. Holland with a vigor that leaves nothing to be desired in the way of vigorousness. As regards the tone of some of our juvenile literature, our editor's audience, perhaps, needs no counsel. It ought not. But, on the other hand, perhaps it does; for the short-sightedness, or rather blindness, of perfectly respectable and rather intelligent parents in this particular is all but incredible. Dr. Holland speaks of "the quality and animus of a magazine which is published by E. J. Brett of London, and is distributed by an advertised general agency" throughout the country, and which deserves denunciation as "a moral nuisance." But we need not look so far from home. Any one of our news-stands will at any time show us an American magazine for school children in which the principal illustration will very likely represent a gallant boy of fourteen tripping up a policeman, or sending the assistant master headlong down a flight of steps. Or in a juvenile magazine which is of such pretensions as to have a department in French, we may this month see a clever picture illustrating a capitally written little story, both of which, picture and story, inculcate the lesson that a good thing for you to do in the snow-balling season, if you are a boy, is to go softly behind an elderly couple and suddenly give the old gentleman a snow-ball, as hard as you can hit him, just behind his ear. You are then to express your regret at this accident, and say that if that is the way people are getting hit in the public streets you, for your part, are going home. We find this little sketch in the *Saint Nicholas*. There is nothing very dreadful in it all; but if such teaching is admitted into the best juvenile magazine in the country—and a very good magazine it is—what is to be looked for in the poorer ones? And even though there is nothing very dreadful in it all, we may properly insist that while every boy should be permitted his fair allowance of mischief, and may be at least connived at in a due amount of strategic concealment of all the facts in a given case, it is nevertheless true that there is no need of supplying him with clever artists and bright story-tellers to instruct him in these arts. It is true that the *Saint Nicholas* sins but seldom, either in this way or in the far worse way of mawkishness and goodiness which has infested juvenile literature since the days of Little Nell at least, and which the women who have since then become so numerous in the fields of fiction have not helped to diminish.

Of the writers just enumerated as contributing to make the January *Scribner's*, there is none who has done anything with which his admirers will find themselves unfamiliar, or with which the general public will be pleased in any especial manner. A writer whom we have not named, Mr. Edward King, continues what is doubtless as attractive an article as any of those by authors of more reputation than himself. Some months ago he was sent into the Southwest, and he has since been giving the readers of *Scribner's* some pleasant sketches of the social, political, agricultural, and other aspects of life in those regions. He is to be called a fluent rather than a statistical or weighty reporter; but he seems to give a clear notion of the general condition of affairs, and often is graphic and amusing. The letter-press is copiously adorned with pictures, and, altogether, Mr. King's papers, considering their subject, the way in which it is handled, and its illustrations, are a good specimen of a kind of serial more popular with Americans—men, women, and boys—than most new novels.

Mr. Higginson makes a critical notice of the works and literary character of Mr. Charles Dudley Warner, whom he assigns to the "Meditative School," as he proposes to call it. There is hardly need of a specific name, we should say. And to say so may be well enough, for our men of letters still have a trick of magnifying their office. We make as much noise over some titmouse's one egg as if eggs were a new thing in the world, and the one just laid were the roc's egg itself. It is pleasant to imagine the anguish of some of our American men of letters could they be put into the spiritual charge of the late Jonathan Swift, for example, and compelled, under pain of some conversation from that gentleman, to fling off anonymous pamphlets. With regard to Mr. Higginson's suggestions about Mr. Warner, who, as it happens, has been much more read than criticised, they appear to us to be very sound. Mr. Warner is one of a class of writers of whom the United States have been turning out a great many of late—writers whose method is humorous and taking, but of whom one by-and-by asks whether or not they have much in their heads, and how long they will be able to keep up writing. "The thinness of material," of which Mr. Higginson hints a suspicion, soon becomes felt and perceived, rather than "suspected," and we see the "humorist" disappear in the jester or droll. It

seems to us that on another page of this same magazine, in Mr. Warner's serious essay on Mr. Froude and his notions of progress, the thinness of the material is very obvious.

A criticism of Mr. Quincy Ward's Shakespeare; a happy ending of the "Princess of Thule"; more of the "New Hyperion"; a biographical sketch of the late Chester Harding; an account of the superstitious lore in which the Japanese fox figures; an affecting and simple story by the author of 'Blindpits'; some chat about French marriages; a description of the gambling-hells of Monaco; a wondrous recipe for the cooking of a goose; and some other matter, constitute the January *Lippincott*, in which there is little to skip. We might appropriately refer at some length to this same goose, for the January magazines of this year make a singularly small show of sausages and turkeys and carols and elves and angels and Scrooges and Marleys and unrelenting guardians, and the other properties. For whatever reason, a reaction appears to have set in, and very heartily, we imagine, it will be welcomed, for the wholesome mirth and good feeling of the season had been to no inconsiderable extent overlaid by such rubbish. As for *Lippincott's* goose, one would say that, so far as concerns savoriness at least, Mr. Bob Cratchit himself might be satisfied with it. The business of preparing him for dinner is thus to be entered upon and conducted: A young, healthy goose, and one in his first feathers, is to be selected. For one week he is to be fed on corn-meal dough, and is to be allowed the run of a yard, with plenty of sweet grass and an abundant supply of fair pure water. Then for two weeks he is to be fed upon boiled rice, with which you may, if you choose, mix chopped celery, and at the end of this period he is ready for the knife. But by no means for the spit or the Dutch oven. He is to be drawn while his feathers are still on him, and within him is to be put a large Labrador herring, after which he must be wrapped up in several folds of linen cloth, and you must then bury him for four days under three feet of clean clay. There is more of the recipe, and it is much of the same kind as that already given. It concludes by advising that the owner of the bird, in inviting persons to the feast, should invite according to a rule allowing to each man four pounds.

"Japanese Fox Myths" tells some rather amusing stories about the fox of fable, who in Japan as elsewhere is an astute animal, unscrupulous in the pursuit of his own ends, and given over to an evil mind. The Japanese appear to confer on him many of the attributes of our demons and hobgoblins. For instance, they believe that he enters into people, as the devil into the Gadarene swine, and possesses them. It is said—and to hear it said gives rise to certain reflections in the minds of American citizens—that "the maudlin and indecent conduct of certain foreign gentlemen, the shining exponents of 'modern Aryan civilization,'" is explained by the Japanese not as being caused by "alcohol and total depravity, or that partial depravity commonly called 'cussedness,'" but as being the result of vulpine possession.

The *Catholic World* seems to begin the year in the right spirit. Casting a look backward over 1873 before turning its face towards 1874, it concedes the death of King Herod and the Emperor Tiberius, but is unable to base any hope upon this state of facts: "There is no pagan Rome," it says, "but there is a Christian Germany. The dead ashes of the divine Emperor Tiberius were long ago blown about the world, but the divine Emperor William still lives. There is no Herod, but there is an Emanuel whose name is as characteristic of the man as the word Eumenides of what it was intended to represent. . . . The world seems at the crisis of a fever." For the rest, the *Catholic World* has its usual array of articles, original and selected, and nothing to call for particular comment.

Mr. David A. Wells contributes to the January *Atlantic* an interesting and well-written article on "Local Taxation." In the *Nation* for February 6, 1873 (No. 397) is an article, also by Mr. Wells, on the same subject, in which was pointed out the curious fact that the whole theory and practice of local taxation in the United States were being gradually undermined by the courts of last resort, as the English theory and practice were long ago by theirs. In his present article, Mr. Wells contributes additional evidence of the change which he says is going on. Without going into unnecessary details, we may say that the present theory of taxation is simply to tax everything, houses, horses, books, lands or mortgages, bonds, bills, notes—all property, tangible or intangible, real or unreal, equally, and to tax it in the case of personal property at the owner's place of residence. The courts are gradually, by judicial decision, breaking up this system, laying down rules in particular cases which are directly antagonistic to it. Mr. Wells refers to a number of cases, particularly one lately decided by the Supreme Court of the United States (15 Wall, 306, 328) and a recent decision of the Supreme Court of California, which holds the double taxation of mortgages illegal. The tendency of the courts is to declare the *situs* of personal property for taxation to be the place in which it is found, to break up all double taxation to make it more and more difficult to tax such property as is really mere evidence of debt, and make all taxation fall upon what is tangible, visible, and real.

Of the late Mr. Agassiz's 'Evolution and Permanence of Type,' the key-note is given in these words: "It cannot be too soon understood that science is one, and that, whether we investigate language, philosophy, theology, history, or physics, we are dealing with the same problem, culminating in the knowledge of ourselves. . . . Our own nature demands from us this double allegiance." These two weighty articles the *Atlantic* balances, so to speak, with some matter that is decidedly light; as "Lida Ann," "The Two Pillars," "Baddeck and that Sort of Thing." Light enough, but also bright and entertaining, is the beginning of the story of "Prudence Palfrey," by Mr. T. B. Aldrich, "whose story of 'Marjorie Daw,'" says the prospectus of the *Atlantic's* new publishers, "took the edge off the panic." What with these articles, and the free-and-easy manner of "Mose Evans" and of Colonel Waring's "Fox-Hunting in England," the magazine has this month something of an unusual flavor, which will be agreeable to some palates. And a continuance of it may be confidently depended upon as long as Mr. Baker's "Mose Evans" is running. His 'New Timothy' and 'Inside' are proofs and guarantees of his singular aptitude for getting the local coloring of his scenes and catching the outside marks of his figures, and such parts of their characters as find expression in the broader marks. Mr. Whittier, Dr. Holmes, Mr. Bayard Taylor, and Mrs. Celia Thaxter unite to keep the poetry of the *Atlantic* up to its traditional level.

The *Galaxy* contains for its longest article a curiously ill-judged and unskilful piece of polemical writing by Mr. J. S. Black. He travels miles out of the record, in which he has a fairly good case, of which he makes a great deal, and leaves off his attack upon Mr. Adams's Mr. Seward in order to urge once more with customary violence and heat the old arguments of Mr. Buchanan's Attorney-General. That the cause in which so many arguments were expended in vain was a cause which only the last argument could settle; that the question was, which of two sets of men and two sets of ideas should absolutely abase and rule the other; and that in the struggle constitutions and institutions had to undergo some strain about which it is sheer childishness to groan, Mr. Black does not seem to understand. He probably will die without knowing that he is in the position of a man who has fallen among his enemies, and been as thoroughly stripped, beaten, and led into captivity as the laws, not of peace, but of war, allow. This is the main and vital defect of his general position. On the narrower issue he makes a bitter and furious, but a skilful and successful fight.

The infectious nature of the *odium philologicum* appears to be exemplified in the case of the editor of the *Galaxy*, who cannot so much as write a brief marginal note to a philological article by Mr. R. G. White without himself reaching "the large utterance" of the verbal critics: "The mild and Peck-sniffian tone of a letter recently published by Dr. Hall, with its demure talk about the language of gentlemen," etc., etc.

Taking its weak spots and its strong spots together, the first number of the *International Review* must be called a good first number. The new quarterly is, by the way, to be a bi-monthly, for its publishers, Messrs. A. S. Barnes & Co., announce that they have received so much encouragement in their new enterprise that they have determined on issuing six numbers a year instead of four. We should say that the strongest parts of the *International* are ex-President Woolsey's ("International Arbitration") and Baron Franz Von Holtzendorff's ("The Prussian Church Law"). Both of these are truly of interest to a public on each side of the water, and Professor Von Holtzendorff's has the further merit—from one of the *International's* points of view—of being adapted to enlist in its behalf the attention of an American public, religious and otherwise, which takes a very vivid interest in half-a-dozen questions discussed by the Professor. Among these are the attitude of the Roman Court towards the Protestant Churches, of the Ultramontanes towards Protestant Governments, and especially the North German Imperial Government; the history during the last quarter of a century of the three "privileged" churches of Prussia; the relations, past and present, of Prussian Liberalism to Catholicism; the intent of the North German and Prussian Governments in their recent action as against the Jesuits; the probable future of Protestant and Liberal Europe as against the Infallibilists and the reactionary party. Professor Von Holtzendorff touches incidentally on one or two things his handling of which may not very well please some of his American readers. Of these things one is the debate in this country about the reading of the Bible in the public schools. The other thing is the general relation of the state to religious bodies. We do wrong to say that it is only incidentally that this latter problem is dealt with. In reality, it forms a good part of our essayist's theme. What we had in mind was some few detached remarks which reminded us of the large class of public men and public instructors in this country who forget the enormous, the almost overwhelming, difficulties of government and statecraft in old

densely populated countries, and who dismiss all hard questions by enouncing eloquent and contingently true eulogies on Liberty, and pointing to our boundless West. However, the deluge is to be after our time; only the habit of flouting Noah leads to various contemporary evils. Professor Von Holtzendorff's essay will for several reasons repay study; and it may be said to require a little study. Ex-President Woolsey in his article is mainly historical, and shows the antiquity of the process of international arbitration. This, however, he may be said to show without detracting from the dignity of the latest great illustration of the principle. Indeed, this dignity he enhances by his learned list of small cases; and by his remark, "It must be confessed, however, that the compromissory way of reaching a just decision has not been applied, common as it has been in modern times, to many very important international questions." Several aspects of the general question as to the feasibility of settling international disputes without war—some of a dreamlike character, and none seeming very real and waking—come up for Mr. Woolsey's treatment, and they all get the benefit of his penetrating good sense. Professor W. B. Carpenter's essay on deep-sea explorations and what it has taught the geologist and geographer will, we hope, not be found too difficult in its details by the general reader. A small acquaintance with modern researches into the physical condition of the ocean depths, and the nature of the life there found, will suffice to make this a very interesting paper. The doctrine of Vertical Oceanic Circulation—a favorite doctrine of Professor Carpenter's, and in a certain sense his own—with its bearing on the theories as to the climatic condition of Northwestern Europe, receives a good deal of Professor Carpenter's attention. So, too, of the azoic condition of the deep basins of the Mediterranean, and of the under-currents into the same sea from the Euxine, and out of it through the Straits of Gibraltar. We have hardly left to ourselves space enough to do more than give the names of the articles entitled respectively "Universal Education," "Fires in American Cities," "Our Late Panic," and that one entitled "Books," which closes the *Review*. The two last-mentioned are articles not to be commended for their thought or their tone; that entitled "Universal Education" is mostly vague and general, and when it is not vague and general is, nevertheless, not up to the standard of a good review. It is not telling people much nowadays to tell them that normal schools are useful; that compulsory education may sometimes be good; and that it would be well if parents could be made to take an interest in the welfare of their children. The paper on fires in our American cities contains a great many sound remarks on various topics—for example, as to the way in which insurance companies overdo business; in which architects and owners build scandalously unsafe structures; and in which fire-departments fail in organization and duty. It is worth reading. The last sentences of the article some may think curious:

"It is worthy of emphatic notice that the New Jerusalem of the Apocalypse has no inflammable materials—its walls of jasper, its foundations precious stones, its streets of gold, its gates of pearl. Emblems these are, no doubt, of the strength and beauty with which we are to build characters that shall come forth unscathed and immortal from the fires of earthly temptation and trial; but may we not equally take them as types of the material structures, which, in their fragility or their enduring massiveness, we are prone to build after our own likeness?"

BRACHET'S FRENCH DICTIONARY.*

M. AUGUSTE BRACHET belongs to the new school of French philologists which is doing much to clear France of the reproach that foreigners, principally Germans, have done more than natives to further a truly scientific study of the French language. The names of Diez, Mätzner, Bartsch, and others will always be mentioned in connection with French philology; but the learned editors of the *Revue Critique* and of *Romania* have the great merit of first setting the example in France of a solid and broad criticism in linguistic matters. Their horizon is not limited. They have profited by the labors of the learned of other nations, and they present the results of their acquaintance with German learning especially, enriched by original research, in a form that is as agreeable and clear as the other is sometimes dry and intricate. Among many of the new school, MM. Gaston Paris, Paul Meyer, and Brachet have devoted themselves to researches in the domain of French philology. M. Brachet, besides his 'Grammaire Historique' and his 'Dictionnaire Etymologique,' both elementary, has written several works of special erudition. It is in consequence of his own contributions to philology, as much as to those of others, that his 'Historical Grammar' (published in 1867) now needs a complete revision to bring it up fully to the present state of knowledge.

The 'Dictionnaire Etymologique' has found an able translator in Mr. Kitchen. As the editions now stand, the English work is far preferable to the French. It is considerably increased, probably by the author himself. The introduction (126 pages) has in part been rewritten, and the whole is presented in a better, clearer form than in any of the previous French editions. The 'Etymological Dictionary' is not addressed to the learned but to the learning world. The author carefully avoids all discussion of mooted points. He gives, in a clear, elementary manner, the results of the etymological researches of Diez, Littré, Scheler, and others, showing their justness, and tracing back carefully the present forms of French words to their Latin originals. In this consists the merit, the originality of the work. There are other dictionaries in which French etymologies may be found: Scheler's work, for instance, may in many cases be fuller and more satisfactory; but he, as well as Littré and Diez, presupposes a certain amount of knowledge of the subject. The present work, on the contrary, is a guide for the learner; its aim is to explain every fact stated, and to account, as far as possible, for every change that has occurred in the passage of Latin words into French. Whenever an etymology is not certain, no conjectures are admitted; the word is dismissed with the phrase "origin unknown." This last feature, though in perfect accordance with the general plan of the author, is liable to some objection. It is, to say the least, unsatisfactory to look in an etymological dictionary for information in regard to such common words as *petit, mauvais, soin, besoin, besogne,* and others (above 600), and find nothing but such a statement. Even the merest beginner will not rest satisfied with such information; nor is it right that he should. A plausible conjecture, given as a mere conjecture, with perhaps a word or two to call attention to the impossibility or absurdity of some of the old derivations proposed by Ménage and others, would tend much to correct some of the prevalent mistakes that are now current in regard to the origin of just such words.

The long introduction is good. Book III., "Phonetics," containing the history of the Latin letters in their passage into French, is excellent, better than anything on the same subject that has heretofore been published. It is much increased in the English version, and it is to be hoped that the author will embody these new researches in some future edition of his 'Historical Grammar,' where they naturally belong. They are, of course, based on that mine of information in regard to the Romance Languages, Diez's 'Grammatik der romanischen Sprachen.' Much is also taken from the preface of a recent work by M. G. Paris, 'La Vie de Saint Alexis,' to which the indebtedness is not sufficiently acknowledged. But the great merit of M. Brachet is the clearness of his statements, and the beautiful arrangement of the material. The whole treatment of this difficult subject shows the author to be capable of original development, carried further than anything he has yet attempted.

A list of *errata* would not have been superfluous in the English version. There are several such mistakes as *gnt* (p. xv.) for *gril*. On p. xxv. we find *boulingrin* (bowling green) placed among sea terms derived from the English; probably merely a misprint for *bouline* (bow line).

The translation is excellent, but there is evidently a slip on p. xx., where we are told that "many *strange* words have forced themselves" into the Breton dialect; *étranger* means foreign, and the author wishes to dwell particularly upon the fact that French words introduced into the Breton were *foreign* as far as that dialect were concerned. Again, though Galvani *was* an "Italian physician," as the translator has it, the French work speaks of him as "*un physicien italien*," not a *physician*, but a *physicist*.

There are not a few inaccuracies for which the translator is not responsible. To mention only a few: on p. xx, *bidet, dartre, garotter, matras,* are given, probably correctly, as of Celtic origin; in the Dictionary they are said to be of unknown origin. *Cormoran*, in p. xx., is given as Celtic; in the Dictionary the word is referred to the Latin *corvus marinus*, and not a word is said of the Celtic origin, which is well explained by Scheler. There are several other inaccuracies of the same kind. Thus, on the first half of p. xxiii., the following occur: *Héraut, marcher, rapière, brasse, blesser, bronzher, carpe, clapir, faucon*, are all said to be of Germanic origin, but in the Dictionary the origin is given as "unknown," or the words are simply referred to a Latin primitive. *Guérite, guide, hallebarde*, and several others, are given as Germanic; in the Dictionary they are simply referred to the Italian or Spanish. Both statements may be true enough, but in an elementary work they are confusing. *Gaffe*, given as Germanic, is called Celtic in the Dictionary. Many words are also given as Germanic derivations which do not figure at all in the Lexicon. In general, the whole treatment of the Germanic derivations is unsatisfactory.

There are also some puzzling references to the 'Historical Grammar,' and several altogether wrong. Thus *ainsi* is given as being in Old French *ensi*, further back *insi*, from Latin *in-sic*; then follows a reference to 'Historical Grammar,' p. 158. On looking there we find *ainsi*, O. F. *asi*, Lat. *hoc-sic*.

* 'An Etymological Dictionary of the French Language. By A. Brachet, author of 'An Historical Grammar of the French Tongue.' Translated by G. W. Kitchen, M.A.' New York: Macmillan & Co. 1873.

On another page of the 'Grammar' (p. 168), not referred to in the Dictionary, we find "*ainsi*, origin unknown [perhaps from *ante-sic.*]"

Such signs of haste or careless revision are too common in a work otherwise excellent. They could all be made to disappear in a second edition. Such as it is, Brachet's 'Etymological Dictionary' is by far the best elementary guide that exists in any language to the study of special philology. It is not very pleasant to think that while the French language has such excellent works on its etymology as those of Littré, Scheler, and Brachet, the student of English is reduced to such an imperfect, one-sided attempt as Wedgwood's, or to the meagre etymologies given by Mahn (good as far as they go) in the work known as 'Webster's Dictionary.'

Nast's Illustrated Almanac. (New York: Harper & Brothers. 1873.)—Mr. Thomas Nast's comic almanac offers not only amusement, which it furnishes by means of his pencil and some letterpress from "Mark Twain," "Josh Billings," and other humorists, but also gives the usual more or less inscrutable information, zodiacal, tidal, and in reference to the Sundays after Trinity, which is furnished by other almanacs. Mr. Nast's illustrations begin at the outside of the first cover, and end with the outside of the second, and fill the book. Our readers know very well the kind of illustrations that they ought to expect if they purchase this work, and they will not be disappointed —agreeably or disagreeably; unless, indeed, they have been imagining that Mr. Nast is always to show himself as clever as they thought he was last year, when he had the Greeley campaign to aid him, or two years ago, when the attack on the Tweed Ring was made. But the almanac shows the same skill in giving a certain number of forcible caricatures of typical faces. Nobody will recognize in the artist's Irish servant-girl anything but a welcomely libellous caricature, done *con amore*, of that functionary, nor fail to see in the New York barkeeper and the gin-drinking customer the true things themselves, less mercilessly caricatured—drawn, perhaps, with a certain kindliness, as if they were not a bad sort of fellows after all. These and other faces we find truthful and amusing. But we confess that, to quote Froissart one time more, we "take our amusement sadly" in a great number of cases. It becomes somewhat serious when we are asked to amuse ourselves with a picture like that on page 38. It is one of a series setting forth some of the infelicities attendant upon domestic life, as that bills come in, and so on. One of these incidental evils is that your little son, not yet out of petticoats, wanders to the croquet ground, where he is hit on the head by a ball. The result as here depicted is that there appears on the head a vile-looking protuberance, which, as regards shape, height, and comparative size, may be represented by a common glass tumbler. And a most vulgar, unwholesome, and repulsive child your little son is in other respects also. This defect of coarseness runs through all the book—to make our statement no larger. A healthy mind—and for purposes of this discussion we assume ours to be such—will not allow itself to be bothered too much, we suppose, by a little vulgarization of its comic almanac. But enough is a feast. And Mr. Nast is not alone a comic-almanac maker, but a person endowed with a useful and valuable gift, which he employs effectively in other fields, and to the employment of which attaches a responsibility. We may add, also, that the very rigid limitations and very great deductions to which this gift of his, as commonly conceived of, is liable, may profitably become the subject of public recognition.

Recent Music and Musicians. (New York: Henry Holt & Co.)—The last decade of the eighteenth century, and the first half of the nineteenth, witnessed the production of a large part of what we now recognize as masterpieces of musical creation. At the head of this activity was Beethoven, who as early as 1810 had attained apparently the highest possible rank in music. The Mozart school of the previous generation was represented by J. B. Cramer, Clementi, and Hummell. The "new romantic school," based on the more fanciful side of the Beethoven foundation, was just coming into vogue in the works of Chopin, Mendelssohn, Schubert, and Schumann. Ignaz Moscheles was born in 1794, and in 1814 commenced his public career as a pianoforte virtuoso and composer, in which he enjoyed the highest success until 1846, when he accepted the chair of pianoforte instruction in the Leipsic Conservatoire (then just founded), where he led a life of quiet usefulness and honor until, full of years, he died in 1870. Moscheles appears to have been a man of a genial and open disposition, with good business tact, a genuine fondness for public appearance, and with that kind of talent which (as distinguished from genius) finds a full and ready sympathy with its own generation. In 'Recent Music and Musicians' we have the history of his life and works, and his delightful relations with the great musicians mentioned above, as well as a multitude of others of every school and nationality, edited by his wife from his diary and correspondence, and adapted from the German by A. D. Coleridge. A more readable book we have rarely seen.

Geological Stories. By J. E. Taylor, F.L.S., F.G.S. (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.)—This little book is made up of a series of articles originally contributed to *Science Gossip*, now for the first time brought together in a more permanent form. The design of the author is to give a succinct geological history of the development of our globe, from its earliest condition down to the first evidences of the appearance of man upon the earth, presenting the essential facts and deductions, side by side, in so popular and entertaining a manner as to interest the unprofessional reader. As an aid in making his subject more attractive, he adopts an autobiographical style. A "piece of granite," a "piece of quartz," slate, limestone, sandstone, rock-salt, and other mineral substances, are made to act as spokesmen, each in chronological order, relating the story of one of the great divisions or periods of geology. The book scarcely treats, as the titles to the chapters would suggest, of physical geology, but rather of palæontology and the progress of life. Thus, a "story of a piece of Whitby jet," of which a pleasing and instructive chapter might be written, has very little to tell us about jet, an article of commerce at the present time largely employed in adding to the charms of young widows, but has a great deal to say about the fossil flora and fauna of the Lias beds of England, in which the mineral happens to occur. A similar remark would apply to nearly every story told. Two serious faults, we think, render the book ill-adapted for beginners in the study of geology. It is an error attempting to compress all the elements of a science into so limited a space. The real object of the author might be gained far more easily by elucidating a few fundamental points more fully, than by seeking to touch upon every subject found in the more advanced manuals and text-books. There is also great lack of judgment shown in the relative importance attached to the subjects treated—minute details being frequently expanded at the expense of more weighty matters. In style, the author is clear, and generally accurate in statement, while the pages are profuse in illustrations, not always well executed.

Irish Emigration to the United States: What it has been and what it is. By the Rev. Stephen Byrne, O.S.D. (New York: Catholic Publication Society.)—This is emphatically a work written in good faith, and with an eye single to the welfare of the people to whom it is addressed. It "does not profess to be one of a peculiarly religious character," and it is noticeably free from prejudice both in speaking of Protestants and in its account of the Government under which we live. "Often," says Father Byrne, "non-Catholics show the greatest liberality in helping to build and decorate our churches." "The writer is acquainted with many cases in which non-Catholic employers—masters and mistresses—will have no servants excepting *Catholics* who comply with the duties of their religion." "Since the time of the Revolution, there has been no *ascendency* party here either in church or in state; but a perfect equality prevails, and even a possibility, where there is a fitness, to enjoy any office of honor or trust. Foreign-born citizens are eligible to any office in the land, excepting only the office of President of the United States." "I know for certain that, outside of large cities, 'strikes' cannot take place with much effect; and that, when we consider this as a free country, labor of all kinds will, in the long run, be free." The Homestead Law "reflects infinite credit upon the legislators of America. It more than realizes the highest dreams of the most *ultra* communists of this or any other age."

These extracts will serve to show the spirit and intelligence of the author. His main object is to induce the Irish who are already here, and those who are yet to come, to leave the squalor and temptations of the large cities, and betake themselves to the country, as laborers or as farm-proprietors. In this he will have the hearty support of all Americans, and the circulation of his handbook should be promoted by the authorities of every State which desires to increase its working population, or to thin out its pauper classes. Father Byrne has collected testimony from the best sources in regard to the condition, as regards soil, climate, wages, etc., etc., of all the States, and presents it in a compact, easily intelligible form, often with the text of the letter from the Bishop or other responsible authority. His information is not so full as that given in the 'Handbook for Immigrants' of the American Social Association, which perhaps errs on the side of fulness. Like that, however, it is fit to place in the hands of other than Irish immigrants, particularly the German, statistics of the German population everywhere accompanying those of the Irish. An appendix contains tables of the total population of the United States; of the prices of farm and mechanical labor in the several groups of States; and of the population of State capitals and towns and cities having upwards of 8,000 inhabitants; and, finally, a map of the United States satisfies the last requirement of a work of this character.

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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

DECEMBER 22.

THE money market has remained quite steady, with rates ruling between 5 and 7 per cent. to borrowers in good standing offering desirable collaterals. At the Stock Exchange 7 per cent. gold was paid frequently, and even as high as $\frac{1}{32}$ commission overnight was exacted, in some instances, in addition to 7 per cent. interest; but lately Stock Exchange rates have not fairly represented the money market, as there are quite a number of persons in that institution who are not considered desirable borrowers, and have to pay well in order to make up their bank accounts.

Commercial paper has been in very good demand, and the tendency of the market is towards lower rates. For first-class names 9 to 12 per cent. is a fair quotation. We hear that considerable amounts have been placed at the former figure, and holders do not seem to be desirous of selling at a much higher one. Several failures have taken place during the week among the dry-goods jobbing-houses, but they have occasioned no alarm, as they were houses of moderate capital and doing business of too extended a nature for their means.

The foreign news is unimportant. Money is easy in London, and the Bank of England rate of discount remains standing at 4½ per cent.

The weekly statement of the Clearing-House banks on Saturday was favorable; the total reserve shows a gain of $2,175,500, against an increase of $4,020,500 in liabilities—a net gain of $1,005,125 in reserve as compared with the statement of the previous week. The surplus reserve now stands at $11,245,125, against $10,074,750 December 13—a gain of $1,170,375.

The following is a comparison of the averages for the past two weeks:

	Dec. 13.	Dec. 20.	Differences.
Loans	$254,520,600	$257,191,900	Inc...$2,671,300
Specie	22,319,500	21,987,900	Dec... 331,600
Legal tenders	42,060,600	44,567,700	Inc... 2,507,100
Deposits	190,054,200	194,116,500	Inc... 4,062,300
Circulation	27,167,200	27,125,400	Dec... 41,800

The stock market has been very unsettled during the latter part of the week, with prices lower on the entire speculative list as compared with the quotations of Monday. It is but natural that a reaction should take place after the rapid advance since the panic, and a great many have doubtless thought best to sell and realize their profits. It is stated that a leading operator has been a heavy seller of stock bought at "panic prices," and is just now interested in bringing about lower quotations in order to buy back. We see no reason why stocks should fall off much below the figures reached on Friday and Saturday, unless the present policy of the Treasury Department suddenly changes, or Congress should do what it is the least likely to do—make provision for the immediate stoppage of the issue of irredeemable paper money. The investment stocks have been strong; New Jersey Central sold at 102 for odd lots, Delaware and Lackawanna at 102¾, Harlem at 121, extra dividend of 4 per cent., Ft. Wayne at 90½, and Michigan Central at 75½.

Railroad earnings for the first and second weeks in December are encouraging to stockholders, showing an increase over those for a corresponding period in November.

The following shows the highest and lowest sales of the leading stocks at the Stock Exchange for the week ending December 20, 1873:

	Monday.		Tuesday.		Wed'day.		Thursday		Friday.		Saturday.		Sales.
N. Y. C & H. R...	95⅝	96⅛	95¾	96⅜	95⅞	96¼	95⅝	96	94⅝	95½	95¼	96	28,200
Lake Shore.....	76	77¼	76⅝	77¼	76	76¾	75¾	76⅜	73¾	76	74½	75⅜	104,700
Erie.....	45	45¼	.....	.....	44½	45	....	44½	....	45¼	.....	.....	8.0
Do. pfd.....	.....	.....	.....	71½	....	71	.....	.....	....	71	.....	.....	.....
Union Pacific	30¾	32¼	30¾	32	30¾	31⅜	30⅛	30¾	29	30⅜	29⅜	30⅝	244,400
Chi. & N. W.....	56	57½	55¾	56¾	55½	56	55	55½	53	55	54	55⅞	32,200
Do. pfd.....	70	71¼	70	70⅜	69⅝	69¾	69	69½	67½	69	.....	.....	3,600
N. J. Central.....	96½	100	.....	.....	....	101	....	102	....	100	....	98⅜	400
Rock Island.....	98½	99¼	98¼	98¾	98⅜	98⅝	97⅞	98¼	97	97½	97¼	98⅜	6,000
Mil. & St. Paul....	40¾	42	40⅜	41¾	40¼	41⅝	39⅜	40⅜	38¾	40	39½	40½	45,700
Do. pfd...	63½	64	63¼	64	63⅝	63¾	63	63¼	....	63	62¼	62½	4,000
Wabash.....	52⅜	54	52⅜	53¼	51⅜	52⅝	50½	51¾	48½	50⅜	48⅜	51	87,100
D., L. & W.....	100½	101	101½	102½	102¼	102⅜	....	102	100¾	101	100½	101½	5.000
B., H. & Erie.....	2¼	2⅜	2⅜	2½	....	2¼	....	2¼	....	2⅜	2½	3⅛	6.900
O. & M.....	30½	31½	30¾	31½	30⅜	31⅛	30¼	30⅜	28⅜	30¼	29¼	30¼	88,000
C., C. & I. C.....	26½	27¼	26⅝	28	27	27⅞	27	27½	25⅞	27	26⅜	27⅜	61,400
Harlem.....	122¼	122½	....	122	....	122	....	122	121½	122	120¾	122	2,800
Panama.....	98	99	97½	98	96¾	97	....	96½	95	9 8⅜	95	96	.....
W. U. Tel.....	73½	74½	73½	75	73¾	74¾	73⅜	74⅝	70¾	74⅜	70⅜	73⅜	274,800
Pacific Mail.....	39¼	40⅜	38¼	39⅜	38½	39	38¼	38¾	36	38¼	36⅝	38	74,400

Government bonds advanced early in the week in sympathy with the rise in the gold premium. Later in the week, with the culmination of the bull movement in gold, the price of bonds declined about 3 per cent. on the most active issues, the market on Saturday finally leaving off as follows:

U. S. 6s, 1881, r.....114⅛@116
U. S. 6s, 1881. c.....118½@119¼
U. S. 5-20 c, 1862.....112½@113½
U. S. 5 20 c., 1865.....113½@114⅜
U. S. 5-20 c., 1865, n.....116½@116¾
U. S. 5-20 c., 1867.....117 @117½
U S. 5-20 c., 1868.....117 @117½
U. S. 5s, 1881.....111 @111⅝
U. S. 6s, Cy.....112⅜@112¾

The highest point reached during the week was 121 for 6s of 1881; 116 for 5-20s of 1862; 117¼ for '64s; 117¼ for '65s, old; 119¾ for '65s, new; 120 for '67s; and 113¼ for new 5s.

In State bonds a more active business has been doing. Tennessees have sold freely at 81 for both new and old issues. We notice auction sales of the following Southern State bonds: South Carolina 6s, act of March, 1869, at 10⅝ to 10⅞; South Carolina old 6s, dated 1855 and 1858, at 25⅜; and North Carolina Special Tax bonds at 6½ and 6⅞.

Gold advanced on Tuesday to 112⅝, at which figure the clique commenced selling out, when the price fell off to 111⅝, and on Saturday to 110⅛, closing at 110½. It is said that the clique, which was instrumental in advancing the market, succeeded in selling out at and above 112.

CORRESPONDENCE.

The Fire at Eatontown.

ITS PROGRESS ARRESTED BY THE BABCOCK ENGINE FROM LONG BRANCH.

LONG BRANCH, N. J., December 11, 1873.

F. W. FARWELL, SECRETARY:

DEAR SIR: We have received great praise for our company and the Babcock Engine for work done at a large fire at Eatontown on Wednesday morning. We received the alarm at 2 A.M., and ran to Eatontown (3½ miles) in twenty minutes; found four buildings about falling in, and Wheeler's large hotel on fire in a dozen places; owing to the high wind driving the flames upon the hotel, we were unable to save that, and directed our efforts to checking the course of the fire. We succeeded in doing so, saving a building within sixteen feet of the hotel; had this building burned, nothing would have saved the seven adjoining ones, as they are built close together, and probably the greater part of the town would have gone. The wind was blowing at a fearful rate, and we had a hot time of it, working about three hours. It is acknowledged on all sides that, but for the Babcock, Eatontown would now be in ashes.

Yours respectfully, F. W. KEMP,
Assistant Foreman Oceanic, No. 1.

Fire in Orange.

HASTINGS & BRUSH, 57 WALKER STREET,
NEW YORK, November 25, 1873.

F. W. FARWELL, SECRETARY:

DEAR SIR: I take great pleasure in informing you that by the use of one of your Babcock Extinguishers, I saved my house in Orange, N. J., from destruction last evening. The fire was caused by the explosion of a German student's lamp, which was being filled carelessly while burning. While I was up-stairs after the Extinguisher, which I purchased of you in May, 1872, and which was filled and set away at that time, and had not been touched since, an attempt was made to quench the fire by the application of pails of water; but the result was only an increase of the flames. By the use of the machine the fire was put out in less than five seconds, and the damage done, aside from the total destruction of the lamp, was very small indeed.

As I think the size I have is too heavy for my wife to use in my absence, I wish you would send me one of your smallest size. You may freely refer to me any parties who are at all doubtful of its utility.

Respectfully yours, CLINTON E. BRUSH.

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Page 24, col. 1, line 6 from bottom. Omit "and Miss Martineau."

Page 30, col. 1, line 25. For "Lord Granville" read "Lord Clarendon." Line 29, omit "(Charles Page Wood)."

Page 71, col. 2, line 26. For "Steevens" read "Steeve."

Page 96, col. 2, line 17 from bottom. For "1871" read "1771."

Page 224, col. 2, line 8. For "ex-rebels" read "ex-nobles."

Page 241, col. 2, line 19 from bottom. For "Dorothy L." read "Dorothy Q."

Page 303, col. 2, line 12. For "Barraude" read "Barrande."

Page 405, col. 1, line 3. For "Guizot" read "Guyot."

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